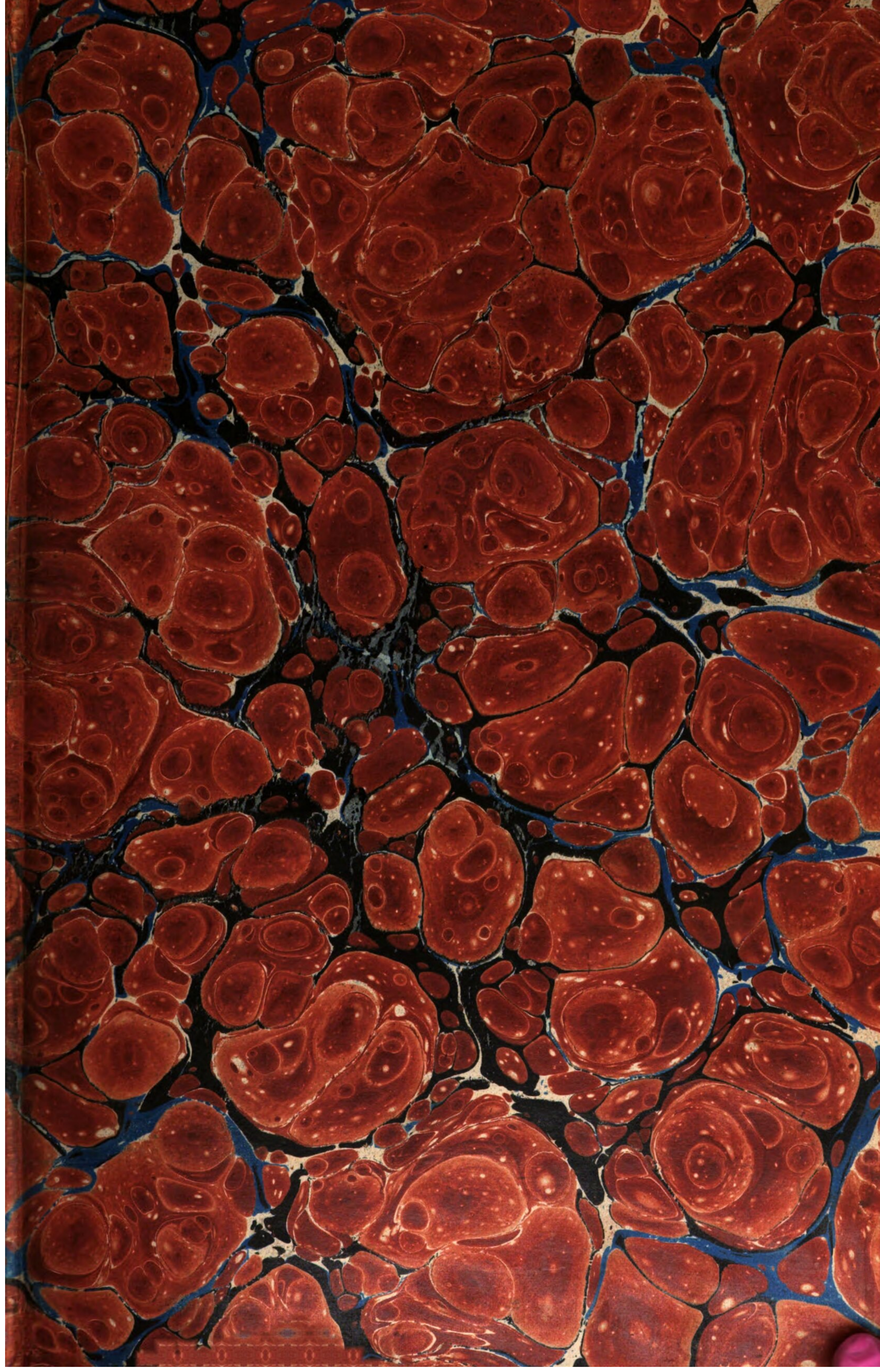




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SECTION

REPORTS AND PAPERS

HOUSE OF COMMONS

Vol.

1851

SELECTION

OF

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VOL. 44.

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1881

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on the Poor Laws (1834) _____ 1

R E P O R T

FROM

HIS MAJESTY'S COMMISSIONERS

FOR INQUIRING INTO THE

ADMINISTRATION AND PRACTICAL OPERATION

OF

THE POOR LAWS.

APPENDIX (F.)

FOREIGN COMMUNICATIONS.

Ordered, by The House of Commons, to be Printed,
21 February 1834.

A P P E N D I X (F.)

Foreign Communications.

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PREFACE

TO THE

FOREIGN COMMUNICATIONS

Contained in the APPENDIX to the REPORT from HIS MAJESTY'S COMMISSIONERS for inquiring into the Administration and practical Operation of the POOR LAWS.

THE Commissioners appointed by His Majesty to make a diligent and full Inquiry into the practical operation of the Laws for the relief of the Poor, were restricted by the words of their Commission to England and Wales. As it was obvious, however, that much instruction might be derived from the experience of other countries, the Commissioners were authorized by Viscount Melbourne, then His Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for the Home Department, to extend the investigation as far as might be found productive of useful results. At first they endeavoured to effect this object through their personal friends, and in this manner obtained several valuable communications. But as this source of information was likely to be soon exhausted, they requested Viscount Palmerston, then His Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for the Foreign Department, to obtain the assistance of the Diplomatic Body.

In compliance with this application, Viscount Palmerston, by a circular dated the 12th of August 1833, requested each of His Majesty's Foreign Ministers to procure and transmit, with the least possible delay, a full report of the legal provisions existing in the country in which he was resident, for the support and maintenance of the poor; of the principles on which such provision was founded; of the manner in which it was administered; of the amount and mode of raising the funds devoted to that purpose; and of the practical working and effect of the actual system, upon the comfort, character and condition of the inhabitants.

The answers to these well-framed inquiries form a considerable portion of the contents of the following volume. They constitute, probably, the fullest collection that has ever been made of laws for the relief of the poor.

But as a subject of such extent would necessarily be treated by different persons in different manners, and various degrees of attention given to its separate branches, the Commissioners thought it advisable that a set of questions should also be circulated, which, by directing the attention of each inquirer and informant to uniform objects, would enable the influence of different systems on the welfare of the persons subjected to them to be compared.

For this purpose the following Questions were drawn up:

THE following Questions apply to Customs and Institutions, whether general throughout the State, or peculiar to certain Districts, and to Relief given:—

- 1st. By the Voluntary Payment of Individuals or Corporate Bodies.
- 2d. By Institutions specially endowed for that purpose.
- 3d. By the Government, either general or local.
- 4th. By any one or more of these means combined.

And you are requested to state particularly the cases (if any) in which the person relieved has a legal claim.

QUESTIONS.

VAGRANTS.

1. To what extent and under what form does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?

2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country, seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded, and under what regulations?

P. L. (F.)

DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are they, or any part of their families, billeted or quartered on householders?
2. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?
3. To what extent and under what regulations are there district houses of industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families, and supplying them with food, clothes, &c., and in which they are set to work?
4. To what extent and under what regulations do any religious institutions give assistance to the destitute, by receiving them as inmates, or by giving them alms?
5. To what extent and under what regulations is work provided at their own dwellings for those who have trades, but do not procure work for themselves?
6. To what extent and under what regulations is work provided for such persons in agriculture or on public works?
7. To what extent and under what regulations are fuel, clothing or money distributed to such persons or their families; at all times of the year, or during any particular seasons?
8. To what extent and under what regulations are they relieved by their children being taken into schools, and fed, clothed and educated, or apprenticed?
9. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are the relatives of the destitute compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking charge of part of their families?
10. To what extent and under what regulations are they assisted by loans?

IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there almshouses or other institutions for the reception of those who, through age, are incapable of earning their subsistence?
2. To what extent and under what regulations is relief in food, fuel, clothing or money afforded them at their homes?
3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?
4. To what extent and under what regulations are they quartered or billeted on householders.
5. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking part of their families?

SICK.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there district institutions for the reception of the sick?
2. To what extent and under what regulations are surgical and medical relief afforded to the poor at their own homes?
3. To what extent and under what regulations are there institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick?
4. To what extent and under what regulations is assistance given to lying-in women at their homes, or in public establishments?
5. To what extent and under what regulations are there any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick?

CHILDREN:

Illegitimate.

1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall; wholly upon the mothers, or wholly upon the fathers; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations?
2. To what extent and under what regulations are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards?
3. To what extent and under what regulations are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?

Orphans, Foundlings or Deserted Children.

4. To what extent and under what regulations are they taken into establishments for their reception?
5. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?
6. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?
7. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?

CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception?
2. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?
3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?

4. To

4. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?

Idiots and Lunatics.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception?

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?

3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?

4. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

You are requested to state whether the receipt, or the expectation of relief, appears to produce any and what effect,

1st. On the industry of the labourers?

2d. On their frugality?

3d. On the age at which they marry?

4th. On the mutual dependence and affection of parents, children and other relatives?

5th. What, on the whole, is the condition of the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, as compared with the condition of the person subsisting on alms or public charity. Is the condition of the latter, as to food and freedom from labour more or less eligible? See p. 261 and 335 of the Poor Law Extracts.

You are also requested to read the accompanying volume,* published by the English Poor Law Commissioners, and to state the existence of any similar mal-administration of the charitable funds of the country in which you reside, and what are its effects?

* Extracts from the information on the Administration of the Poor Laws.

You are also requested to forward all the dietaries which you can procure of prisons, workhouses, almshouses and other institutions, with translations expressing the amounts and quantities in English money, weights and measures, and to state what changes (if any) are proposed in the laws or institutions respecting relief in the country in which you reside, and on what grounds?

In replying to the following Questions respecting Labourers, you are requested to distinguish Agriculturists from Artisans, and the Skilled from the Unskilled.

1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month or the year, with and without provisions, in summer and in winter?

2. Is piece-work general?

3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?

4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.

5. Is there any, and what employment for women and children?

6. What can women, and children under 16, earn per week, in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed?

7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8 and 5 years respectively (the eldest a boy), expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?

8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children, and if so, on what food?

9. Could it lay by any thing, and how much?

10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?

11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations?

12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale?

13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?

14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?

15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?

16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?

17. The average number of children to a marriage?

18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?

19. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year?

20. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 10th year?

21. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 18th year?

22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?

23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?

24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried; 2d, the married, save?

25. Mode in which they invest their savings?

These questions, together with the volume to which they refer, of Extracts of Information on the Administration of the Poor Laws, were transmitted by Viscount Palmerston to His Majesty's Foreign Ministers and Consuls on the 30th November 1833.

The replies to them form the remaining contents of the following pages.

It will be perceived, therefore, that this volume contains documents of three different kinds:

1. Private Communications.
2. Diplomatic Answers to the general inquiries suggested by Viscount Palmerston's circular of the 12th of August 1833.
3. Diplomatic Answers to the Questions framed by the Commissioners, and contained in Viscount Palmerston's circular of the 30th November 1833.

Unfortunately, only a small portion of these documents had arrived when the Commissioners made their Report to His Majesty on the 20th February 1834. The documents then received are contained in the first 115 pages of this volume, and were printed by order of the House of Commons, and delivered to Members in May 1834. Those subsequently received were transmitted to the printers as soon as the requisite translations of those portions which were not written in English or French could be prepared. If it had been practicable to defer printing any portion until the whole was ready, they might have been much more conveniently arranged. But to this course there were two objections. First, the impossibility of ascertaining from what places documents would be received; and secondly, the difficulty of either printing within a short period so large a volume, containing so much tabular matter, or of keeping the press standing for six or seven months. The Parliamentary printers have a much larger stock of type than any other establishment, but even their resources did not enable them to keep unemployed for months the type required for many hundred closely printed folio pages. The arrangement, therefore, of the following papers is in a great measure casual, depending much less on the nature of the documents than on the times at which they were received. The following short summary of their contents, may, it is hoped, somewhat diminish this inconvenience.

I.—The Private Communications consist of,

1. Two Papers by Count Arrivabene, containing an account of the labouring population of Gaesbeck, a village about nine miles from Brussels (p. 1.); and a description of the state of the Poor Colonies of Holland and Belgium in 1829 - - - p. 610
2. A Report, by Captain Brandreth, on the Belgian Poor Colonies, in 1832 - p. 15
3. A Statement, by M. Ducpétiaux, of the Situation of the Belgian Poor Colonies, in 1832 - - - - - p. 619
4. An Essay on the comparative state of the Poor in England and France, by M. de Chateauevieux - - - - - p. 2.
5. Notes on the Administration of the Relief of the Poor in France, by Ashurst Majendie, Esq. - - - - - p. 34
6. A Report made by M. Gindroz to the Grand Council of the Canton de Vaud, on Petitions for the Establishment of Almshouses - - - - - p. 53
7. A Report by Commissioners appointed by the House of Representatives, on the Pauper System of Massachusetts - - - - - p. 57
8. A Report by the Secretary of State, giving an Abstract of the Reports of the Superintendents of the Poor of the State of New York - - - - - p. 99
9. A Report by Commissioners appointed to draw up a Project of a Poor Law for Norway - - - - - p. 701

II.—The following are the Answers to Viscount Palmerston's Circular of the 12th August 1833*.

AMERICA.

1. *New York*—Report from James Buchanan, Esq., His Majesty's Consul - p. 109
2. *New Hampshire and Maine*—Report from J. Y. Sherwood, Esq., Acting British Consul - - - - - p. 111
3. *The Floridas and Alabama*—Report from James Baker, Esq., His Majesty's Consul, - - - - - p. 113
4. *Louisiana*—Report from George Salkeld, Esq., ditto - - - - - p. 115
5. *South Carolina*—Report from W. Ogilby, Esq., ditto - - - - - p. 117
6. *Georgia*—Report from E. Molyneux, Esq., ditto - - - - - p. 123
7. *Massachusetts*—Report from the Right honourable Sir Charles R. Vaughan, His Majesty's Minister - - - - - p. 123
8. *New Jersey*—Report from ditto - - - - - p. 673
9. *Pennsylvania*—Report from Gilbert Robertson, Esq., His Majesty's Consul - p. 135

* Some of these Reports were transmitted to the Commissioners without signatures. The names of the Authors have been since furnished by the Foreign Office, and are now added.

EUROPE.

1. *Sweden*—Report from Lord Howard de Walden, His Majesty's Minister - p. 343
2. *Russia*—Report from Hon. J. D. Bligh, ditto - - - - - p. 323
3. *Prussia*—Report from Ralph Abercromby, Esq., His Majesty's Chargé-d'Affaires, p. 425
4. *Wurtemberg*—Report from Sir E. C. Disbrowe, His Majesty's Minister - p. 483
5. *Holland*—Report from Hon. G. S. Jerningham, His Majesty's Chargé-d'Affaires, p. 571
6. *Belgium*—Report from the Right hon. Sir R. Adair, His Majesty's Minister, p. 591
7. *Switzerland*—Report from D. R. Morier, Esq., ditto - - - - - p. 190
8. *Venice*—Report from W. T. Money, Esq., His Majesty's Consul-General - p. 663

III.—Answers to the Questions suggested by the Commissioners, and circulated by Viscount Palmerston on the 30th November 1833, have been received from the following places :

AMERICA.

1. *Massachusetts*—by George Manners, Esq., His Majesty's Consul - - - p. 680
2. *New York*—by James Buchanan, Esq., ditto - - - - - p. 156
3. *Mexico*—by R. Pakenham, Esq., His Majesty's Chargé-d'Affaires - - - p. 688
4. *Carthage de Colombia*—by J. Ayton, Esq., British Pro-Consul - - - p. 164
5. *Venezuela*—by Sir R. K. Porter, His Majesty's Consul - - - - - p. 161
6. *Maranhão*—by John Moon, Esq., ditto - - - - - p. 692
7. *Bahia*—by John Parkinson, Esq., ditto - - - - - p. 731
8. *Uruguay*—by T. S. Hood, Esq., His Majesty's Consul-General - - - p. 722
9. *Hayti*—by G. W. Courtenay, Esq., ditto - - - - - p. 167

EUROPE.

1. *Norway*—by Consuls Greig and Mygind - - - - - p. 695
2. *Sweden*—by Hon. J. H. D. Bloomfield, His Majesty's Secretary of Legation, p. 372
- (a). *Gottenburg*—by H. T. Liddell, Esq., His Majesty's Consul - - - p. 384
3. *Russia*—by Hon. J. D. Bligh, His Majesty's Minister - - - - - p. 330
- (a). *Archangel*—by T. C. Hunt, Esq., His Majesty's Consul - - - - - p. 337
- (b). *Courland*—by F. Kienitz, Esq., ditto - - - - - p. 339
4. *Denmark*—by Peter Browne, Esq., His Majesty's Secretary of Legation - p. 263
- (a). *Elsinore*—by F. C. Macgregor, Esq., His Majesty's Consul - - - p. 292
5. *Hanseatic Towns* :
- (a). *Hamburgh*—by H. Canning, Esq., His Majesty's Consul-General - p. 390
- (b). *Bremen*—by G. E. Papendick, Esq., British Vice-Consul - - - p. 410
- (c). *Lubeck*—by W. L. Behnes, Esq., ditto - - - - - p. 415
6. *Mecklenburgh*—by G. Meyen, Esq., ditto - - - - - p. 421
7. *Dantzic*—by Alexander Gibsons, Esq., His Majesty's Consul - - - p. 459
8. *Saxony*—by Hon. F. R. Forbes, His Majesty's Minister - - - - - p. 479
9. *Wurtemberg*—by Hon. W. Wellesley, Chargé-d'Affaires - - - - - p. 507
10. *Bavaria*—by Lord Erskine, His Majesty's Minister - - - - - p. 554
11. *Frankfort on the Main*—by — Koch, Esq., His Majesty's Consul - - - p. 564
12. *Amsterdam*—by R. Melvil, Esq., ditto - - - - - p. 581
13. *Belgium* :
- (a) *Antwerp and Boom*—by Baron de Hochepeid Larpent, His Majesty's Consul, p. 627
- (b) *Ostend*—by G. A. Fauche, Esq., ditto - - - - - p. 641
14. *France* :
- (a). *Havre*—by Arch. Gordon, Esq., His Majesty's Consul - - - - - p. 179
- (b). *Brest*—by A. Perrier, Esq., ditto - - - - - p. 724
- (c). *La Loire Inferieure*—by Henry Newman, Esq., ditto - - - - - p. 171
- (d). *Bordeaux*—by T. B. G. Scott, Esq., ditto - - - - - p. 229
- (e). *Bayonne*—by J. V. Harvey, Esq., ditto - - - - - p. 260
- (f). *Marseilles*—by Alexander Turnbull, Esq., ditto - - - - - p. 186
15. *Portugal*—by Lieut.-Col. Lorell, ditto - - - - - p. 642
16. *The Azores*—by W. H. Read, Esq., ditto - - - - - p. 643
17. *Canary Islands*—by Richard Bartlett, Esq., ditto - - - - - p. 686
18. *Sardinian States*—by Sir Augustus Foster, His Majesty's Minister - - - p. 648
19. *Greece*—by E. J. Dawkins, Esq., ditto - - - - - p. 665
- (a). *Patras*—by G. W. Crowe, Esq., His Majesty's Consul - - - - - p. 668
20. *European Turkey*— - - - - p. 669

It is impossible, within the limits of a Preface, to give more than a very brief outline of the large mass of information contained in this volume, respecting the provision made for the poor in America and in the Continent of Europe.

AMERICA.

AMERICA.

It may be stated that, with respect to America, a legal provision is made for paupers in every part of the United States from which we have returns, excepting Georgia and Louisiana; and that no such provision exists in Brazil or in Hayti, or, as far as is shown by these returns, in any of the countries originally colonized by Spain.

The system in the United States was of course derived from England, and modified in consequence, not only of the local circumstances of the country, but also of the prevalence of slavery in many of the States, and of federal institutions which by recognizing to a certain extent each State as an independent sovereignty, prevent the removal from one State of paupers who are natives of another. Such paupers are supported in some of the northern districts not by local assessments, but out of the general income of the State, under the name of state paupers.

The best mode of treating this description of paupers is a matter now in discussion in the United States.

The following passage in the report of the Commissioners appointed to revise the civil code of Pennsylvania, shows the inconveniences arising from the absence of a national provision for them: (pp. 139, 140.)

We may be permitted to suggest one alteration of the present law, of considerable importance. In Massachusetts and New York, and perhaps in some other States, paupers who have no settlement in the State are relieved at the expense of the State. In this commonwealth, the burthen falls upon the particular district in which the pauper may happen to be. This often occasions considerable expense to certain counties or places from which others are exempt. The construction of a bridge or canal, for instance, will draw to a particular neighbourhood a large number of labourers, many of whom may have no settlement in the State. If disabled by sickness or accident, they must be relieved by the township in which they became disabled, although their labour was employed for the benefit of the State or county, as the case may be, and not for the benefit of the township alone. If provision were made for the payment of the expenses incurred by the township in such case out of the county, or perhaps the State treasury, we think that it would be more just, and that the unhappy labourer would be more likely to obtain adequate relief than if left to the scanty resources of a single township. A case which is stated in the 2d volume of the Pennsylvania Reports, (*Overseers v. M'Coy*, p. 432), in which it appeared, that a person employed as a labourer on the State Canal, and who was severely wounded in the course of his employment, was passed from one township to another, in consequence of the disinclination to incur the expense of supporting him, until he died of the injury received, shows in a strong light the inconvenience and perils of the present system respecting casual paupers, and may serve to excuse our calling the attention of the legislature to the subject.

On the other hand, the Commissioners appointed to revise the poor laws of Massachusetts, after stating that the national provision in their State for the unsettled poor has existed ever since the year 1675, recommend its abolition, by arguments, a portion of which we shall extract, as affording an instructive picture of the worst forms of North American pauperism: (pp. 59, 60, 61.)

It will appear, (say the Commissioners), that of the whole number more or less assisted during the last year, that is, of 12,331 poor, 5,927 were State's poor, and 6,063 were town's poor; making the excess of town's over State's poor to have been only 497. The proportion which, it will be perceived, that the State's poor bear to the town's poor, is itself a fact of startling interest. We have not the means of ascertaining the actual growth of this class of the poor. But if it may be estimated by a comparison of the State's allowance for them in 1792-3, the amount of which, in round numbers, was \$14,000, with the amount of the allowance 27 years afterwards, that is, in 1820, when it was \$72,000, it suggests matter for very serious consideration. So sensitive, indeed, to the increasing weight of the burthen had the legislature become even in 1798, when the allowance was but \$27,000 that "an Act" was passed, "specifying the kind of evidence required to accompany accounts exhibited for the support of the poor of the Commonwealth." In 1821, with a view to still further relief from the evil, the law limited its allowance to 90 cents a week for adults, and to 50 cents for children; and again, for the same end, it was enacted in 1823, that "no one over 12, and under 60 years of age, and in good health, should be considered a State pauper." The allowance is now reduced to 70 cents per week for adults, and proportionally for children; and in the cases in which the poor of this class have become an integral part of the population of towns, and in which, from week to week, through protracted sickness, or from any cause, they are for the year supported by public bounty, the expense for them is sometimes greater than this allowance. But this is comparatively a small proportion of the State's poor: far the largest part, as has been made to appear, consists of those who are but occasionally assisted, and, in some instances, of those of whom there seems to be good reason to infer, from the expense accounts, that they

they make a return in the products of their labour to those who have the charge of them, which might well exonerate the Commonwealth from any disbursements for their support. Even 70 cents a week, therefore, or any definable allowance, we believe, has a direct tendency to increase this class of the poor; for a charity will not generally be very resolutely withheld, where it is known that, if dispensed, it will soon be refunded. And we leave it to every one to judge whether almsgiving, under the influence of this motive, and to a single and defined class, has not a direct tendency at once to the increase of its numbers, and to a proportionate earnestness of importunity for it.

It is also not to be doubted, that a large proportion of this excess of State's poor, more or less assisted during the year, consists of those who are called in the statements herewith presented, "wandering or travelling poor." The single fact of the existence among us of this class of fellow beings, especially considered in connexion with the facts, that nearly all of them are State's poor, and that, to a great extent, they have been made what they are by the State's provision for them, brings the subject before us in a bearing, in which we scarcely know whether the call is loudest to the pity we should feel for them, or the self-reproach with which we should recur to the measures we have sanctioned, and which have alike enlarged their numbers and their misery. Nor is it a matter of mere inference from our tables, that the number is very large of these wandering poor. To a considerable extent, and it is now regretted that it was not to a greater extent, the inquiry was proposed to overseers of the poor, "How many of the wandering, or travelling poor, annually pass under your notice?" And the answers, as will appear in the statements, were from 10 to 50, and 100 and 200. Nor is there a more abject class of our fellow beings to be found in our country, than is this class of the poor. Almshouses, where they are to be found, are their inns, at which they stop for refreshment. Here they find rest, when too much worn with fatigue to travel, and medical aid when they are sick. And, as they choose not to labour, they leave these stopping places, when they have regained strength to enable them to travel, and pass from town to town, *demanding* their portion of the State's allowance for them as *their right*. And from place to place they receive a portion of this allowance, as the easiest mode of getting rid of them, and they talk of the allowance as their "rations;" and, when lodged for a time, from the necessity of the case, with town's poor, it is their boast that they, by the State's allowance for them, support the town's inmates of the house. These unhappy fellow beings often travel with females, sometimes, but not always, their wives; while yet, in the towns in which they take up their temporary abode, they are almost always recognized and treated as sustaining this relation. There are exceptions, but they are few, of almshouses in which they are not permitted to live together. In winter they seek the towns in which they hope for the best accommodations and the best living, and where the smallest return will be required for what they receive. It is painful thus to speak of these human beings, lest, in bringing their degradation distinctly before the mind, we should even for a moment check the commiseration which is so strongly claimed for them. We feel bound therefore to say, that bad as they are, they are scarcely less sinned against in the treatment they receive, than they commit sin in the lawlessness of their lives. Everywhere viewed, and feeling themselves to be, outcasts; possessed of nothing, except the miserable clothing which barely covers them; accustomed to beggary, and wholly dependent upon it; with no local attachments, except those which grow out of the facilities which in some places they may find for a more unrestrained indulgence than in others; with no friendships, and neither feeling nor awakening sympathy; is it surprising that they are debased and shameless, alternately insolent and servile, importunate for the means of subsistence and self-gratification, and averse from every means but that of begging to obtain them? The peculiar attraction of these unhappy fellow beings to our Commonwealth, and their preference for it over the States to the south of us, we believe is to be found in the legal provision which the State has made for them. Your Commissioners have indeed but a small amount of direct evidence of this; but the testimony of the chairman of the overseers in Egremont to this fact, derived from personal knowledge, was most unequivocal, and no doubt upon the subject existed in the minds of the overseers in many other towns. But shall we therefore condemn, or even severely blame them? Considered and treated, in almost every place, as interlopers, strollers, vagrants; as objects of suspicion and dread, and, too often, scarcely as human beings; the cheapest methods are adopted of sending them from town to town, and often with the assurance given to them that *there*, and not *here*, are accommodations for them, and that *there* they may enjoy the bounty which the State has provided for them. Would such a state of things, your Commissioners ask, have existed in our Commonwealth, if a specific, legal provision had not been made for this class of the poor? Or, we do not hesitate to ask, if the Government had never recognized such a class of the poor as that of State's poor,—and, above all, if compulsory charity, in any form, had never been established by our laws, would there have been a twentieth part of the wandering poor which now exists in it, or by any means an equal proportion of poor of any kind with that which is now dependent upon the taxes which are raised for them? Your Commissioners think not.

Either an increase of the evils of pauperism, or a clearer perception of them, has induced most of the States during the last 10 years to make, both in their laws for the relief of the poor and in the administration of those laws, changes of great importance. They consist principally in endeavouring to avoid giving relief out of the workhouse, and in making the workhouse an abode in which none but the

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really destitute will continue. Compared with our own, the system is, in general, rigid.

In the detailed account of the workhouses in Massachusetts, (pages 68 to 93,) the separation of the sexes appears to be the general rule wherever local circumstances do not interfere: a rule from which exceptions are in some places made in favour of married couples. And in the returns from many of the towns it is stated that no relief is given out of the house.

The following passages from the returns from New Jersey, Pennsylvania and New York, are also evidences of a general strictness of law and of administration.

By the laws of New Jersey,

The goods and chattels of any pauper applying for relief are to be inventoried by the overseer before granting any relief, and afterwards sold to reimburse the township, out of the proceeds, all expenses they have been at; all sales of which by the pauper, after he becomes chargeable, are void*.

The same rule prevails in Pennsylvania. When any person becomes chargeable, the overseers or directors of the poor are required to sue for and recover all his property, to be employed in defraying the expense of his subsistence†.

By the laws of the same State,

No person shall be entered on the poor-book of any district, or receive relief from any overseers, before such person, or some one in his behalf, shall have procured an order from two magistrates of the county for the same; and in case any overseer shall enter in the poor-book or relieve any such poor person without such order, he shall forfeit a sum equal to the amount or value given, unless such entry or relief shall be approved of by two magistrates as aforesaid. (p. 142.)

Nor is the relief always given gratuitously, or the pauper always at liberty to accept and give it up as he may think fit; for by a recent enactment‡ the guardians are authorized—

To open an account with the pauper, and to charge him for his maintenance and credit him the value of his services; and all idle persons who may be sent to the almshouse by any of the said guardians, may be detained in the said house by the board of guardians, and compelled to perform such work and services as the said board may order and direct, until they have compensated by their labour for the expenses incurred on their account, unless discharged by special permission of the board of guardians; and it shall be the duty of the said board of guardians to furnish such person or persons as aforesaid with sufficient work and employment, according to their physical abilities, so that the opportunity of reimbursement may be fully afforded: and for the more complete carrying into effect the provisions of this law, the said board of guardians are hereby authorized and empowered to exercise such authority as may be necessary to compel all persons within the said almshouse and house of employment to do and perform all such work, labour and services as may be assigned to them by the said board of guardians, provided the same be not inconsistent with the condition or ability of such person.

And whereas it frequently happens that children who have been receiving public support for indefinite periods are claimed by their parents when they arrive at a proper age for being bound out, the guardians are authorized to bind out all children that have or may receive public support, either in the almshouse or children's asylum, although their parents may demand their discharge from the said institutions, unless the expenses incurred in their support be refunded.

In New York the administration of the law is even more severe than this enactment:

With respect to poor children, (says Mr. Buchanan,) a system prevails in New York, which, though seemingly harsh and unfeeling, has a very powerful influence to deter families from resorting to the commissioners of the poor for support, or an asylum in the establishment for the poor; namely, that the commissioners or overseers apprentice out the children, and disperse them to distant parts of the State; and on no account will inform the parents where they place their children. (p. 110.)

* New Jersey Revised Laws, p. 679.

† Act of 1819, p. 155.

‡ Act of 5 March 1828, p. 149.

EUROPE.

It appears from the returns that a legal claim to relief exists in Norway, Sweden, Russia, Denmark, Mecklenburg, Prussia, Wurtemberg, Bavaria, and the Canton de Berne; but does not exist in the Hanseatic Towns, Holland, Belgium, France, Portugal, the Sardinian States, Frankfort, Venice, Greece, or Turkey. The return from Saxony does not afford data from which the existence or non-existence of such a claim can be inferred.

The great peculiarity of the system in the North of Europe is the custom of affording relief by quartering the paupers on the landholders in the country and on householders in the towns.

NORWAY.

Consuls Greig and Mygind, the authors of the return from Norway state, that the—

Impotent through age, cripples, and others who cannot subsist themselves, are, in the country districts, billeted or quartered on such of the inhabitants (house and landholders in the parish) as have the means of providing for them. By them they are furnished with clothing and food, and they are in return expected to perform such light services as they can. In the distribution, respect is had to the extent or value of the different farms, and to the number of the indigent, which varies greatly in different parishes. In some they have so few poor that only one pauper falls to the lot of five or six farms, who then take him in rotation; whilst in other parishes they have a pauper quartered on every farm or estate all the year round, and on the larger ones several. (p. 696.)

It is to be regretted that the information respecting the existing poor laws of Norway is not more full and precise. The return contains two projects of law, or, in other words, bills, for the relief of the poor in the country and in towns, drawn up in 1832, in obedience to a government commission issued in 1829; and also the arguments of the commissioners in their support; but it does not state how far these projects have been adopted.

In treating of the modes of relief, the bill for the country states that,

Section 26. The main principle to be observed everywhere in affording relief is to maintain "lœgd," or the outquartering of the paupers, wherever it has existed or can be introduced, taking care to avoid the separation of families. The regulation of "lœgd," where it has been once established among the farms, should be as durable and as little liable to alteration as possible; so that a fresh arrangement should be made only in instances where there exists a considerable decrease or increase in the number of the paupers quartered out, or a marked alteration in the condition of the occupiers upon whom they are so quartered. In the event of a fresh arrangement, it is desirable that the existing paupers hitherto provided for should, in as far as may be consistent with justice towards the parties to whom they are quartered, continue to have "lœgd" upon the same farm or farms where they have hitherto been relieved. Families not belonging to the class of peasants are bound to have paupers quartered upon them in "lœgd," in case they cultivate land; however, the overseer of the district is competent to grant permission to them as well as to other "lœgds-ydere," to let out the "lœgd" when he finds that they individually are unable to provide for the pauper on their own lands, and the letting out can be effected without any considerable inconvenience to the latter. (p. 704.)

27. When a new regulation of "lœgd" takes place, or new "lœgd" is established, a statement in writing of the "lœgd," or outquartering intended, is to be issued by the commission, or by the overseer on its behalf, containing the name of the pauper to be outquartered, and the farm or farms on which he shall receive "lœgd," and in case it is on several, the rotation, and for what period, on each. In case the "lœgd" is only to be during the winter, or during a certain part of the year, this likewise is to be stated. In like manner the houseless and others, who are provided with relief in kind from particular farms, are to be furnished with a note setting forth the quantity the individual has to demand of each farm, and the time at which he is entitled to demand the same. In default of the furnishing of these contributions in proper time, they are to be enforced by execution, through the lensmand. (p. 705.)

35. In case the house poor, and other poor who are not quartered out, conduct themselves improperly, are guilty of idleness, drunkenness, incivility, obstinacy or quarrelsomeness, the overseer is entitled to give them a serious reprimand; and in case this is unattended with any effect, to propose in the poor commission the reduction of the allowance granted to the offender, to the lowest scale possible. Should this prove equally devoid of effect, or the allowance not bear any reduction, he may, in conjunction with the president of the commission, report the case, at the same time stating the names of the witnesses, to the sorenskriver*, who on the next general or monthly sitting of the court, after a brief inquiry, by

* Sorenskriver, an officer in the country, whose duties are chiefly those of a registrar and judge in the lowest court.

NORWAY.

an unappealable sentence shall punish the guilty with imprisonment not exceeding 20 days, upon bread and water.

In case of a like report from the superintendent of the "lægd," of improper conduct on the part of the pauper quartered out, the overseer shall give the said offending pauper a severe reprimand; and in case this likewise proves devoid of effect, the mode of proceeding to be the same as has been stated already in reference to the house poor.

36. In case the person with whom a pauper has been quartered out do not supply adequate relief, or ill use the pauper so quartered upon him, and is regardless of the admonitions of the overseer, an appeal to the sorenskriver is to take place, and in other respects the mode of proceeding is to be the same as is enacted in s. 35: when all the conduct complained of can be proved, for which purpose, in default of other witnesses, the combined evidence of the superintendent of the "lægd," and of the overseer, is to be deemed sufficient, the offending party to be fined, according to his circumstances and the nature of the case, from 2 to 20 specie dollars, and in case of ill-usage, to be imprisoned on bread and water for from 5 to 10 days; and in the event of a repetition of the offence, for from 10 to 20 days.

39. None may beg, but every person who is in such want that he cannot provide for himself and those belonging to him, shall apply for aid to the competent poor commission, or to the overseer. In case any one is guilty of begging, for the first offence he is to be seriously admonished by the overseer of the district in which he has begged, who is likewise to point out to him what consequences will follow a repetition of the offence. In case he offends afterwards, he is to be punished according to the enactments set forth in s. 35; and afterwards, in case of a repetition of the offence, with from two months to a year's confinement in the house of correction.

A person is not to be accounted a beggar who asks only for food, when it appears that his want of sustenance is so great that unless he tried to procure immediate relief he would be exposed to perish of hunger, provided he immediately afterwards applies to the overseer of the district for relief; or in case the poor administration is unable to relieve all the poor in years of scarcity, save in a very scanty manner, and the hungry mendicant then confines himself to the soliciting of food. (p. 706.)

The bill directs that the poor-fund shall consist, in the country,

1. Of the interest of legacies, and other property belonging to it.
2. An annual tax of 12 skillings, (equal according to Dr. Kelly, Univ. Cambist, vol. 1, p. 32, to 2s. 6d. sterling,) on each hunsmand or cottager, and on each man servant, and six skillings on each woman servant.
3. A duty on stills equal to half the duty paid to the State.
4. Penalties directed by the existing laws to be paid over to that fund.
5. The property left by paupers, if they leave no wife or children unprovided for.
6. An annual assessment on the occupiers of land, and on all others capable of contributing, such as men servants, clerks, tutors and pilots.

In towns,

Of all the above-mentioned funds, except No. 2, and of a tax of one skilling (2½ d. sterling) per pot on all imported fermented liquors.

We have already remarked that the report does not state how far this bill has passed into a law, or how its enactments differ from the existing law: they appear likely, unless counteracted by opposing causes, to lead to considerable evils. The relief by way of lægd resembles in some respects our roundsman system. It is, however, less liable to abuse in one respect, because the lægd, being wholly supported by the lægd-yder, must be felt as an incumbrance by the farmer, instead of a source of profit. On the other hand, the situation of the country pauper cannot be much worse than that of the independent labourer; and in towns, though this temptation to idleness and improvidence may be avoided by giving relief in the workhouse, the temptation to give out-door and profuse relief must be considerable, since a large portion of the poor-fund is derived from general sources, and only a small part from assessment to which the distributors of relief are themselves exposed. It is probable that the excellent habits of the population, and the great proportion of landowners, may enable the Norwegians to support a system of relief which in this country would soon become intolerable.

SWEDEN.

SWEDEN.

The fullest statement of the pauperism of Sweden is to be found in a paper by M. de Hartsmandorff, the Secretary of State for Ecclesiastical Affairs, (p. 368); an extract from Colonel Forsell's Swedish Statistics, published in 1833, (p. 375); and Replies to the Commissioners' Queries from Stockholm, (p. 372), and from Gottenburgh, (p. 384.)

M. de

M. de Hartsmandorff states that every parish is bound to support its own poor, and that the fund for that purpose arises from voluntary contribution, (of which legacies and endowments appear to form a large portion,) the produce of certain fines and penalties, and rates levied in the country in proportion to the value of estates, and in towns on the property or income of the inhabitants. Settlement depends on residence, and on that ground the inhabitants of a parish may prevent a stranger from residing among them. A similar provision is considered in the Norwegian report, and rejected, (p. 718,) but exists in almost every country adopting the principle of parochial relief, and allowing a settlement by residence. An appeal is given, both to the pauper and to the parishioners, to the governor of the province, and ultimately to the King.

M. de Hartsmandorff's paper is accompanied by a table, containing the statement of the persons relieved in 1829, which states them to have amounted to 63,348 out of a population of 2,780,132, or about one in forty-two. This differs from Col. Forsell's statement, (p. 376,) that in 1825 they amounted to 544,064, or about one in five. It is probable that Col. Forsell includes all those who received assistance from voluntary contributions. "In Stockholm," he adds, "there are 83 different boards for affording relief to the poor, independent one of the other, so that it happens often that a beggar receives alms at three, four or five different places." There is also much discrepancy as to the nature and extent of the relief afforded to the destitute able-bodied. We are told in the Stockholm return, (p. 372,) that no legal provision is made for them; but by the Gottenburgh return, (pp. 384 & 386,) it appears that they are relieved by being billeted on householders, or by money.

The following severe provisions of the law of the 19th June 1833 seem directed against them. By that law any person who is without property and cannot obtain employment, or neglects to provide himself with any, and cannot obtain sureties for the payment of his taxes, rates and penalties, is denominated unprotected (*försvarlös*). An unprotected person is placed almost at the disposal of the police, who are to allow him a fixed period to obtain employment, and to require him to proceed in search of it to such places as they think fit.

Should any person, (the law goes on to say,) who has led an irreproachable life, and has become unprotected, not through an unsteady or reprehensible conduct, but from causes which cannot be reasonably laid to his charge, and who has obtained an extension of time for procuring protection, still remain without yearly employment or other lawful means of support, and not be willing to try in other places to gain the means of support, or shall have transgressed the orders that may have been given him, and (being a male person) should not prefer to enlist in any regiment, or in the royal navy, or should not possess the requisite qualifications for that purpose, the person shall be sent to be employed on such public works as may be going on in the neighbourhood, or to a work institution within the county, until such time as another opportunity may offer for his maintenance; he shall however be at liberty, when the usual notice-day arrives, and until next moving time, to try to obtain legal protection with any person within the county who may require his services, under the obligation to return to the public work institution in the event of his not succeeding. Should there be no public work to be had in the neighbourhood, or the person cannot, for want of necessary room, be admitted, he shall be sent to a public house of correction, and remain there, without however being mixed with evil-disposed persons or such as may have been punished for crimes, until some means may be found for him or her to obtain a lawful maintenance. (p. 362.)

Servants or other unprotected persons who have of their own accord relinquished their service or constant employ, and by means of such or other reprehensible conduct have been legally turned out of their employ, or who do not perform service with the master or mistress who has allowed such person to be rated and registered with them, or who, in consequence of circumstances which ought to be ascribed to the unprotected person himself, shall become deprived of their lawful means of support, but who may not be considered as evil-disposed persons, shall be bound to provide themselves with lawful occupations within 14 days, if it be in a town, and within double that number of days if it be in the country. Should the unprotected person not be able to accomplish this, it shall depend on Our lord-lieutenant how far he may deem it expedient to grant a further extended time, for a limited period, to a person thus circumstanced, in order to procure himself means for his subsistence. (p. 363.)

Such persons as may either not have been considered to be entitled to an extension of time for procuring lawful maintenance, or who, notwithstanding such permission, have not been able to provide themselves with the same, shall be liable to do work, if a man, at any of the corps of pioneers in the kingdom, and if a woman, at a public house of correction. If the man is unfit for a pioneer, he shall in lieu thereof be sent to a public house of correction. (p. 363.)

SWEDEN.

It appears that pauperism has increased under the existing system. Mr. Bloomfield states that since its institution the number of poor has increased in proportion to the population, (p. 368.) The Stockholm return states that—

The main defect of the charitable institutions consists in a very imperfect control over the application of their funds, the parish not being accountable for their distribution to any superior authority. This is so much felt, that new regulations are contemplated for bringing parish affairs more under the inspection of a central board. Another great evil is, that each parish manages its affairs quite independently of any other, and frequently in a totally different manner; and there is no mutual inspection among the parishes, which, it is supposed, would check abuses. Again, parishes are not consistent in affording relief; they often receive and treat an able-bodied impostor (who legally has no claim on the parish) as an impotent or sick person, whilst many of the latter description remain unaided.

The Swedish artizan is neither so industrious nor so frugal as formerly; he has heard that the destitute able-bodied are in England supported by the parish; he claims similar relief, and alleges his expectation of it as an excuse for prodigality or indifference to saving. (p. 375.)

That the number of poor (says Colonel Forsell,) has lately increased in a far greater progression than before, is indeed a deplorable truth. At Stockholm, in the year 1737, the number of poor was 930; in 1825 there were reckoned 15,000 indigent persons. Their support, in 1731, cost 9,000 dollars (dallar). In 1825, nearly 500,000 rix dollars banco were employed in alms, donations and pensions. Perhaps these facts explain why, in Stockholm, every year about 1,500 individuals more die than are born, although the climate and situation of this capital is by no means insalubrious; for the same may be said of almshouses as is said of foundling hospitals and similar charitable establishments, that the more their number is increased, the more they are applied to.

In the little and carefully governed town of Orebro, the number of poor during the year 1780 was no more than 70 or 80 individuals, and in the year 1832 it was 400! In the parish of Nora, in the province of Nerike, the alms given in the year 1814 were 170 rix-dollars 4 sk.; and in 1832, 2,138 rix dollars 27 sk.; and so on at many other places in the kingdom. That the case was otherwise in Sweden formerly, is proved by history. Botin says that a laborious life, abhorrence of idleness and fear of poverty, was the cause why indigent and destitute persons could be found, but no beggars. Each family sustained its destitute and impotent, and would have deemed it a shame to receive support from others.

When the accounts required from the secretary of state for ecclesiastical affairs, regarding the number of and institutions for the poor, shall be reduced to order, and issue from the press, they must impart most important information. By the interesting report on this subject by the Bishop of Wexio, we learn, that the proportion of the poor to the population is as 1 to 73 in the government of Wexio, and as 1 to 54 in that of Jönköping. The assessed poor-taxes are, on an average, for every farm (hemman), eight kapper corn in the former government, and 12½ in the latter. With regard to the institutions for the poor, it is said, the more we give the more is demanded, and instead of the poor-rates being regulated by the want, the want is regulated by the profusion of charities and poor-taxes.

In the bishopric of Wisby (Island of Gottland), the proportion between the poor and those who can maintain themselves, is far more favourable than in that of Wexio; for in the former only one in 104 inhabitants is indigent, and in 22 parishes there is no common almshouse at all. Among 40,000 individuals, no more than 17 were unable to read. (p. 377.)

The price of 8 kapper = 1½ doll. or 2 s. 5 d.

RUSSIA.

RUSSIA.

A general outline of the provision for the poor in Russia is contained in the following extracts from Mr. Bligh's report, (pp. 328, 329, 330.)

As far as regards those parts of the empire which may most properly be called Russia, it will not be necessary for me to detain your Lordship long, since in them (where in fact by far the greatest portion of the population is to be found), the peasantry, being in a state of slavery, the lords of the soil are induced more by their own interest, than compelled by law, to take care that its cultivators, upon whom their means of deriving advantage from their estates depend, are not entirely without the means of subsistence.

Consequently, in cases of scarcity, the landed proprietors frequently feel themselves under the necessity (in order to prevent their estates from being depopulated) of expending large sums, for the purpose of supplying their serfs with provisions from more favoured districts. There is no doubt, however, (of which they must be well aware) that in case of their forgetting so far the dictates of humanity and of self-interest, as to refuse this assistance to the suffering peasantry, the strong hand of a despotic government would compel them to afford it.

The only cases, therefore, of real misery, which are likely to arise, are, when soldiers, who having outlived their 25 years service, and all the hardships of a Russian military life, fail in getting employment from the government as watchmen in the towns, or in other subordinate situations, and returning to their villages, find themselves unsuited by long disuse to agricultural pursuits, disowned by the landed proprietors, from whom their military service

service has emancipated them, and by their relations and former acquaintances, who have forgotten them.

I am led to understand, that in all well-regulated properties, in order to provide for the contingencies of bad seasons, the peasants are obliged to bring, to a magazine established by the proprietor, a certain portion of their crops, to which they may have recourse in case of need.

In the estates belonging to the government, which are already enormous, and which are every day increasing, in consequence of the constant foreclosing of the mortgages by which so many of the nobility held their estates under the crown, more special enactments are in vigour; inasmuch as in them, all serfs incapable of work are supported by their relations, and those whose relations are too poor to afford them assistance, are taken into what may be termed poor-houses, which are huts, one for males, the other for females, built in the neighbourhood of the church, at the expense of the section or parish, which is also bound to furnish the inmates with fuel, food and clothing.

The parish must, moreover, establish hospitals for the sick, for the support of which, besides boxes for receiving alms, at the church and in the hospitals themselves, all fines levied in the parish are to be applied.

The clergy are compelled to provide for the poor of their class, according to an ordinance, regulating the revenues set apart for this object, and enacting rules for the distribution of private bequests and charities.

In *Courland*, *Esthonia* and *Livonia*, the parish (or community) are bound to provide for the destitute to the utmost of their means, which means are to be derived from the common funds; from bequests, or from any charitable or poor fund which may exist; and in *Esthonia*, from the reserve magazines of corn, which, more regularly than in *Russia*, are kept full by contributions from every peasant.

When those are inadequate, a levy is made on the community, which is fixed by the elders and confirmed by the district authorities; and when this rate is levied, the land-owners or farmers contribute in proportion to the cultivation and works they carry on, or to the amount of rent they pay; and the labourers according to the wages they receive.

The overseers consist of the elder of the village, (who is annually elected by the peasantry) and two assistants, one of whom is chosen from the class of landholders or farmers, and the other from the labourers, and who are confirmed by the district police. One of these assistants has to give quarterly detailed accounts to the district authorities, and the elder, on quitting office, renders a full account to the community.

Those who will not work voluntarily, may be delivered over to any individual, and compelled to work for their own support, at the discretion of the elder and his assistants.

Those poor who are found absent from home, are placed in the hands of the police, and transferred to their own parishes.

All public begging is forbid by very strict regulations.

In the external districts of the *Siberian Kirghese*, which are for the most part peopled by wandering tribes, the authorities are bound to prevent, by every means in their power, any individual of the people committed to their charge from suffering want, or remaining without superintendence or assistance, in case of their being in distress.

All the charitable offerings of the *Kirghese* are received by the district authorities, and as they consist for the most part of cattle, they are employed, as far as necessary, for the service of the charitable institutions; the surplus is sold, and the proceeds, together with any donations in money, go towards the support of those establishments; when voluntary contributions are not sufficient for that purpose, the district authorities give in an estimate of the quantity of cattle of all sorts required to make up the deficiency, and according to their estimate, when confirmed by the general government, the number of cattle required in each place is sent from the general annual levy made for the service of the government.

In the *Polish Provinces* incorporated with the empire, as the state of the population is similar to that of *Russia Proper*, the proprietors in like manner, in cases of need, supply their peasantry with the means of existence; under ordinary circumstances, however, the portions of land allotted to them for cultivation, which afford them not only subsistence, but the means of paying a fixed annual sum to their lords, and the permission which is granted to them of cutting wood in the forests for building and fuel, obviate the necessity of their receiving this aid.

The same system existed in the *Duchy of Warsaw* prior to 1806, and every beggar and vagabond was then sent to the place of his birth, where, as there was not a sufficiency of hands for the cultivation of the soil, he was sure to find employment, or to be taken care of by his master, whilst there were enough public establishments for charity to support the poor in the towns belonging to the government, and those, who by age, sickness, or natural deformities, were unable to work.

But when the establishment of a regular code proclaimed all the inhabitants of that part of *Poland* equal in the eye of the law, the relations of the proprietor and the peasant were entirely changed; and the former having no power of detaining the latter upon his lands, except for debt legally recognised, was no longer obliged to support them.

So great and sudden a change in the social state of the country soon caused great embarrassment to the government, who being apprehensive of again altering a system which involved the interests of the landed proprietors, the only influential class in the country, for a long time eluded the consideration of the question, by augmenting the charitable institutions; but at length the progressive expense of this system compelled the Minister

RUSSIA.

of Finance to refuse all further aid to uphold it, and by an arbitrary enactment, recourse was had to the former plan of passing the poor to the places of their birth. As this arrangement is only considered as provisional, and as the population has not hitherto more than sufficed for the purpose of agriculture, and the manufactories which were established prior to the late insurrection, it has not been much complained of, though the necessity for some more precise and positive regulations respecting the poor is generally acknowledged.

In *Finland*, there are no laws in force for the support of the indigent, nor any charitable establishments, except in some of the towns. In the country districts it is expected that reserve magazines of corn should be kept in every parish, but I cannot ascertain that the adoption of this precautionary measure is imperative upon the landed proprietors and peasantry.

On comparing, however, Mr. Bligh's statement as to the law in Courland with that made by M. Kienitz His Majesty's Consul, it does not seem that the provision afforded by law is often enforced, excepting as to the support of infirmaries. It appears from his report that the government provides expeditiously for vagrants by enrolling them as soldiers or setting them on the public works; and that the proportion of the population to the means of subsistence is so small, and the demand for labour so great, that scarcely any other able-bodied paupers are to be found.

DENMARK.

DENMARK.

The information respecting Denmark is more complete and derived from more sources than any other return contained in this volume.

The Danish poor law is recent. It appears (p. 278) to have originated in 1798, and to have assumed its present form in 1803. The following statement of its principal provisions is principally extracted from Mr. Macgregor's report, (pp. 280. 283, 284. 287, 288. 273. 285. 289, 290.)

Poor districts.

Each *market town*, or *kiöbstæd*, (of which there are 65 in Denmark,) constitutes a separate poor district, in which are also included those inhabitants of the adjacent country who belong to the parish of that town. In the *country*, each parish forms a poor district.

The poor laws are administered in the *market towns* by a board of commissioners, consisting of the curate, of one of the magistrates (if any), of the provost (*byfoged*) in his quality of policeman, and of two or more of the most respectable inhabitants of the place.

In the *country* this is done in each district by a similar board, of which the curate, the policeman, besides one of the principal landholders, and three to four respectable inhabitants, are members, which latter are nominated for a term of three years.

All persons are to be considered as destitute and entitled to relief, who are unable, with their own labour, to earn the means of subsistence, and thus, without the help of others, would be deprived of the absolute necessities of life.

Classification of paupers.

The poor to whom parochial relief may be awarded, are divided into three classes. To the *first class* belong the aged and the sick, and all those who from bodily or mental infirmity, are wholly or partially debarred from earning the means of subsistence. In the *second class* are included orphans, foundlings and deserted children, as well as those, the health, resources or morals of whose parents are of a description which would render it improper to confide the education of children to their care. The *third class* comprises families or single persons, who from constitutional weakness, a numerous offspring, the approach of old age or similar causes, are unable to earn a sufficiency for the support of themselves or children.

Relief to first class.

Paupers of the first class who are destitute of other support, are to be supplied by the proper parish officers:

(a) With food (or in market towns where the necessary establishments for that purpose are wanting, with money in lieu thereof); to which, in the agricultural districts, the inhabitants have to contribute, according to the orders issued by the commissioners, either in bread, flour, pease, groats, malt, bacon, butter or cheese, or in corn, or in money, or by rations, or in any other manner, which, from local circumstances, may be deemed most expedient:

(b) With the necessary articles of clothing:

(c) With lodging and fuel, either by placing them in establishments belonging to the parish, or in private dwellings:

(d) With medical attendance, either at their own dwellings or in places owned or rented by the parish.

To second.

The children belonging to the second class are to be placed with a private family, to be there brought up and educated at the expense of the parish, until they can be apprenticed or provided for in any other manner.

The commissioners are carefully to watch over the treatment and education of the children by their foster-parents, and that such of them as have been put out to service are properly brought up and instructed until they are confirmed.

To third.

The paupers of the third class are to be so relieved that they may not want the absolute necessities

necessaries of life; but avoiding mendicity on the one hand, they must at the same time be compelled to work to the best of their abilities for their maintenance. To render the relief of paupers of this description more effectual, care must be taken that, if possible, work be procured for them at the usual rate of wages; and where the amount does not prove sufficient for their support they may be otherwise assisted, but in general not with money but with articles of food and clothing, to be supplied them at the expense of the parish.

In cases where families are left houseless, the commissioners are authorized to procure them a habitation, by becoming security for the rent; and where such habitation is not to be obtained for them, they may be quartered upon the householders in rotation, until a dwelling can be found in some other place.

Should the rent not be paid by the parties when due, such persons must be considered as paupers, and be removed to that district where they may be found to have a settlement. The house-rent thus disbursed must in this case be looked upon as temporary relief, and be borne by the parish that advanced it. Where parish officers refuse to obey these injunctions, they may be compelled by a fine, to be levied daily until they comply.

The Danish law has established the principle, that every individual receiving relief of any kind under the poor laws, is bound, either with his property or his labour, to refund the amount so disbursed for him, or any part thereof; and authority has therefore been given to the poor law commissioners, "to require all those whom it may concern, to work to the best of their ability, until all they owe has been paid off."

Liabilities of pauper.

On relief being awarded to a pauper, the commissioners of the district have forthwith to take an inventory of, and to appraise his effects, which are only to be delivered over to him for his use, after having been marked with the stamp of the board.

Any person receiving goods or effects so marked, either by way of purchase or in pledge, shall be liable to the restitution of the property, to the payment of its value, and besides to a fine.

The same right is retained by the parish upon the pauper, if he should happen to acquire property at a later period, as well as it extends to his effects at his demise, though he should not have received relief at the time of his death.

An ordinance of the 13th August 1814 expressly enacts, that wherever a person absolutely refuses either to refund or to pay by instalments the debt he has so contracted with the parish, he shall be forced to pay it off by working for the benefit of the same, and not be allowed to leave the parish; but that if he do so notwithstanding, he is to be punished by imprisonment in the house of correction. The commissioners are further authorized to stipulate the amount such individual is to pay off per week, in proportion to his capability to work, to the actual rate of wages and other concurring circumstances, and that where such person either refuses to work, or is idle or negligent during the working hours, he is to be imprisoned on bread and water until he reform his conduct.

The poor having thus been provided for, begging is prohibited, and declared to be liable to punishment.

Begging.

In adjudging punishment for begging, it is to be taken into consideration whether the mendicant was in need of support or not. In the first case he shall, the first time, be imprisoned 14 days; the second time, four weeks; and the third time, work for a year in the house of correction. For every time the offence is committed, the punishment to be doubled. But if the mendicant is able to work, and thus not entitled to support from the parish, he shall, the first time, be imprisoned four weeks, the second time, eight weeks; and the third time, work for two years in the house of correction, which last punishment is to be doubled for every time the offence is committed. When the term of punishment is expired, the beggar is to be sent to his home under inspection, and his travelling expenses by land in every parish through which he passes to be paid by the poor-chest of the bailiwick in which the parish lies; but his conveyance by water to be paid by the parish bound to receive him.

In the market towns, all persons belonging to the working classes are obliged to enter into fixed service, unless they have some ostensible means of subsistence, which must be proved to the satisfaction of the magistrates, if required.

Duty of the poor to seek service.

In the agricultural districts, every person belonging to the class of peasants, who is not a proprietor or occupier of land, a tacksman (*boelsmand*), or cottager (*huusmand*), or subsists upon some trade or profession, is to seek fixed service, unless he be married and permanently employed as a day labourer.

Where a single person of either sex belonging to the labouring class is not able to obtain a place, he (or she) shall within two months before the regular term when regular servants are changed (*Skiftetid*) apply to the parish beadle, who on the Sunday following at church meeting, is publicly to offer the services of his client, and inquire amongst the community if any person is in want of a servant, and will receive him (or her) as such. Should the said person not get a place within a fortnight, a similar inquiry is to be made in the neighbouring parish.

All those that have not followed the line of conduct pointed out in the preceding regulation, and are without steady employment, shall be considered as vagrants, and punished accordingly.

It is also provided, that where parents, without sufficient reason, keep more grown up children at home than they absolutely require for their service, it shall be considered indicative, either of their being in comparatively good circumstances, or that their income has been improved by the additional labour of their children, and their poor and school-rates are to be raised in proportion.

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Mode of raising
fund.

It is not only made obligatory upon the house and landowners to contribute to the parochial fund, but also upon servants and labouring mechanics; in short upon all persons, without distinction of religion, who are not on the parish themselves, and whose circumstances are such that they can afford to pay the contribution in proportion to their incomes, without thereby depriving themselves of the necessities of life.

The only exception are the military, and persons receiving pay from the military fund, who are only liable to contribute in so far as they have private means.

The receipts of the parochial fund are derived from various sources, which may be classed under the following heads, viz.

1. Parochial fund.

1°. An annual contribution in money, either voluntary or levied upon the inhabitants, according to the assessment of the board of commissioners in each parish, and in proportion to the amount annually required for the relief of the poor.

This contribution is recovered in four quarterly instalments, each of which is payable in advance. The commissioners have to transmit a list of those persons that are in arrears to the bailiff of the division, who may levy the amount by distress.

2°. A contribution assessed upon the produce of the ground tax in the townships.

3°. One quarter per cent. of the proceeds of goods and effects sold by public auction in the townships.

4°. Fines and penalties adjudged to the parochial fund by the courts of justice and the Commissioners of arbitration in the townships.

5°. Produce of collections in churches and hospitals on certain occasions; of the sale of the effects of paupers deceased; of the sale of stray cattle having no owner; voluntary donations on the purchase or sale of houses and lands; contingencies.

6°. Interest on capital, and rent of lands or houses bequeathed to, or otherwise acquired by the poor administration.

2. Bailiwick fund.

The receipts of the separate poor fund of the bailiwick consist chiefly, 1°. In a proportion of certain dues levied in each of its jurisdictions; 2°. In fines and penalties adjudged to the fund by the tribunals and the commissions of arbitration in the agricultural districts; 3°. In $\frac{1}{4}\%$ of all goods and effects sold by public auction in the country; 4°. In the interest on capital belonging to the fund.

This fund has been established for the following purposes: 1°. Of contributing to the support of paupers who, although not properly belonging to the poor of the district in which they have become distressed, must still be relieved; 2°. Of assisting the parochial fund in extraordinary cases; 3°. Of defraying all expenses of a general nature that ought to be assessed upon the several parish funds within the jurisdiction of the bailiwick.

Effects of these in-
stitutions.

With respect to the effects of these institutions the evidence is not consistent. Mr. Macgregor's opinion is, on the whole, favourable.

Be the management, (he says,) of the poor laws good or bad, yet the system itself seems to have answered an important object, that of checking the rapid growth of pauperism. I admit that paupers have increased in Denmark these last thirty years, in the same proportion with the increase of population (*pari passu*); but I am far from believing that the proportion which they bear to the whole population is *much* greater now than it was in 1803, namely, 1 = 32, although some of the townships, from particular circumstances, may form an exception. I have diligently perused all the different reports that have been published for the last five years upon the present state of the rural economy of the country, and they all concur in stating that there is a slight improvement in the value of land; that idle people are seldom found; and that there is sufficient work in which to employ the labouring population. (p. 291.)

Pauperism is chiefly confined (especially in the country) to the class of day-labourers, both mechanic and agricultural, who, when aged and decrepit, or burdened with large families, throw themselves upon parish relief whenever they are distressed from sickness or from some other casualty. But happily the allowance-system, which is productive of so much mischief, is not acted upon here to the same enormous extent as in England, and as the able-bodied can expect nothing beyond the *absolute* necessities of life, they have no inducement for remaining idle, and they return to work the moment they are able, and have the chance of obtaining any. Relief, therefore, or the expectation of it, has hitherto not been found to produce any sensible effect upon the *industry* of labourers generally, nor upon their *frugality*, although it is more than probable that any relaxation in the management of the system would stimulate them to spend all their earnings in present enjoyment, and render them still more improvident than they already are. Nor are the poor laws instrumental in promoting early marriages amongst the peasants; but it being their custom to form engagements at a very early period of life, this, in the absence of all moral restraint in the intercourse between the two sexes, leads to another serious evil, *bastardy*, which has so much increased of late years, that out of *ten* children, *one* is illegitimate.

A pauper in this kingdom lives in a state of degradation and dependence; he only receives what is absolutely necessary for his subsistence, and must often have recourse to fraud and imposition to obtain that, what is reluctantly given.

The working labourer, on the other hand, enjoys a certain degree of freedom and independence, although his means may be small, and that sometimes he may even be subject to great privations.

Should it ever so happen that the labouring population readily submit to all the re-
strictions

strictions imposed upon them by the parish officers, and that this is found not to be owing to any transitory causes, such as a single year of distress or sickness, *then*, in my humble opinion, the time is arrived and no other remedy left to correct the evil than for the government to promote emigration. (p. 292.)

Mr. Tholoman states that,

Hitherto these institutions have had a salutary and beneficial effect on the nation, inasmuch as many thousand individuals have been prevented from strolling about as beggars, and many thousand children have received a good education, and have grown up to be useful and orderly citizens. Neither as yet have any remarkable symptoms of dissatisfaction appeared among the wealthier classes. But we cannot be without some apprehension for the future, since the poor-rates have been augmented to such a degree that it would be very difficult to collect larger contributions than those now paid. And as sufficient attention has not been paid to this circumstance, that the farmers are continually building small cottages, in which poor people establish themselves, since the government have been unwilling to throw any restraint on marriages between poor persons; there seems reason to fear, that in the lapse of another period of 20 years, the poor in many districts will to such a degree have multiplied their numbers, that the present system will yield no adequate means for their support.

In the towns much embarrassment is already felt, the poor having increased in them to a much greater extent than in the country.

All the taxes of a considerable merchant of Dram in Norway, who owns eight trading vessels actually employed, amounted during last year to not more than the school and poor-rates of one large farm in the heath district which you visited last year. (p. 279.)

M. N. N., a correspondent of Mr. Browne's, and the author of a very detailed account of the existing law, after stating that,

Benevolent as the Danish poor system will appear, it is generally objected to it that the too great facility of gaining admittance, particularly to the third class, encourages sloth and indolence, especially in the country, where the means are wanted to establish work-houses, the only sure way of controlling those supported :

And that,

It is further objected to the present system, that it already begins to fall too heavy on the contributors, and that in course of time, with the constant increase of population, it will go on to press still more severely on them, inasmuch as their number and means do not by any means increase in a ratio equal to the augmentation of the number wanting support. (p. 274):

Adds, in answer to more specific inquiries,

Before the introduction of the present poor law system, the distress was much greater, and begging of the most rapacious and importunate kind was quite common in the country. This was not only a heavy burthen on the peasantry, but was in other respects the cause of intolerable annoyance to them; for the beggars, when their demands were not satisfied, had recourse to insolence and threats, nay, even to acts of criminal vengeance. This is no longer the case, and *in so far*, therefore, the present system has been beneficial.

It is a fact that poverty now appears in less striking features than it did before the introduction of the poor law system. This may, however, proceed from causes with which that system has no connexion; for example, from the increased wealth of the country in general, from improvements in agriculture, from the large additions made to the quantity of arable land, which have been in a ratio greatly exceeding that of the increased population. If the clergyman, who is and will always be the leading member of the poor committee, was able to combine with his other heavy duties, a faithful observance of the rules prescribed for him in the management of the poor, I am of opinion that the system would neither be a tax on industry nor a premium on indolence. But it rarely happens that the clergyman can bestow the requisite attention on the discharge of this part of his duty; and therefore it is not to be denied that the present poor law (not from any defect inherent in the system, but merely from faulty management) does occasionally act as a tax on industry and a premium on idleness. (p. 275.)

On the other hand, Mr. Browne thus replies to the questions as to the effects of the poor laws on the, 1. industry, 2. frugality, 3. period of marriage, and 4. social affections of the labouring classes, and on the comparative condition of the pauper and the independent labourer: (pp. 266, 267.)

1. On the industry of the labourers?—On their industry, most injurious, involving the levelling principle to a very great degree, lowering the middleman to the poor man, and the poor man who labours to the pauper supported by the parish. It tends to harden the heart of the poor man, who demands with all that authority with which the legal

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right to provision invests him. There is no thankfulness for what is gotten, and what is given is afforded with dislike and reluctance.

2. On their frugality?—The poor laws greatly weaken the frugal principle.

3. On the age at which they marry?—Encourage early and thoughtless marriages. The children are brought up with the example of indolence and inactivity before their eyes, which must be most prejudicial in after-life. I have often remarked amongst the people, who are naturally soft, susceptible and sympathizing, an extraordinary insensibility towards those who voluntarily relieve them, even at the moment of relief, and no gratitude whatever afterwards. I can attribute this most undesirable state of feeling, so contrary to what might be expected from the natural character of the people, solely to the perpetual association of right to relief. Thus does the system always disturb and often destroy the moral and kindly relation which should subsist and which is natural, between the higher and lower orders. The poor man becomes stiff and sturdy; the rich man indifferent to the wants and sufferings of the poor one. He feels him a continual pressure, at moments inconvenient to relieve, and under circumstances where he would often withhold if he could, partly from dislike to the compulsory principle, and often not regarding the case as one of real charity, and disapproving, as he naturally may, of the whole system of poor laws' administration. From all I have observed I feel persuaded (and I have lived a good deal in the country, having had much connexion with the lower orders, and not having been indifferent to their condition either moral or physical) that a more mischievous system could not have been devised—that poverty has been greatly increased by weakening the springs of individual effort, and destroying independence of character—that the lower orders have become tricky, sturdy and unobliging, the higher orders cold and uncharitable; and in short, that ere long, unless some strenuous steps are taken, Denmark will drink deep of the bitter cup of which England, by a similar system, has been so long drinking to her grievous cost. Were there no other objection, the machinery is wanting to conduct so delicate and complicated a system. And were it the best possible, and had the managers no other occupation but the one, the ingenuity of idleness to escape from action is so great, that it would often, very often, defeat eyes less actively open to detect it. I have spoken with few who do not object to the system from first to last, or who do not press an opinion that the state of the population before the existence of the poor laws was more desirable by far than at present.

4. On the mutual dependence and affection of parent, children and other relatives?—No doubt it materially disturbs the natural dependence and affection of parent and child. The latter feels his parent comparatively needless to him; he obtains support elsewhere; and the former feels the obligation to support the latter greatly diminished. In short, being comparatively independent of each other, the affections must inevitably become blunted.

5. What, on the whole, is the condition of the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, as compared with the condition of the person subsisting on alms or public charity: is the condition of the latter, as to food and freedom from labour, more or less eligible?—Were I a Danish labourer, I would endeavour to live partly on my own labour and partly on the parish, and I feel persuaded that a labourer so living in Denmark will be better off than one who gets no help from the parish; that is, the former, from a knowledge that he may fall back on the parish, will spend all he earns at the time on coffee, spirits, tobacco, snuff, &c., whereas the latter, who certainly can live on his industry (except under extraordinary and occasional emergencies, sickness, &c.) is debarred from such gratifications. Under such circumstances, the *poorer* labourer is better off than the *poor* one.

And his views are supported by the following observations of Count Holstein:

1st. The dread of poverty is diminished, and he who is half-poor works less instead of more, so that he speedily becomes a complete pauper. Those who are young and capable of labour are less economical, always having the poor rate in view, as a resource against want; likewise marriages are contracted with much less forethought, or consideration as to consequences.

2d. The morality of the poor man suffers, for he looks upon his provision as a right, for which he, therefore, need not be thankful; and, 3d, the morality of the rich man suffers, for the natural moral relation between him and the poor man has become completely severed; there is no place left for the exercise of his benevolence; being obliged to give, he does it with reluctance, and thus is the highest principle of charitable action, Christian love, exposed to great danger of destruction.

4th. As the clergyman of the parish is the president of the poor committee, he becomes involved in transactions peculiarly unsuited to his sacred calling, sometimes even compelled to resort to the extremity of distraint to compel his own parishioners to pay the allotted proportions; and thus does the moral influence of him, who should be a picture of the God of love, become every day less and less powerful. (p. 276.)

We have entered into this full statement of the Danish poor laws, and of their administration, because they exhibit the most extensive experiment that has as yet been made in any considerable portion of the Continent of a system in many respects resembling our own.

MECKLENBURG.

The following passage, at the conclusion of M. Meyen's report, gives a short summary of the poor laws of Mecklenburg: (p. 424.)

MECKLEN-
BURG.

Every inhabitant is obliged to pay certain poor rates, with the exception of military men, up to a certain rank, students, clerks in counting-houses and shops, assistant artisans and servants.

When the crown lands are let, there is always a clause in the contract, to regulate what the farmer, the dairy farmer, the smith and the shepherd, are to give. A day labourer pays 8*d.* yearly. The inhabitants of higher situation and public officers pay voluntarily. They ought to pay one per cent. of their income. If any one pays too little, the overseers of the poor rates can oblige him to pay more. The overseers are chosen by the inhabitants of the district.

In the towns all inhabitants pay a voluntary subscription; it ought to be one per cent. of their income. If they pay too little, the overseers can demand more. The overseers are chosen by the magistrate.

With respect to estates belonging to private individuals, the subsistence of the poor falls entirely to the charge of the proprietor, who is entitled to levy a trifling tax from all the inhabitants of the estate, equal to a simple contribution amounting to 8*d.* for a day labourer per annum, and 4*d.* for a maid servant. Few proprietors, however, levy such a tax.

Every one has a legal claim to assistance, and there are to be distinguished,

- 1st. Able-bodied persons. Work and a dwelling *must* be provided for them; the former at the usual rate, in order not to render them quite destitute, if through chicane work should be denied to them.
- 2d. People, impotent through age, must perform such work as they are capable of, and so much must be given to them that they can live upon it, besides a dwelling and fuel.

PRUSSIA.

There is some difficulty in reconciling Mr. Abercromby's report and Mr. Gibsone's. The following is Mr. Abercromby's statement: (pp. 425, 426.)

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Throughout the whole kingdom of Prussia, the funds for the maintenance and support of the poor are raised from private charity. No law exists enabling either the government of the country, or the subordinate provincial regencies, to raise funds explicitly appropriated for the provision of the poor, and it is only when private charity does not suffice for the exigencies of the moment, that the government, or the regency, advance money for that purpose. But to enable them to do so, the amount must be taken from those funds which had been destined for other purposes, such as, for improvements in paving, lighting, or for the public buildings of a town, or for the construction of roads, or other public works.

In Prussia, each town, and each commune, is obliged to take charge of the poor that may happen to reside within them; and consequently there is no passing from one parish to another, or refusal to maintain an individual because he belongs to another parish.

In each town there is a deputation (called *armen-direction*) or society for the poor, who undertake the collection and distribution of funds raised by charity. In small towns, of under 3,500 inhabitants, exclusive of military, this society is composed of the burgomaster, together with the town deputies (forming the town senate) and burghers chosen from the various quarters of the town.

In large and middle-sized towns, including from 3,500 to 10,000 inhabitants, exclusive of military, to the afore-mentioned individuals is always added the syndic (or town accomptant), and if necessary, another magistrate. Clergymen and doctors are likewise included in the society; and where the police of the place has a separate jurisdiction from the magistrate, the president of the police has always a seat as a member of the society.

Under this *armen-direction* the care of the poor is confided to different sub-committees formed of the burghers, and for this purpose the town is divided into poor districts (or *armenbezirke*). In small and middle-sized towns, these districts are again divided into sub-districts, containing not above 1,000, or less than 400 souls. In large towns the sub-districts are to comprise not above 1,500, or less than 1,000 souls; and in these last towns several sub-districts may, if requisite, be united into one poor district or *armenbezirke*.

From each *armenbezirke* must be elected one or more of the town deputies, or burghers, according to necessity, for the management of the affairs of the poor; and it is also required that at least one of those elected should be a member of the society for the poor (or *armen-direction*), and these individuals are required to find out and verify the condition of the poor of their own district.

The direction of the affairs of the poor is therefore, as thus established, confided entirely to the burghers of the town, and the provision of the funds rests upon the charity and benevolence of the inhabitants.

As regards hospitals and public charities, one or more of the members of the *armen-direction* undertake to watch that the funds are expended according to the provisions made by the founders.

In the villages, the direction of the funds for the poor is confided to the mayor (or *schûltze*), assisted by individuals chosen for that purpose from amongst the principal inhabitants of the commune.

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This body is accountable to the councillor of the district (or land rath), who is in like manner under the jurisdiction of the provincial regency, and the whole is under the inspection of the 1st section of the home department.

I have now specified the authorities who control the maintenance for the poor, and who are likewise charged with the care of administering to their wants.

As regards the manner of obtaining the necessary funds, everything is done by donations and private charity. Each house proprietor, each inhabitant of a floor or apartment, is in his turn visited by some of the members of the sub-committee of the armenbezirke, who, in return for the donation, deliver a receipt for the amount.

The donations from residents are generally monthly, and vary in amount according to the number of individuals in the family, or to the feelings of generosity of the donor. No rate or calculated fixed table exists, regulating the sum to be given by each individual or head of a family.

Each town being governed by its own particular laws and customs with regard to the management of its poor, and each from accidental circumstances differing from its neighbour, it is impossible to particularize any other general principle that is followed, than the establishments of the armen-direction, and of the sub-committees; which detailed information I have extracted as above from the Städte Ordnung, or town laws, as revised in 1831.

As regards the practical working of this system, I have no hesitation in affirming, that it is found universally to succeed, that the effect upon the comfort, character and condition of the inhabitants, is, first, to afford speedy and sufficient means of relief when necessary; that it prevents in a great degree false applications, inasmuch as that the districts being small, the really needy are more easily discovered; and secondly, that as no tax is fixed for the maintenance of the poor, it renders all classes more willing and anxious to assist, according to their respective means, in sustaining the funds required for the support of the poor. (p. 426.)

On the other hand, the following is the statement of Mr. Gibsone: (pp. 460, 461. 463, 464.)

In general it is the duty of the police authority in every community, where any person in distress may come, to render him the needful assistance for the moment, which must be repaid,

- a) by the provincial pauper fund, if the person be a foreigner, or have no domicile; or,
- b) by the community, or owner of the estate (called the dominium), he belongs to, if a native of the country.

Destitute Able-bodied.

Every pretended needy person is duly examined by a medical man, whether he be bodily and mentally able to maintain himself (it is the same with families) by work, and in this case he is required by the police to do so, and to conduct himself properly. Any one who does not, is sent to the poor-and-workhouse (the work is compulsive) of the province, where he is taught to earn a livelihood. If the distress be temporary, the proprietor of the estate (called the dominium), or the community in which the indigent person has acquired a settlement, is bound to afford the requisite relief; yet having the right to claim restitution, upon the assisted person becoming able to make it. When this is not the case, and the relief has been afforded by a community, the members of it must bear the expense, if in a town, out of its general funds; if in the country, in the proportions they pay the land-tax to the king, called war-contribution. The support is rendered in giving a dwelling, (with a garden, if in the country), fuel, salt, money, &c., wholly or partly, sometimes by boarding the pauper, according to the necessity of the case.

There is in every province a poor-and-workhouse (the work compulsive), for receiving the following persons:

- a) such as have indeed a fixed place of abode in the country, yet seek their livelihood by begging, although able to work;
- b) actual paupers, who receive a fixed maintenance or aid from communities, benevolent institutions, &c., yet notwithstanding wander about the country begging;
- c) invalid soldiers, found begging, as every soldier who has been rendered invalid in war enjoys a pension from the state (a very small one);
- d) travelling handicraftsmen, as none are permitted to travel in their profession who have not the means of subsistence, or are above 30 years old;
- e) foreign vagabonds, until they can be transported over the borders;
- f) those who have been punished for crime, in the fortress or house of correction, and after expiration of their term of punishment, are unable to show how they can earn an honest livelihood;
- g) such as by particular sentences are, or by future laws may be, declared subjects for the compulsive workhouse.

It is left to every proprietor of an estate (called the dominium), to every town and village community, to provide and select, at their option, a livelihood for those individuals, having a settlement under their jurisdiction, who cannot procure such for themselves. *Should a proprietor of an estate, or a community, not fulfil this obligation, it is compelled to do so, but which seldom is necessary.*

It is to be observed, that when, from bad crops, inundations, &c., a general scarcity occurs in particular parts of the country, works of public utility, such as turnpike-roads, drains and

the like, are ordered by government, in order to afford the inhabitants the means of subsistence, which work is paid for with money, grain, salt or other articles, as most suitable, according to circumstances.

No person, able-bodied or capable of earning a livelihood, has a legal claim for support, but he can only, when misfortune befalls him, receive a temporary aid in the way of an advance. For further answer to this question, see the preceding answers.

All children capable of going to school are obliged to attend it. Those whose parents are unable to pay the expense must be sent thither at the cost of the community to which they belong, which must also do the needful for clothing, feeding, educating and apprenticing them. Such children also frequently receive assistance from private benevolent societies and individuals.

Impotent through Age.

In the towns, the community must provide for all the absolute wants of the poor out of the municipal funds, and in every town a board is established for directing the management of these affairs.

In the country, the proprietors of the estates, or the village authorities, must provide for these wants, for which, in the latter case, the members of the village community must contribute in the proportions as they pay the taxes to the king, say the land-tax, called war contribution.

In Dantzic, the poor, besides being placed in the poor-house or otherwise assisted, receive alms at their homes from a charitable society of the citizens, whose funds arise partly from private contributions, partly from an annual supply out of the municipal funds. From this society about 1,000 persons yearly receive support, (about one-third males and two-thirds females), but not above about 3s. to 4s., and not under 1s. monthly, for the time the support is required. In winter, when severe, they get also firing, partly in fir-wood, but chiefly in turf. The sum thus disbursed is now considerably less than before, from the control on the part of the magistracy being much stricter. The whole annual expense of the society is about 1,200*l.* sterling.

Sick.

The law prescribes that every town and every village community must support its own members when in distress, provided there be no relations able to do so, and the owners of estates are under a similar obligation; hence the sick stand under the same regulations as the impotent through age.

Effects of the foregoing Institutions.

The regulations for the support of paupers operate beneficially on industry. Every proprietor of an estate, every community of a town or village, has unquestionably the most correct knowledge of the bodily condition, of the moral conduct, of the expertness, of the capability to earn a livelihood in whole or in part, and of the pecuniary circumstances, of the needy persons under their jurisdiction, whom they are bound to support, as well as of the circumstances of their relatives. The pauper knows that aid must always be given when necessary, *and he applies to the proper authority for it, when not duly afforded*; while he is, on the other hand, deterred from making exorbitant claims, by his situation being so thoroughly known in every respect, and from ungrounded demands not being complied with. In general, therefore, neither the party called upon for assistance, nor that requiring it, inclines to let the authority interpose, but an amicable arrangement usually takes place between them, according to existing circumstances. The pauper must perform what service or work he can for those who must assist him, or for himself, towards contributing to his own support as far as in his power; while those rendering assistance can seek only in themselves the means to do so, of course in the least expensive and most suitable manner. The paupers are employed at various kinds of work and service, accordingly as such is wanted and as they are able to perform it, and this as well for their supporters, privately, as in the public workhouses.

It is, in general, to be observed that the right of settlement of individuals is established in the following manner:

If any person acquires the right of citizenship in a town, or a possession (house or lying-ground) in the country, or if he is permitted by the local authority to form a regular domicile by becoming householder, he then is considered as an expressly accepted member of the community, and the obligation to support him, when reduced to want, immediately commences. So soon, therefore, as any person shows an intention to settle, or to become householder, in a place, it is the business of the community, or of those interested, to ascertain, through the medium of the proper local authority, whether or not the immigrant possesses sufficient means to maintain himself there. Should this not be the case, and he is evidently unable to earn a livelihood, then must the support of the individual (or family) be borne by the community where he has previously dwelt, and it is not advisable to permit the change of domicile. Thence is the rule justified, that upon any person being regularly received as member of a community, with the express consent of its magistracy, that community becomes bound to render him support, when his situation requires it. Minors belong to the community in which their parents were settled, even after the death of these. With regard to other inhabitants, only that town or village community is bound to maintain a pauper, where he last contributed to its public burthens.

PRUSSIA.

A person who is of age, and has resided three succeeding years in a place (for instance, as servant,) acquires by that the right of settlement, but which he again loses by leaving the place for one year. Privileged corporations, that possess a particular poor-fund, or raise among themselves, pursuant to their laws, the means to provide for their needy members, are specially bound to maintain them.

In conformity with the rules before stated, must also the wives, widows and destitute children of paupers be supported by the communities or corporations, or the owners of the estates.

Paupers for whom communities, corporations, proprietors of estates, or relatives, are not bound to provide, according to the foregoing rules, or when these are unable to do so, have to be maintained in provincial poor-and-workhouses. These are established at the expense of government, and supported by contributions from the whole province.

We are inclined to suspect that the practice corresponds with Mr. Abercromby's account, and the general law with Mr. Gibsone's, and that the pauper possesses a legal right to assistance, though that right is seldom enforced, because the impotent are voluntarily provided for, and the able-bodied would probably be sent to a penal workhouse. It is probable indeed that the law itself is vague as respects the relief of the able-bodied. The difficulty in framing a poor law, of either expressly admitting or expressly rejecting their claim, is such that almost all who have legislated on the subject have left their legal right undecided. Mr. Gibsone's statement that no person able-bodied *or* capable of earning a livelihood has a legal claim for support, is inconsistent with his general account of the law, unless we change *or* into *and*.

SAXONY.

SAXONY.

But little information has been received from Saxony.

Some of the modes in which relief is administered appear, as they are nakedly stated in the report, to be liable to great abuse. We are told that persons receive from the parishes to which they belong assistance in proportion to their inability to maintain themselves; that a sum is fixed as necessary to support a man, and that if he cannot earn the whole, the difference is given to him as relief; and that with respect to lodging, the parish interferes in cases where ejection takes place on account of non-payment of house-rent, and guarantees payment for a short time to those who agree to receive the houseless, (p. 479). These customs, as they are mentioned, resemble the worst forms of English mal-administration, allowance and payment of rent.

Mr. Forbes, however, states that more relief than is strictly necessary is never given, and that it has been the steady determination of every government to render the situation of those receiving parochial relief too irksome for it to proceed from any other than the merest necessity. It is probable, therefore, that a strict administration prevents the customs which have been mentioned from being sufficiently prevalent to produce what have been their consequences with us.

WURTEMBERG.

WURTEMBERG.

The information respecting Wurtemberg is remarkably full and precise, having been collected with great care by Sir Edward Disbrowe and Mr. Wellesley, assisted by the provincial authorities and the government.

The kingdom of Wurtemberg consists of about 8,000 square English miles, inhabited by 1,578,000 persons, being about 200 persons to a square mile. It is divided into 64 bailiwicks, which are subdivided into civil communities or parishes, containing each not less than 500 individuals. Each parish constitutes a separate corporation, and the parishes in each bailiwick also constitute one superior corporation.

A large proportion of the parishes appears to possess a fund called *pium corpus*, arising partly from voluntary contributions and other casual receipts, but principally from funds which previously to the Reformation had been employed for the purposes of the Roman-catholic worship, and instead of being confiscated by the government, as was the case in England, were directed to be employed for charitable purposes.

Many of them also have almshouses, or, as they are called in the reports, hospitals for the residence of the poor, and other endowments for their use; and almost all possess an estate called an *allemand*, which is the joint property of the persons for the time being having *bürgerrecht*, or the right of citizenship in the parish, and is, together with the *pium corpus* and endowments, the primary fund for

for the relief of the poor. Subject to the claims of the poor, the *allemand* is divided among the *bürghers*, without reference to their wealth or their wants, but apparently in equal proportion to each head of a family, and enjoyed in severalty, but inalienably, either for life or for a shorter period.

Sir E. Disbrowe states (p. 485) that the government of the parish is vested in the mayor and a certain number of counsellors for life, (who appear to be appointed by the government), and an equal number of representatives chosen by the burghers, half of whom go out by rotation every second year.

About nine-tenths of the population appear to be *bürghers*; the remainder are called *beisitzers* or settled non-freemen, and differ from the burghers by having no claim on the *allemand*, or vote in the election of the parochial authorities.

Bürgerrecht is obtained by inheritance, or by purchase at a sum regulated by law, but varying according to the *allemand* and the population of each parish.

It is lost by emigration or misconduct. 1st, A person who has lost his *bürgerrecht* is entitled to purchase that right in the parish in which he formerly possessed it: a person who never possessed that right is entitled to purchase it; 2dly, In the parish in which he spent the last five years. In default of this claim, 3dly, in the parish in which he obtained his marriage licence. 4thly, If unmarried, in the parish in which he was born; or 5thly, If he have none of these claims, in the parish to which the police thinks fit to assign him. If he cannot or will not pay the requisite purchase money, he is bound by payment of half the previous sum to constitute himself a *beisitzer*, and has similar claims to admission as a *beisitzer*. If he cannot pay this sum he is assigned by the police to a parish, as a *beisitzer*, without payment.

Having given this outline of the mode in which the population is distributed, we proceed to state from the report furnished by the government, the degree and mode in which the poor are relieved. (pp. 524, 525, 537, 538, 539, 540, 541, 542, 543, 517.)

39. He who cannot derive the necessities of life either from his property, his labour or his trade, nor be supported by his nearest relations and other persons bound to it by private right, has a claim on the support of the (political or civil) *community* in which he has the right of a burgher or of a *beisitzer*.

In times of particular distress, not only those who are absolutely poor, but those also who are indeed not without property, but, by the unfavourable circumstances of the times, are rendered incapable of providing the necessities of life for themselves and their children, have a right to require from the communities of which they are members, the necessary support. Thus in the year of scarcity in 1817, the spiritual and temporal overseers of the communities were expressly made responsible by the government, that none of those who were confided to their superintendence and care should be exposed to suffer want; with the threat, that if, for want of care on the part of the overseers, any person should perish, the guilty should be prosecuted with all the rigour of the law.

If a person belonging to one or more communities has need of public support, the share to be borne by each is determined by the government authorities, having respect to the merely personal or family connexion with the several communities.

Each of the three religious persuasions prevailing in the kingdom has the full enjoyment of its poor fund. Poor members of the community, however, who belong to a religious persuasion different to that which prevails in the place, cannot be denied the necessary relief from the poor fund of the place, on account of the difference of religion.

Of the Bailiwick Corporations.

40. If a community has so many poor, or is so limited in its resources, that it is not in a condition properly to support its poor, the *other communities of the bailiwick, particularly the towns, so far as they are better able, and have few or no poor*, are bound by the law to assist such a poor community with their alms. A general obligation of the bailiwick corporation to assist those communities of the bailiwicks which are not able to afford the necessary assistance to their poor inhabitants, is not ordained by the laws, unless such assistance is to the interest of the bailiwick corporation as such.

In the year 1817, however, the bailiwick corporations were enjoined, so long as the dearth lasted, and with reference to old laws, in case single communities should be unable sufficiently to provide for all the inhabitants, to give them credit so far as to answer either partly or entirely for the debt, but always with the reservation of repayment by the receivers of the aid. And with respect to the support of the poor, which are assigned to a community, it is expressly ordered, that if the assignment is founded on one of the titles to a right of settlement enumerated under 1, 2 and 3*, the community against which the right is established is to bear only one-third, and the whole of the bailiwick the other two-thirds;

* See above for the statement of the different grounds on which a man may claim the right to obtain a settlement in a parish.

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thirds; but if the assignment is founded on one of the other titles, the whole bailiwick has to take upon itself this support. The expense which is hereby incurred by a bailiwick constitutes an object of what is called *amtsvergleichung*, and is imposed on the whole old and new rateable *cadastre* of the bailiwick.

Of the Duty of the State.

41. The public Exchequer affords, partly on account of the previous sequestration of the church property, and of some other funds and revenues destined for pious and charitable purposes, and partly without any such special legal ground, contributions for the foundation and support of various public beneficent institutions, and it sometimes assists single bailiwicks, communities and individuals in particular cases, by contributions for charitable purposes. But a general obligation of the public exchequer to intervene in case of the inability of the communities or bailiwicks, is nowhere enacted in the laws of Wurtemberg, and is also not recognised by the government, because too great liberality on its part, and the grant of a distinct head of expenditure for this purpose, as in general the transferring of local burthens to the public exchequer, might lead to very extensive consequences, and might gradually give rise to always increasing claims, which, in the impossibility of ranging single cases under general points of view, it might not be always possible successfully to meet.

Amount of Relief to the Poor.

42. What is *necessary* for a poor person or a poor family, and how much such a person or family may require for their *necessary support*, is not expressed in the laws of Wurtemberg; on the contrary, the answer to this question is left to the judgment of the magistrate in every particular case. In fact, it is not well susceptible of a general answer, because the wants of men are so very different, according to their constitutions and inclinations, and the means of satisfying these wants depend too much on personal, local and temporary circumstances.

Support and Employment of the Adult Poor.

Relief of the able-bodied out-doors.

75. With respect to the adult poor, it is enacted by our oldest laws, that such grown-up poor who would willingly work, but cannot find employment, *shall*, as far as possible, *have means found them by the magistrates* to earn a livelihood by their labour; but that lazy idlers who are strong and healthy *shall be compelled to work*; and according to a recent ordinance, the able-bodied who claim support from the public funds are bound to take any work for which they have adequate strength, whether it be public or private, which is assigned to them by the local overseers, receiving for it proportionate moderate wages. If they refuse to do the work assigned them, and cannot allege that they can earn something by other work or produce some other excuse, the overseer is authorized to employ towards them means of compulsion.

According to old laws, poor persons who still have a house and lands, or at least some little portions of land, and who have suffered by failure of the crops, frost, &c., or who cannot sow their lands, or are unable to dispose of them without great loss, but are still able to work, and have hopes of retrieving their losses in the harvest and autumn, shall be assisted by the communities, which, according as the case may be, shall lend to them from the public fund a sufficient sum, to be repaid as they may be able to do it in course of time, or shall at least give security for them.

The laws also order that in public works which the communities have executed by daily labourers, able-bodied who have a claim to support from the public funds shall be employed in preference.

In places where the hospitals have lands of their own, and farm them on their own account, poor persons are also employed in preference, at suitable wages.

Not only in the year of scarcity, 1817, and subsequently, many adult poor have been employed at suitable wages on the public account in other hard work, such as forest labours, planting trees, cultivating waste lands, turf-digging, working in the quarries, lime-pits, or excavating for antiquities, pulling down old buildings, cutting down avenues of old trees, levelling ground, laying out new public walks or churchyards, draining marshes, cleaning common sewers and streets, working at bridges, roads and canals, &c.

79. According to the ancient laws, the communities are bound to advance money on loan according to the ability of the poor fund and to the circumstances of the persons, to poor mechanics who cannot begin or carry on their trade, without assistance, which sum they are to repay as they may be able to do in time.

81. But the indirect support of the poor by employment and loans has, however, its limits.

The extraordinary expense incurred in 1817 for *public works*, was indeed justified at that time by the extraordinary distress; but for the constant prosecution of such works, there would be wanting in most places occasion and opportunity, and at all events the necessary means; nor could the communities well be expected, merely for the sake of employing the poor, to have such works done by them if they are not absolutely necessary, or at least urgently required at the moment, or if they could be performed at a cheaper rate by contract or by statute labour.

In many places there is not always an opportunity to obtain work for daily wages, with private persons, especially in winter and for women and children; or at least the wages at different times of the year, and for many kinds of work, are too small to support a family, and when public institutions for giving employment are in question, great prudence is necessary, that while one person is provided with work and wages, another may not find the

the source of gain interrupted or cut off by which he has hitherto obtained a livelihood WURTEMBERG.
without the assistance of the magistrates.

But when due attention is paid to these very important considerations, it is extremely difficult, in Wurtemberg at least, to find means of employing the poor capable of work, by the intervention of the magistrates, when they are themselves not able to obtain suitable employment, and this difficulty must increase from year to year, in which the number and extent of the public institutions for employing children increase, and as the employment of the prisoners in the penal establishments (police and workhouses, and houses of correction) is extended.

On this account, there are indeed in the capital, and in some other places, where for the sake of the moral gain a small pecuniary sacrifice is not regarded, particular public establishments for employing the adult poor in spinning and other such work; but they nowhere extend to a whole bailiwick; wherever they still exist, though the poor in them are not fed and clothed, but only employed, their support requires considerable annual aid from public funds; and in most places the establishments formerly opened for the employment of the adult poor have been entirely broken up, with the exception of a part of the inhabitants of the poor-houses, (s. 91.)

Consequently, and especially till the new institutions for the better education of the youthful poor shall have been able to produce their entire effect, there will still remain in Wurtemberg a very considerable number, not only of poor unable or unwilling to work, but also of such as are both able and willing, who cannot be supported otherwise than directly.

82. In many places the local poor are, with this view, allowed *themselves to collect* gifts in money, food, &c. from the wealthier inhabitants of the place; but in most of these places this kind of collecting of such gifts is limited to the houses of certain of the richer inhabitants, who have given them express permission to do so, and to fixed days and hours, and it is likewise subject to the superintendence of the police; but as a general rule, the poor are prohibited from personal collecting of gifts, even in their own place of residence. On the other hand, those poor persons in whose cases the above described indirect means of relief are not applicable, or not sufficient for their necessary support, regularly receive everywhere out of the *public funds of the community to which they belong*, and under different names, such as alms, gratuity, pension, board, &c., partly weekly, monthly, quarterly or annually, partly without any fixed time, as need may be, gifts according to the wants of the individuals relieved and the ability of the community, sometimes amounting to only one or a few florins, sometimes to 20, 50, 70, and even 100 and more florins, for each person or family in a year. With respect to the extent of these gifts, there is nowhere any general, legal ordinance; but the question, how much is requisite for the necessary support of each individual or of each family, remains entirely for the consideration of the authorities which have to give the relief.

87. Adult poor who, on account of their great age, or of weakness, infirmity and sickness of body or mind, or on account of immoral conduct, cannot be left to themselves, and who have no relations legally bound and able to superintend and take care of them, and who consequently would not be sufficiently relieved merely by a present in money or in kind, are even now, especially in small towns, taken in by all the members of the community in their turn, from house to house, by the day or by the week, or else put out to board in a fixed private house at the expense of the local funds.

In-door relief.

But as nobody readily determines to admit such persons to his table and his house, particularly persons affected with the itch and other contagious disorders; and as even the most careful selection of such private boarding-houses, with the best superintendence which is possible in such cases, frequently answers neither the expectations of those who provide such accommodation, nor the wants of those intended to be provided, it is very fortunate that, partly so far back as the 14th and 15th centuries, partly in modern and very recent times, almost in every large and small town, and even in some villages, partly by particular endowments for the purpose, partly at the expense of the local funds, a distinct public poor-house, or even several such poor-houses, have been built, or purchased, or taken from debtors in lieu of payment, which were not precisely intended to provide for persons of the above description, but rather to receive foreign vagabonds, and also for fear of the leprosy, plague or cholera; which establishments, founded under various denominations, such as poor-house, beggars-house, hospital, lazaretto, infirmary, leprosy-house, cholera-house, &c. &c., now that the entrance of foreign vagrants is prevented, and the fear of plague, leprosy and cholera is past, can be made use of for the reception of the native poor belonging to the above classes.

Many of these houses can, indeed, accommodate only 10, 20, 30 or 40 persons, but many of them are calculated for a hundred or several hundred persons.

Formerly it was usual to receive also poor children, with or without their parents, into these houses, but latterly the children are otherwise disposed of, and only *married persons, without children*, or single adult poor, are admitted, who for the most part are, as far as possible, kept separate according to their sex, and partly according to other circumstances, especially as prescribed by existing ordinances. Separate rooms for insane and sick persons, particularly for those who have the venereal disease and the itch, are fitted up in these poor-houses, so as to answer, as much as possible, this particular object; and in some cases separate buildings are allotted for this purpose.

90. In many of these poor-houses, those who are admitted into them have only free
P.L. (F.) E lodging

WURTEMBERG. lodging and firing, and sometimes clothing; and to provide for their other wants, a weekly, monthly, annual allowance in money or in kind.

In others, they are directly provided with every thing; that is, they have in the house free lodging, candles, firing, bedding, clothes, food, and in case of sickness, medical care, medicine and attendance. In general, in this case, each of the two sexes, or a great number of such persons, nearly of the same class, have a *common sleeping-room*, and a *common eating and working-room*. Sometimes however only two, three or four poor persons together, and often even individual poor have their separate rooms.

In the common sleeping rooms, every person has his separate bed, generally feather beds, such as are usually found in poor independent families.

The clothing is mostly warmer and stronger, but not so good-looking and more old-fashioned than that of the poorer independent citizens.

The food consists generally in the morning of soup, at noon a farinaceous dish and vegetables, and once, twice, rarely three times in the week, of a quarter or half a pound of meat; in the evening of soup, together with milk or potatoes. There are, however, poor-houses where they get no breakfast in the morning; at dinner only farinaceous food or vegetables (not both together), and once a week only, or even but a few times in the year, on certain holidays, or even not at all, meat, and in the evening nothing but *soup* *. When this diet is furnished by contract, 5, 5½, 6, 7, 8 to 8½ kreutzer daily per head are at present paid for it; besides which, however, the contractor mostly has lodging and firing gratis and the use of a garden.

Besides this, every person receives in most of these houses, 3, 3½, 4, 5, 6 and even 7 pounds of bread weekly, and in some places a few kreutzer every week for snuff; wine is given only where there are special endowments for that purpose, mostly on certain holidays. The sick have better and lighter food and wine, as the physician thinks fit to prescribe in every case.

In some of these houses, more, and in others less, care is taken that the inmates of them do not unnecessarily go out, and that those who are able to do some work are not idle. Some hospitals have lands which they keep in their own hands, and in this case the inmates are employed as much as possible in assisting in the agricultural operations; where there is no land, they must at least prepare the necessary firewood, carry wood and water, help in washing, cooking and other domestic employments; they must spin, wind yarn, knit, sew, make clothes and shoes for the house, &c. In some poor-houses they are also employed in making wooden pegs for shoemakers and tilers, matches, &c.

On the whole, however, the employment of these people in the poor-houses does not produce much.

In the year 1817, and during the dearth which prevailed at that time, an old law which had fallen into desuetude was revived; according to which, the rich and opulent who, after having been previously applied to for voluntary contributions, should not come forward in a manner suitable to their property, are to be taxed by the magistrates in a sum conformable to their income, and according to all the circumstances of their situation.

The comparative situation of the pauper and the independent labourer is thus stated at the conclusion of the government report:—

If we now compare the situation of one of the poorest of the Wurtemberg poor who support themselves independently by their labour without external aid (see § 40.) with that of one of the more favoured of the Wurtemberg poor who lives by public charity, for instance, the inmate of an hospital, and even of a prison, it might certainly appear that the condition of the latter is preferable to that of the former.

In fact, we often see such hospital inmates, and even prisoners, attain the most advanced age, while many a poor day-labourer and artisan sinks at a much earlier age under the weight of his cares and the want of necessaries. In fact, many an inmate of an hospital and many a prisoner, even with bodily infirmities and sufferings, still seems to find his condition quite comfortable, and shows himself thankful for the good which he enjoys, while many a day-labourer or artisan in the enjoyment of good bodily health feels himself miserable and curses his existence; in fact, many a one seeks admission into the hospital who would be very well able to provide himself with necessaries by his work at home. In fact, the man often separates from his wife, or the wife from her husband or from the children, to be received into the hospital. In fact, many a one does not economize, but squanders what he has, and does not work in order to earn something, because he thinks that he always has the right of being received into the hospital as a last resource. *In fact, in many places where there are rich hospitals and other foundations, the number of the poor is proportionably greater than in places where less is done for their support. In fact, many a one continues to beg and to steal who has already been frequently imprisoned for these offences, because he finds his situation in the workhouse very tolerable in comparison with the laborious life of a poor man at liberty.*

However, the situation of the inmates of an hospital, even of those which are the most liberal to their inmates, is by no means so enviable as from the above comparison it might seem to be. Frequently their residence is embittered by their being obliged to live together

* The word "*suppe*" here and elsewhere translated by the word *soup*, has, however a far more general signification; the proper definition of it being "*boiled fluid food*, eaten alone, warm, with a spoon." Thus the Germans have water soup, beer soup, milk soup, bread soup, flour soup, wine soup, &c

ther with rude, quarrelsome, mad, silly and disgusting persons. Many embitter their own lives by a discontentedness, which may either be natural to them or communicated by others. Many dislike the kind or the quantity of the work allotted to them, the restrictions with respect to the time of going out and returning home, which are prescribed by the regulations of the house. Prisoners, in particular, consider the loss of their freedom as an intolerable burden. Besides this, too, the treatment is by no means in general and in every poor-house so good as it is represented in the above comparison; hence it is not the case with all the poor received into a poor-house, that they have voluntarily sought admission there, or that they voluntarily and willingly remain in it; hence, too, the applications for admission to these houses are not everywhere equally pressing; hence the assertion that the existence of such houses increases the number of prodigals, idlers and poor, cannot be taken as generally correct.

At all events, the above comparison applies to the actual inmates of the hospital, rather than to those poor who are relieved only by money and commodities, or by finding them employment; for the relief which they receive in this manner is in most places dealt out with so scanty a measure, that their situation is little or not at all better than that of a healthy poor person, who maintains himself independently by the labour of his hands, without external assistance. The independent poor man always has the cheering consciousness of maintaining himself and his family by his own exertions, and of enjoying the respect of his fellow-citizens, which is always lost in a greater or less degree by the poor man who receives relief, to whom, in the eyes of the better classes, a kind of disgrace attaches, which must often fall on the idle, who is excluded from elections of the community, &c. restricted in marrying, &c.

And the authors go on to express a belief that pauperism is diminishing, and that the number of paupers, which in 1820 amounted to 64,896, does not now exceed 50,000, or about 1-30th of the whole population.

The preference which the government reporter appears to give to out-door relief is opposed to the preface to the rules of the Weinsberg House of Industry.

L'ancienne manière de pourvoir aux besoins des pauvres par des aumônes hebdomadaires en argent et en pain, et par des habillements, en les logeant dans une habitation resserrée, en payant aux uns leur loyer, aux autres leurs pensions, a entraîné, trop d'abus et a par cela même peu répondu à son but. En effet on manquait de la surveillance nécessaire sur une classe d'hommes en grande partie si déréglés et si corrompus. On n'avoit point fourni d'occupation à ceux qui étoient encore en état de travailler, et on n'avoit pu en aucune façon réprimer la mendicité et le vice. (p. 500.)

The object of this establishment is said to be,

Art. 1.—De former une habitation commune pour tous ceux qui ont besoin d'assistance, qu'ils soient malades ou en santé, et de leur donner des secours pour tout ce qui leur est nécessaire.

Art. 2.—De leur donner autant que possible de l'occupation selon leur plus ou moins grande capacité de travail.

Art. 3.—D'accorder cette occupation non seulement à ceux qui la recherchent volontairement, mais même d'obliger à travailler des hommes sans fortune et qui n'ont pas de métier fixe, mais qui veulent vivre aux dépens d'autrui, du moins tant qu'ils n'entrent pas au service d'une famille de bonne réputation.

II.—Conditions d'Admission.

Art. 6.—Les personnes qui ont besoin d'assistance sont à peu d'exceptions près des hommes qui autrefois ont été livrés au vice, ou qui ont été ou trop étourdis ou incapables de faire des épargnes et qui sont maintenant hors d'état de gagner leur vie. Les anciens secours consistoient, à payer leur loyer, à leur fournir du bois, en des aumônes hebdomadaires, en argent et en pain; mais on ne pouvoit pas penser avec confiance que ces personnes employaient bien ces dons. C'est pourquoi on n'admet dans cette maison de charité que des personnes dignes d'assistance; on les habille et les nourrit; car des gens honnêtes, même avec peu de talents, peuvent toujours gagner leur vie dans ce pays.

Cette admission a lieu à la demande des indigens, qui à cause de la faiblesse de l'âge, de l'incapacité de travail, ne sont plus en état de se nourrir.

Art. 7.—La direction de l'établissement ainsi que le président du comité de fondation, s'ils sont pleinement persuadés de la nécessité, peuvent ordonner l'admission des gens pauvres. Ceux-ci doivent s'engager par écrit à suivre les lois de l'établissement. Cette admission doit toujours être confirmée dans la prochaine séance du comité de fondation. Les mêmes conditions ont lieu pour l'admission des malades qui n'ont pas le moyen de se guérir et de se soigner.

Art. 8.—Mais dans aucun cas cette maison de charité ne doit servir de demeure périodique à des gens qui ne sont pas accoutumés à un métier fixe, ou qui ne veulent pas rester chez des maîtres, ni à des personnes qui voudroient y séjourner en hiver, temps où les affaires ordinaires languissent, ou qui en été, quand elles ont gagné quelque argent dans une journée, passent les deux jours suivants à ne rien faire et à vivre dans le libertinage.

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Art. 9.—Quiconque donc est une fois admis entre dans l'établissement avec tout ce qu'il possède, et s'engage à y travailler *et à y rester toujours*.

Art. 10.—Dans tous les cas les volontaires aussi bien que ceux qu'on y force du moment qu'ils sont reçus sont regardés comme pauvres, et ce qu'ils possèdent entre dans la caisse de fondation.

Art. 11.—Dans le cas d'une conduite extraordinairement bonne de la part d'un pauvre et si l'on peut espérer avec fondement qu'il pourra se nourrir par lui-même, ou si l'on veut entrer au service d'une famille de bonne réputation, le conseil de fondation peut lui permettre de sortir de l'institut. Dans ce cas la fortune d'un tel individu lui est restituée, en retenant à des personnes capables de travail *f. 58*, et à celles qui en sont incapables *f. 88*; aux malades on retient autant qu'ils ont dépensé pendant leur séjour dans l'institut.

Tous les gens dès l'âge de 14 ans, qui ne peuvent pas prouver qu'ils sont au service d'une honnête famille, sont forcés d'y travailler.

Art. 12.—Toutes les grandes personnes des deux sexes qui sont hors d'état de se nourrir par eux-mêmes ni par le produit de leurs mains, et qui tombent à la charge des autres, peuvent y être admises. Elles doivent pourtant, avant que la police puisse exiger leur admission, avoir été punies trois fois, ou pour avoir mendié ou maraudé. (p. 501.)

Regulations of this severity prove that the able-bodied paupers at least are a small and degraded class, exciting little sympathy, for whom enough is supposed to be done if they are prevented from starving. As far indeed as can be collected from the Weinsberg regulations, the undeserving may be utterly refused relief, since it does not appear that relief is to be given out of the house, and the applications for admission by undeserving objects are to be rejected.

The actual working of the system may be best inferred from the detailed accounts supplied by Sir Edward Disbrowe of 18 parishes.

Of these, four, that is Obertürkheim, Osweil, Neckar Weihingen and Egolsheim, provide for their poor by rates levied on all the inhabitants. During each of four years, from 1829 to 1832 inclusive, the persons receiving relief in Obertürkheim were three out of a population of 842, at an annual expense of 5*l.* 0*s.* 3*d.*, or about 1½*d.* per head on the whole population. In Osweil the average number was eight, out of a population of 1,608; average annual expense, 25*l.*, or about 3½*d.* a head. In Neckar Weihingen, of which the population is 1,070, the persons relieved were, in 1829, one man; in 1830, one man and one woman; in 1831, one man and one woman; and the annual expense in 1829 was 5*l.*; and in each of the years 1830 and 1831, 4*l.* 3*s.* 4*d.*, or about 1*d.* a head. The number relieved in Egolsheim, of which the population is 618, is not stated; but it must have been very trifling, since the average annual expense is stated at 2*l.* 1*s.* 8*d.*, which is less than 1*d.* per head.

In those places in which the relief of the poor is wholly or principally supplied from endowments the annual expenditure is, as might have been expected, much larger. But even in these it seldom amounts to 1*s.* per head on the whole population, being about one-twelfth of the average expenditure in England. And in the whole bailiwick of Ludwigsberg, containing 29,068 inhabitants, in the year 1831 only 372 persons received regular, and 371 persons irregular, (and indeed merely medical) relief. The kingdom of Wurtemberg therefore appears to have been, as yet, eminently successful in reconciling a recognition of the right to relief with economy in its distribution.

BAVARIA.

BAVARIA.

With respect to the Bavarian institutions we have little information excepting the text of the law. The following extracts will show its general tendency: (pp. 556, 557, 558, 559, 560, 562, 563.)

Poor Law authorities.

Each town, market and village, is to have an institution for the poor; but if several villages wish to unite in forming one of these institutions, it is not only to be permitted, but every facility is to be afforded it.

Each provincial district (landgericht) must have an institution of its own.

All the inhabitants of such district are obliged, according to their means, to contribute to that purpose; each person is, besides, bound to continue to support those poor relations whom the laws direct him to maintain.

The claims for relief are to be fixed according to the laws of their district (heimath gesetz.) Sometimes, in cases of great necessity, relief is allowed to strangers who do not belong to that parish.

The overseers consist (unless it is otherwise determined) of the directors, of the police, commissaries and magistrates.

In cases where medical aid is necessary, they are to be attended by physicians, who are appointed by the state.

In towns and larger market-towns, besides the above-named overseers, a council is to be

be formed, consisting of the clergyman and the mayor and persons deputed by the magistrates and all classes of the people, in proportion to the number of inhabitants of each place.

In smaller market-towns the clergyman and deputies from the peasants form this council.

When several villages join together to form one of these institutions, a general committee is to be formed.

The members of the council for the institutions for the poor are to be elected in the same way as the magistrates and mayors (burgermeister).

When several parishes are joined together, a deputy is to be chosen from each, and again, several are elected from among these, who are to take immediate charge of the affairs. Each deputy is chosen for three years, and is obliged to perform his duties without remuneration; no inhabitant is allowed to refuse to perform his functions the first time he is elected; extraordinary merits in the service of the poor are to be publicly distinguished.

The public charge is brought into action in the following manner:

1st. By institutions for working.

2d. By institutions for taking care of people who are unable to work.

3d. By institutions for alms.

Mode of relief.

1. Materials and tools are to be distributed to those paupers (who, notwithstanding all inquiries and interference, cannot obtain the necessary work), to be used at their houses until the required situation can be obtained. If in larger towns the number of these is very great, houses are to be opened and maintained at the expense of the institution for the poor, in which the paupers who are unoccupied are to work.

1. Finding work.

The choice among the different sorts of work in these houses is settled according to the local circumstances, and chiefly according to the facility with which either orders from private persons can be received, or with which the material is obtained and worked; then accordingly as the material can be used for the wants of the poor or can be usefully employed for any other purpose.

The houses for the employment of the poor are always to retain their original destination, namely, an employment for the present of poor men who would otherwise be without work, and therefore do not admit any such persons whose names are not down on the above-named register. Therefore those persons are no longer allowed to work in this house after they have had an offer of work from any other quarter.

2. Houses of nourishment are to be erected for those poor who, besides having no fortune or means of obtaining their livelihood, are in an extraordinary degree helpless, namely, children, sick people, old persons and cripples.

2. In-door relief.

3. Poor people who do not require extraordinary care, and who are not fit to be admitted into the particular houses of nourishment, or cannot yet be received into them, but are unable to gain their livelihood, are to be assisted by alms, which, however, are not to be given without the most complete proof of want.

3. Money relief.

The alms are to be given in the form of gifts of money. These gifts are sometimes to be increased, according to the price of provisions; and from time to time a maximum is to be fixed, which is on no account to be exceeded.

These gifts of money may, either in part or entirely, be substituted by provisions, if this sort of aid is more easily afforded with regard to lodging, nourishment and clothing.

Relief by quartering on householders.

Their lodging is to be changed every day among the different members of the parish, but the poor who are lodged are obliged to repay this lodging by work. Where there are opportunities, rooms are to be warmed, to which the poor may bring their work.

The nourishment of the poor can be facilitated and insured by the equal division of them among the public, to be maintained in turn, being obliged to partake of the work of their host, or by voluntarily offered days for food, or lastly, by distribution of bread and other nourishment. Where circumstances permit, kitchens are to be erected on purpose for preparing nourishing soups, partly gratis, partly very cheap.

No pauper who partakes of the benefactions of the poor institutions may go away from his dwelling without the knowledge and leave of the head of the village, to stay for some time, or permanently in another village, even if it is in the same district.

Liabilities of pauper.

The same leave from the police direction is necessary when a pauper wishes, for some good reason, to go out of his police district; the leave is only to be given in both cases on well-grounded reasons, and on proofs that the poor will not be burdensome to other villages and districts; also he must give in a declaration to the same, in which, besides his name and village, and the duration of his absence, the villages to which he intends to go must be expressed.

Paupers who have been warned in vain concerning bad conduct and idleness, shall be proceeded against without favour, by the power of magistrates, and be punished accordingly.

The poor institutions can claim repayment from those hypocrites who, although they possess private means, embezzle and grasp at the gifts and assistance which are only intended for true poverty, which shall be fully repaid. The poor institutions can make the same claim from those persons who have renounced their duty of supporting those relations whom they are obliged to support, either by law or by contract.

No marriage between people without capital shall be allowed without the previous permission of the poor institutions.

BAVARIA.

Directors who do not follow these orders, nor pay attention to the Act of the 12th of July 1808 (Government Paper, page 1506), concerning marriages in the country, have to answer for the maintenance of the new families, should they not be able to maintain themselves. In the same manner, the priests and other churchmen shall be responsible for the support of such persons as they have married without leave from the authorities, besides other fines which are imposed on this breach of the rules of the marriage ceremony.

Besides the extraordinary sources, which consist partly in the restitution which hypocrites and relations who avoid their duty are obliged to make, and partly out of fines which are given to the poor fund, or may be hereafter given, are sources for charity from donations from the district fund, and from loans or from taxes.

Sources of fund.

The yearly produce of all charities belongs to the poor institutions, and is used for their purposes. With the establishments for the poor are united the already existing or still accumulating capitals of one or other of the poor institutions; the gain on mortgages or on those possessions whose owners cannot be discovered; the legacies for the poor, when by the will of the deceased they are to be laid out in a regular yearly income, and the fourth part of such legacies as are destined in general for pious purposes.

The voluntary donations consist of casual gifts in money and food which have been given by philanthropic persons of their own accord, for the use of the poor institutions, and in this manner are to be employed for their daily use. Besides these, are the legacies which are meant for immediate division among the poor, and those subscriptions which are collected either by single persons or by companies and corporations.

General and extraordinary collections, in the name of the institutions for the poor, are to be made monthly from house to house, when the members of the parish have bound themselves to a certain subscription; also in the churches on the great holidays, and in the public-houses by means of private poor-boxes; and lastly, on all important and joyful occasions of the state, or single companies.

According to the circumstances of the place, certain accidental funds can be appropriated to the uses of the poor institutions, which particularly on great joyful occasions, namely, great marriages in the taverns, the permission to have music, particularly past the stated times, processions of the apprentices, shooting matches, &c. &c., at shows, balls, masquerades, and so on.

When all the aforesaid sources do not suffice to cover the wants of the poor institutions, it will be supplied out of the funds of the district, or through loans, and then only when all these means cannot be put in practice, or do not suffice to cover their wants, compulsory contributions or poor-taxes are to be resorted to. The manner and amount of these are to be according to the calls of the villages and districts, and are only to be levied for a certain time. It is to be observed, however, that these taxes are to be imposed with the greatest equality, and without any exception among all classes.

Central control.

The poor institutions and committees in such towns as have no police directors or commissaries, also in the market towns and parishes, are directly under the control of the district tribunal, and under their guidance and inspection.

The inspection of the poor institutions of the whole kingdom is given to the ministry for the interior, which is to receive regularly the report of the state of this branch of administration from the annual accounts and other proper sources, and which is to issue the necessary general orders and regulations, and is to judge of the proposals for the establishment, the arrangement and fitting up of workhouses, and others in which the poor are taken care of, for single districts, whole circles, or for the entire kingdom, which decides with the finance all proposals for allowing certain taxes and poor subscriptions, decides the complaints brought against the general circle and local commissaries, if such do not belong to the private council, and causes the election of certain poor directors where it may be found advisable.

It will be observed, that these institutions bear a considerable resemblance to those of Wurtemberg. Their effects are thus summed up by Lord Erskine:

Upon carefully examining and considering these poor laws of Bavaria, I have come to the conclusion in my own mind that they are useful, and well adapted to the purposes for which they were intended, because by the establishment of the poor institutions (as they are called), by districts over the whole kingdom of Bavaria, with sufficient power by law to carry their provisions into execution, the great and important object is attained of giving relief and support to the aged, helpless and sick, and finding work in workhouses or at their own homes, at a moderate payment, for those who cannot otherwise obtain it; for which purpose a register is to be kept by the guardians of the poor of all those persons who are in want of work, and who are therefore either a burthen upon the parish, or are likely to become so, as also a list of those who wish to employ workmen, in order to endeavour to arrange between them the terms of employment; and that this object may be the more easily attained, the directors are required to be in continual communication with the overseers of public works, the masters of manufactories, with individual proprietors, and societies; and that where there are a quantity of hands capable of work, they are to be passed into that part of the country where they are most wanted; but whenever it may happen, that notwithstanding all inquiries and exertions, the necessary work cannot be obtained, in such cases materials and tools are to be distributed to those paupers who may be in want of them, to be used at their own houses; and if in larger towns the number of those paupers should be very great, houses are to be opened and maintained at the expense of

of the institutions for the poor, in which the paupers who are out of work are to be employed; but the number of paupers to be so employed is always limited to those who have not had a reasonable offer of work from any other quarter. But the great cause why the number of the poor is kept so low in this country, arises from the prevention by law of marriages in cases in which it cannot be proved that the parties have reasonable means of subsistence; and this regulation is in all places and at all times strictly adhered to.

The effect of a constant and firm observance of this rule has, it is true, a considerable influence in keeping down the population of Bavaria, which is at present low for the extent of country, but it has a most salutary effect in averting extreme poverty and consequent misery. (p. 554.)

The last of the countries subject to a system of compulsory relief from which we have a return is the ancient part of the

CANTON DE BERNE.

It appears from that return that the inhabitants of that part of the Canton which is subject to the laws which we are going to describe consisted, in 1831, of 321,468 persons, divided into three classes, heimathloses, aubains and bourgeois.

The first class, which appears to be so small as to be inconsiderable, consists of foreign refugees or their descendants. The second comprises all those who have not a right to bourgeoisie in any commune: their number amounted, in 1780, to 3,482 persons. It is said to have subsequently increased, but it is not probable that it has more than doubled; and we believe that 10,000 persons, or less than 1-32d part of the whole population, exceeds the whole number of those who are not entitled to bourgeoisie; but it is to be observed that the word "aubain," though strictly meaning a person who has no settlement in the canton, is also applied to persons who, though bourgeois, are not entitled to bourgeoisie in the commune in which they reside. The support of the heimathloses and of the aubains, properly so called, that is, of those who have no right whatever to bourgeoisie, falls on the government.

The third class is composed of the descendants of those who, in the 16th century, were held entitled to the public property of each commune, and those who by themselves or their ancestors have purchased bourgeoisie in any commune. Bourgeoisie appears to be personal and hereditary. It is not gained by residence, or lost by absence; and may therefore in fact belong to persons having little other connexion with the commune.

At a period, of which the precise date is not stated, but which appears to belong to the 17th century, it became the law that every one was entitled to support from the commune of which he was bourgeois, and that the sums necessary were to be supplied from the public property of the commune; and so far as that was insufficient, from landed property, to whomever belonging, situated in the commune, and from the personal property of the bourgeois, whether resident or not.

To this hereditary bourgeoisie the raising and administration of the poor-fund was and still is confided; and apparently with most unfortunate results.

The following is the conclusion of the official answer of the government of Berne to the questions proposed by Mr. Morier: (p. 207.)

Quels sont les abus dont on a pu se plaindre dans l'administration?

Dérivent-ils du principe de la loi, ou bien du caractère et de la position sociale des administrateurs?

Quels sont les remèdes qu'on y a apportés?

Quels en ont été les résultats?

Les abus dans l'administration dérivent et du principe de la loi et du caractère et de la position sociale des administrateurs; de la loi, parcequ'elle abandonne toute l'administration aux communes; des administrateurs, parcequ'ils négligent des améliorations, qu'ils distribuent les secours sans discernement, sans examiner la véritable situation du pauvre, et que généralement ils n'ont en vue que les besoins du moment, sans songer à l'avenir. Les communes, prises spécialement, étant la plupart trop petites pour établir des maisons d'éducation et de travail, manquent de moyens coercitifs, et sont en général plus occupées à créer des ressources qu'à diminuer le nombre des pauvres, soit pour le tems actuel, soit pour les générations futures. D'ailleurs, beaucoup de communes, bien que la loi ne les y oblige pas, envoient des secours aux bourgeois domiciliés ailleurs, où elles ne peuvent surveiller leur conduite, pour prévenir leur retour dans la commune où leur présence est désagréable.

La loi abandonnant l'administration aux communes, l'ancien gouvernement a senti qu'on ne pouvait remédier à ces abus sans une nouvelle loi basée sur de tout autres principes, mais par une sollicitude mal entendue pour les pauvres, il a toujours hésité à prendre ce parti.

BERNE.

Quelle influence le système a-t-il eu sur les pauvres sous le rapport, 1^o statistique, 2^o moral ?

1^o. Le nombre en a-t-il augmenté, diminué, ou resté stationnaire ?

2^o. A-t-on trouvé qu'il encourage les mariages imprudents ou le commerce illicite des sexes ?

Les réponses aux derniers articles de la question sont renfermées dans celles plus haut. Le système existant favorise les mariages imprudens et le commerce illicite des sexes ; malgré cela il n'est pas probable qu'il fasse augmenter le nombre des enfans naturels dans sa proportion aux enfans légitimes, précisément parcequ'il favorise en même tems les mariages ; mais il en résulte, qu'il favorise d'une manière extraordinaire l'augmentation de la population pauvre.

Les abus qui sont résultés de ce système funeste sont immenses, et il serait trop long, sans doute, d'en tracer ici le tableau. Il est facile de concevoir, au reste, quelles suites a dû nécessairement entraîner un tel système dans les classes du peuple, où l'éducation, ou plutôt le manque d'éducation, n'a développé aucun sentiment d'honneur, et où l'on ne rougit pas de vivre de la bienfaisance publique au lieu du travail de ses bras. L'oisiveté, l'insouciance, les mariages imprudens et le commerce illicite des sexes, ont été favorisés par la perspective de pouvoir en faire supporter les suites aux autres. L'on a négligé tous les moyens, toutes les occasions de s'instruire, d'apprendre un état, d'exercer une industrie. De là non-seulement des charges toujours croissantes pour la société, mais des entraves au développement des facultés physiques et intellectuelles, au perfectionnement moral, en un mot, à l'avancement de la civilisation. *L'expérience a clairement prouvé, que le nombre des pauvres s'accroît à mesure que l'on crée des ressources pour eux, et les communes qui ont le plus de biens et de revenus ont aussi en général la population bourgeoise la plus en arrière dans l'industrie, dans l'activité et dans les efforts de se rendre utile à la société.*

Cet état de choses, surtout les charges toujours croissantes dans quelques contrées du pays, et la plainte des communes qui réclament la protection du gouvernement contre l'exigence et l'insolence des pauvres et prétendus pauvres, ont engagé le gouvernement de songer à des moyens de remédier au mal en remontant à sa source, et en cherchant à la faire tarir. L'on ignore encore quels principes serviront de base à la loi nouvelle sur l'administration des pauvres, dont le projet ou du moins les travaux préparatoires sont élaborés dans ce moment dans les bureaux du département de l'intérieur. Mais il est à peu près certain que l'assistance obligée sera, si non abolie, du moins restreinte aux pauvres qui sont incapables de travailler. En supprimant la taxe des pauvres il leur restera dans tous les cas les revenus des fonds qui sont destinés à leur entretien.

L'administration des pauvres dans le Canton de Berne est donc à la veille de subir une réforme radicale.

The same views are more fully developed in a long and very able supplement to these answers, which immediately follows them and bears the same official character : (pp. 220, 221, 222 & 225.)

L'administration n'était pas dûment contrôlée et vérifiée par les préposés de la commune ; elle était souvent et pendant une longue suite d'années entre les mains de la même famille ; ceux qui en étaient chargés n'avaient que peu ou point de salaire ; il était donc tout naturel et presque inévitable, qu'il s'y glissât des infidélités ou de l'arbitraire. La position et l'essence mêmes des contributions dûrent contribuer à ce désordre. Car les pauvres qui en étaient membres, étaient en droit d'exiger secours et assistance de ceux qui étaient plus à leur aise. Comment aurait-on pu exercer une surveillance exacte sur les pauvres, sur ceux qui demandaient du secours, s'ils demeuraient dans d'autres pays, avec les corporations desquels la leur n'avait pas conclu un concordat de réciprocité ? N'était-ce pas presque inévitable, que ces secours deviendraient une source et un germe de paresse, de licence et d'une impertinence empressée à les demander ?

Dans quelques endroits, dans les montagnes (districts de Siebenthal, de Grindelwald), les secours consistaient à la vérité en vivres, en terrain à cultiver, etc. ; mais à mesure que l'argent circula plus abondamment, le principal moyen de secours devint l'argent comptant ; c'était même l'unique que l'on pût faire tenir aux pauvres qui demeuraient ailleurs. La facilité que présentait ce moyen, à contenter sans travail ses desirs, et de soustraire à la surveillance, l'emploi, que l'on en faisait, en dût nécessairement favoriser le gaspillage, et engendrer, pour ainsi dire, la pauvreté.

Ces suites funestes se firent sentir plus vivement à mesure que le nombre des pauvres s'augmentait. Dans plusieurs endroits l'embarras toujours croissant donna lieu à de grands et louables efforts pour prendre des mesures efficaces contre le mal. On établit une plus grande régularité et un meilleur ordre dans cette branche de l'administration communale ; on créa des emplois exprès pour cet objet ; on établit des surveillans, etc. Dans quelques communes à la campagne on créa même des hôpitaux pour les pauvres, en faisant des efforts et des sacrifices, qui paraissaient au-dessus de leurs forces. Et cependant toutes ces belles institutions ne justifiaient pas les hautes espérances que l'on avait conçues en les fondant ; nous allons voir pourquoi.

Toutes ces nouvelles mesures et institutions étaient l'affaire de chaque bourgeoisie en particulier ; elles se trouvaient isolées ; de là précisément leur mauvais succès. Ce qu'une commune établissait d'utile à cet égard, n'était pas appuyé par les communes voisines, qui, en suivant leur vieille routine, y portaient au contraire obstacles et inimitié. La surveillance qui forme la base de l'entretien des pauvres, ne s'entendait pas au-delà des limites de la commune, et ne comprenait que

que les pauvres de la commune ; cet important devoir étant ainsi négligé, ne pouvait donc jamais atteindre son but salutaire.

Depuis plus d'un demi-siècle, d'autres pays se sont acquis, relativement aux hopitaux des pauvres, des lumières et de l'expérience ; de ce dont ils ont profité, en adoptant pour leurs propres établissemens de ce genre, ce qu'ils trouvaient de bon et d'utile à ce sujet dans les autres pays. Les hôpitaux de notre pays manquèrent totalement ce but. Leurs institutions étaient défectueuses dès leur base ; elles étaient le produit d'un zèle philanthropique, qui voulait remédier entièrement à la misère humaine. Ces hôpitaux pour les pauvres prirent leur origine dans des villages ; ils n'avaient donc que l'étendue proportionnée aux besoins, que le village ressentait à cet égard ; les ressources et les forces n'étant pas proportionnées à ces besoins, ne permettaient pas de classer les pauvres suivant leur état, leur âge et le degré de leur misère, ce qui est cependant la condition fondamentale d'une bonne administration. Ici nous trouvons un local grand et spacieux ; eh bien ! nous y voyons entassés pêle et mêle, des enfans à côté de vieillards infirmes, des malades à côté de fainéans et de mendiants qui jouissent de la meilleure santé ; on y voit jusqu'à des familles entières ! partout enfin on y apperçoit, confondus et réunis dans un mélange diffus, le bien et le mal, l'utile et le nuisible, le malade et celui qui est en bonne santé ; la harmonie et la discordance. Il fallait donc que dans ces établissemens, les enfans fussent élevés, les malades traités et guéris, les vieillards et les infirmes soignés, et que les fainéans en bonne sante fussent tenus au travail. Toutes ces tâches exigeaient un traitement complètement différent, qui fût adapté aux individus suivant à laquelle de ces différentes classes qu'ils appartissent. A mesure que l'on perd de vue le principe de ces différentes classes, et qu'on les mélange entr'elles, on leur nuit à tous, et par là on manque le but que le traitement de chacune en particulier devait attendre. Dans ces établissemens, il fallait donc que ces différentes tâches soient remplies. Mais il était *seul* cet établissement, et comme tel il lui fallait aussi un seul système, une administration égale. Par conséquent la direction devait en être uniforme et il était impossible, qu'elle réunît les différens caractères et qualités, qui sont indispensables pour remplir les tâches imposées par les différentes classes de pauvres. Elle était en outre sujette à changer. Si déjà il était difficile de trouver des hommes capables pour remplir cette charge, il l'était encore bien plus de les engager à la conserver ; car d'abord ils étaient mal salariés, et en second lieu ils se trouvaient souvent dans des positions fâcheuses vis-à-vis des autorités des lieux avec qu'ils avaient toujours des difficultés plus ou moins désagréables. Ce changement fréquent dût naturellement devenir préjudiciable au bien-être et aux progrès de l'établissement. (p. 221.)

Quoique le jour sous lequel nous avons présenté ces établissemens soit isolé, défavorable insuffisant, obscur même ; la manière dont on traite les pauvres dans les autres parties du canton, nous présente un tableau d'un aspect plus sombre, et qui nous laisse une impression plus triste. Dans ces contrées, ainsi que partout ailleurs où une bonne surveillance manque, ce sont de vieux us, une routine vague, le grand besoin, qui règlent cet objet important, c'est le hasard qui lui fixe son but.

Il ne faut pas songer à y trouver une organisation régulière dans les manière de traiter les pauvres. Les moyens les plus usités, sont : les contributions en argent comptant et les frais des pensions ; dans quelques endroits, où les grandes propriétés et les biensfonds sont grévées des charges communales, (comme *p. ex.* des grandes fermes dans l'Emmenthal,) on leur fait porter le fardeau des pauvres de la commune, chacun à son tour ; de manière que le propriétaire est tenu à se charger pour quelque tems, et sans aucune bonification de la part qui lui aura été adjugée. Par la même raison, et par un même vieil usage, on envoie dans beaucoup d'endroits les pauvres de la corporation en *tournee* ; c. à d. que les bourgeois plus aisés sont tenus de les loger et de les nourrir, chacun à son tour, et que de cette manière ils sont quelquesfois repartis chez des gens qui eux-mêmes sont indigens et manquent du nécessaire.

Non moins triste et révoltant est le moyen dont quelques communes pauvres et sans jugement se servent pour se débarrasser de leurs pauvres, en les adjugeant à ceux qui demandent le moins de pension. L'autorité du lieu fait offrir publiquement une pension à l'habitant qui voudra se charger de tel ou tel pauvre ; cette pension est déjà bien minime ; mais elle a la valeur de l'argent comptant et par là elle se réduira à un montant encore moindre, à cause du grand nombre de concurrens. De cette manière, le pauvre victime tombe entre les mains de pères de familles avides, et qui sont eux-mêmes pauvres et nécessiteux. On peut se figurer la position déplorable, à laquelle ces malheureux sont pour la plupart réduits. Si cette position ne devenait parfois pas insupportable, il faut l'attribuer au sentiment de bienfaisance, qui n'était pas entièrement étouffé dans le cœur de notre peuple. On a même vu des exemples, que des propriétaires ont pu reveiller en eux l'amour du travail et qu'ils ont formé de leurs enfans d'excellens ouvriers ; en les faisant travailler pour leur propre compte. Mais toutes ces exceptions, ne rendent que plus sensible le mal général.

Les secours en argent, dont nous avons fait mention plus haut, et que les bourgeoisies donnent à leurs pauvres, ne sont pas d'un effet moins pernicieux. Ils sont, pour ainsi dire, une suite inévitable des rapports qui existent entre les riches et les pauvres d'une commune ; c. à d. que chaque famille qui est ou qui se croit dans le besoin, demande, appuyée par la loi, secours et assistance ; et comment faire pour le lui refuser ? De cette manière la bourgeoisie leur accorde des petits secours, tantôt pour payer le loyer, tantôt pour subvenir à d'autres besoins, soit qu'ils demeurent dans l'endroit même, soit ailleurs ; et cela sans aucune surveillance ! Quelles peuvent, quelles doivent en être les conséquences ? (p. 222.)

BERNE.

Il ne faut donc pas s'étonner, si sous de pareils auspices, le paupérisme est tombé dans le canton de Berne dans un état aussi fâcheux et aussi irrégulier. Il fallait qu'avec le tems les effets de cette séparation et repartition des habitans en plusieurs corporations ou bourgeoisies se fissent sentir peu à peu en se développant. Le principe invariable et fixe de ces liaisons héréditaires dût naturellement s'entrechoquer avec le principe de mobilité et de changement qui fait la base de la vie et de la relation sociales; l'intérêt du bien public dût céder à l'intérêt de quelques réunions particulières. Car les intérêts privés des corporations durent les rendre égoïstes et ennemies les unes des autres. *On mit des obstacles au libre établissement de domicile, et on paralisa par là le développement des forces et de l'industrie des basses classes, et les conséquences de ces mesures durent naturellement retomber sur chaque corporation en particulier, qui était obligée à recueillir et à entretenir ses membres qui n'avaient aucun travail et qui par conséquent étaient sans courage. Il fallait bien aussi qu'avec le tems cette classe d'individus cherchât et trouvât un moyen d'existence, dans cette assistance même, qu'ils étaient en droit d'exiger; il était naturel qu'ils y prissent goût, en se livrant de cette manière à une vie oisive et à tous les vices qui en résultent. Nous pourrions citer, à l'appui de ce que nous venons d'avancer, de nombreux exemples de familles entières qui vivent en parasites, d'année en année, de génération en génération, à la charge de la commune, et qui ont trouvé un moyen d'existence dans cette ressource; tandis que nous ne voyons que fort peu d'exemples du contraire.* (p. 225.)

The government appears to have been struggling with these evils ever since the beginning of this century. The first ordonnance which has been forwarded to us is that of the 22d December 1807.

The following are its most material enactments: (pp. 191, 192.)

Les communes et les bourgeoisies, à la ville et à la campagne, sont obligées comme par le passé, à accorder protection mutuelle, secours et assistance à leurs concitoyens nécessiteux.

Nul ne pourra prétendre à l'assistance de sa commune, à moins que ne possédant pas de fortune, des défauts physiques ne l'empêchent de travailler, ou qu'il soit dénué de tout travail, sans que cela ne provienne de sa faute.

La manière, dont les communes se sont servies jusqu'à présent pour régler et arrêter leurs comptes relativement aux pauvres, pourra à l'avenir être la même.

De même les communes pourront s'en tenir à telle manière, pour assister et maintenir leurs pauvres, qu'elles le jugeront convenable; soit par des secours d'argent régulièrement administrés, soit en les mettant en pension, soit en se partageant les enfans des pauvres, soit en les réunissant en un seul ménage, soit enfin en les plaçant dans des hôtels-dieu. Seulement il sera défendu, qu'à l'avenir quelqu'un des pauvres soit maintenu de maison en maison, à tour de rôle, à moins que des circonstances extraordinaires ne l'exigent; et que l'autorisation en ait été obtenue par les autorités du district.

La punition à infliger aux personnes qui seront arrêtées pour cause de mendicité, et conduites à la commune dont elles font partie, sera prononcée par les préposés de la commune, en en prévenant toutefois le juge du district; la punition pourra être de 8 jours au plus d'emprisonnement au pain et à l'eau, ou bien de 15 jours de travail domestique en tout genre, d'enchaînement au bloc, ou de travail aux champs, aux routes, aux digues, et aux fontaines.

Sont soumis aux mêmes mesures de rigueur tous ceux qui étant assistés par la commune, se montreraient récalcitrans ou donneraient d'autres sujets de plaintes fondées contr'eux; on peut de même leur défendre l'entrée des cabarets et auberges, et punir de la manière sus-dite ceux qui contreviendraient à cette défense.

Les communes ont encore le droit de faire surveiller par la voie de leurs préposés tous ceux qui par le luxe, l'ivrognerie, l'avidité des procès, et par une conduite déshonorante se mettent en danger de s'appauvrir; et de demander par voie légale, qu'on les mette sous tutelle. Tous les individus, qui se trouvent dans ce cas, pourront, sur la demande de la commune, et par un arrêt de défense du préfet, être empêchés pour un tems, plus ou moins long, de fréquenter les auberges.

Au cas qu'un pauvre assisté par sa commune parvienne à quelque fortune par voie d'héritage ou par d'autres événemens heureux, la commune pourra lui redemander le montant des secours qu'elle lui a fourni, sans y comprendre toutefois les intérêts. En cas que la commune ne fasse pas usage de ce droit du vivant de cet individu, elle pourra s'en servir auprès des héritiers de ce dernier, à moins qu'elle n'y renonce en leur faveur.

Aucun pauvre secouru ne pourra se marier sans le consentement de sa commune, et à moins qu'il n'ait remboursé les secours qu'il en a reçus. Cette loi est de même applicable aux veufs, qui, lors de leur premier mariage, auraient reçu pour eux ou pour leurs enfans des secours de la commune. On ne devra accorder des permissions de mariage à ceux, qui sont secourus à cause de maladie ou de défauts physiques, que par des raisons de force majeure. C'est pourquoi aucun ministre ne devra annoncer en chaire le mariage d'un individu, qu'il sait être secouru par sa commune, sans le consentement préalable de cette dernière.

Si l'oisiveté, la licence, la passion du jeu, ou l'abandon volontaire d'un père de famille sont la cause que ses enfans tombent tous ou en partie à la charge de la commune; s'il est avéré, qu'il pourrait les maintenir à lui seul, en menant une vie laborieuse et économique, et s'il n'a tenu aucun compte des avertissemens de ses supérieurs, l'aumônier aura le droit de le faire citer en justice pour la restitution des secours que ses enfans auront reçus; et au

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cas qu'il ne paie pas, il pourra être condamné à être suspendu de ses droits civils et de bourgeoisie, ou à deux années au plus d'emprisonnement dans une maison de correction ; en cas de récidive il sera condamné à une punition plus sévère.

Une mère qui négligerait ses devoirs maternels en abandonnant méchamment ses enfans, sera reconduite dans sa commune ; elle y sera tenue au travail, et en cas qu'elle s'évaderait, ou qu'elle se montrerait récalcitrante, elle pourra, sur la demande de la commune et sous réserve de l'appel au conseil d'état, être condamnée à trois années au plus de réclusion dans une maison de correction.

Une même punition pourra, sur la demande des communes, être infligée aux femmes de mauvaise vie qui auraient eu plusieurs enfans illégitimes tombant à la charge de la commune.

Nul homme qui aura reçu ou recevrait encore des secours de sa commune, soit pour lui-même, soit pour ses enfans en bas âge, ne pourra siéger ni voter aux assemblées communales, à moins qu'il n'ait remboursé dûment ces secours, ou que la commune ne lui accorde par autorisation authentique le droit d'assister aux dites assemblées.

Si quelqu'un, étant en droit d'après cette ordonnance de réclamer secours et assistance de sa commune, n'en recevrait point du tout ou insuffisamment, il pourra porter plainte devant le préfet, qui entendra alors les raisons de la commune ; il prendra des informations exactes sur la position du plaignant, et au cas qu'il ait quelque doute sur l'existence effective des défauts physiques de ce dernier, il pourra le faire visiter par un médecin patenté ; ensuite il ordonnera ce qui lui paraîtra nécessaire ; le tout sans aucune retribution en argent. (p. 192.)

It appears, however, to have been unsuccessful ; for 12 years after, the government, after having in vain offered rewards for good advice on the subject (p. 225,) by an ordonnance dated the 14th April 1819, absolutely forbid the levying of rates higher than the average of those of the years 1813, 1814 and 1815. The failure of so coarse a remedy might have been predicted, and accordingly we find the present state of the country thus described in the official report : (p. 214.)

Il est évident, que relativement au paupérisme, le canton de Berne se trouve actuellement dans une position fâcheuse et désagréable au plus haut degré, qui prouve que ce mal est profondément enraciné. Car ce n'est pas un mal instantané ou partiel ; il ne provient pas de causes extérieures ; la source en est bien plutôt au cœur du pays. Un nombre assez considérable des habitans est atteint de ce fléau, qui par son étendue pèse ainsi sur toute la société, et qui mérite le nom de fléau social.

Il se peut que quelques districts, quelques classes d'habitans, aient moins à souffrir à cet égard que tant d'autres ; mais le mal n'en continue pas moins pour cela sa marche et son extension ; le fardeau des uns s'augmente à mesure que celui des autres diminue. Il est même évident que le mal se soutient et s'alimente de ses propres forces. Ce qui le prouve, ce n'est non seulement l'augmentation annuelle des pauvres, mais encore leur perversité toujours croissante ; l'excès de leur légèreté et de leur impertinence, mais surtout leur morale corrompue, font foi de la force croissante du mal ; et ces vices ne peuvent qu'empoisonner la bienfaisance publique, et engloutir avec une faim dévorante et insatiable les dons charitables, insuffisans alors pour subvenir à leurs besoins.

C'est ces raisons qui font que ce mal, contagieux de sa nature, s'étend au-delà des bornes de la classe pauvre, digne de pitié et de secours ; il envahit et détruit en même temps les classes de la population qui tiennent de près à celle-là. Car ceux qui seraient appelés à un travail journalier et assidu pour gagner leur vie, ainsi que ceux dont la petite fortune ou propriété devrait servir à entretenir leur famille, à satisfaire les créanciers et à contribuer aux secours donnés aux pauvres ; ceux-là même viennent augmenter le nombre des indigens, et grossir par là le fardeau qui pèse déjà sur ceux pour qui le secours des pauvres est obligatoire. (p. 214.)

We have now given a very brief outline of the institutions of those portions of the Continent which appear, from the returns, to have adopted the English principle of acknowledging in every person a right to be supported by the public. It will be observed that in no country, except, perhaps, the Canton de Berne, has compulsory relief produced evils resembling, either in intensity or in extent, those which we have experienced ; and that in the majority of the nations which have adopted it, the existing system appears to work well.

Causes favourable to the working of the above Institutions.

These opposite consequences from the adoption of the same principle, may be accounted for on several different grounds.

1. Among some of the nations in question villenage still exists. Now where slavery, in any of its forms, prevails, the right of the slave or villein to support, is a necessary and a safe consequence. It is necessary, because a person who is not a free agent cannot provide for himself. It is safe, because one of the principal evils of pauperism, improvidence, can scarcely exist among slaves, and the power of the master enables him to prevent idleness and fraud. The poor laws of Russia, therefore, if they can be called poor laws, are merely parts of her system of slavery.

1. Villenage.

Causes favourable to the working of the above Institutions.

2. Recency of the system.

3. Small number of persons wholly dependent on wages.

2. Among most of the other nations in question the compulsory system is in its infancy. Denmark has only lately got rid of slavery, and her poor laws date from 1798. Those of Sweden, on their present form, of Mecklenburg, Saxony, Wurtemberg and Bavaria, all bear the appearance of recency. In Wurtemberg assessments had been long obsolete, until they were re-introduced during the famine of 1817. The only country in which the compulsory system appears to have continued as long as it has in England, is that in which it has produced effects resembling those which have followed it with us, namely, the Canton de Berne.

3. Another circumstance which renders compulsory relief less dangerous in the countries which we have been considering than in our own, is the economical situation of their labouring population. In England the great mass of the people are day labourers, enjoying, where they have escaped the oppression of poor law abuses, high wages and steady employment, but possessed of little visible property, and seldom living under their master's roof. Such persons are not deterred from demanding relief by the fear of losing their property, since where they have any, it is capable of concealment; and they need not always even fear degradation, since the fact of their receiving it may often be concealed. There are many instances in the Poor Law Evidence in which the masters, and even the companions of paupers, were not aware of their receiving allowance. But the class of persons without visible property, which constitutes the bulk of English society, forms the small minority of that of the north of Europe. The Norwegian return states, (698 & 699) that at the last census in 1825, out of a population of 1,051,318 persons, there were 59,464 freeholders. As by 59,464 freeholders must be meant 59,464 heads of families, or about 300,000 individuals: the freeholders must form more than a fourth of the whole population. Mr. Macgregor states, (p. 300) that in Denmark, (by which Zealand and the adjoining islands are probably meant) out of a population of 926,110, the number of landed proprietors and farmers is 415,110, or nearly one-half. In Sleswick Holstein, out of a population of 604,085, it is 196,017, or about one-third. The proportion of proprietors and farmers to the whole population is not given in Sweden; but the Stockholm return estimates the average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation at from one to five acres (p. 375); and though the Gottenburg return gives a lower estimate, it adds, that the peasants possess much of the land, (p. 387.) In Wurtemberg we are told that more than two-thirds of the labouring population are the proprietors of their own habitations, and that almost all own at least a garden of from three-quarters of an acre to an acre and a half. (p. 511.)

And all the returns concur in stating the number of day labourers to be very small.

The Norwegian report states, that "by law servants should never be hired for a shorter period than a twelvemonth. Employing labourers by the day, though often done in and about towns, is consequently illegal," (p. 695.) Few day labourers are to be met with. (p. 698.) The Gottenburg, that "strictly speaking there are in Sweden few labourers on the same footing as in England." (p. 387.) The Russian, that "the labourers are almost all slaves," and that "the average quantity of land allowed by a proprietor to his slave is 15 acres." (p. 334.) The Danish report, that "the day labourers form in Zealand and the adjoining islands, less than one-fifth, and in Sleswick Holstein less than one-third of the agricultural population." (p. 300.) The Wurtemberg report states the labourers to amount to 41,913, (meaning of course heads of families, or about 210,000) individuals out of a population of 1,518,147, being in fact less than 1-7th. (p. 514.) The Bavarian, that "in the country there are very few day labourers, as almost every person has some ground of his own, and few are rich enough to hire labour. (p. 556.)

It is probable therefore that the class of persons who in the north of Europe and Germany would be exposed to the temptation of applying for public relief if it were granted on the same terms as in England, would be a small minority instead of a large majority, and would be perhaps a seventh, a fifth, or at most a third instead of three-fourths, or even a larger proportion of the whole community.

4. The situation of the pauper being made less eligible than that of the independent labourer.

4. But the conditions on which parochial assistance is afforded in the countries in question, form perhaps the principal difference between their systems and that which we have adopted. In England where the scale and the allowance system prevail, no condition whatever can be said to be imposed on the pauper. What he receives is a mere gratuitous addition to his income. Even where work is required,

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the hours are in general fewer, and the labour less severe than those of the independent labourer. And the workhouse, the most powerful of our instruments of repression, affords in general food, lodging, clothing and warmth better than can be found in the cottage, *and may be quitted at a day's notice.*

Causes favourable to the working of the above Institutions.

But in all the countries which we have been considering, except the Canton de Berne and perhaps Denmark, the great object of pauper legislation, that of rendering the situation of the pauper less agreeable than that of the independent labourer, has been effectually attained.

On recurring to the statements which we have extracted, it will be seen that he loses all right to property; that he becomes incapable of contracting marriage while receiving relief, and in many countries if he have once received relief cannot marry until he has reimbursed the parish, or has procured security that his future family shall not become chargeable, or till three years have elapsed since he last received relief. If married, he loses control over his children, he cannot choose his residence or his occupation, and if he once becomes the inmate of a workhouse *he incurs the risk of imprisonment for life.* When such are the terms offered by the public, it is easy to understand that none but the really destitute will accept them.

5. The prevalence of habits productive of pauperism is repressed by subjecting the whole labouring population to superintendence and restrictions, which we should consider vexatious. As they are in a great measure interwoven with the laws for the relief of the unemployed, and have been in general already stated, it is not necessary to repeat them.

5. Restraints imposed on the labouring classes.

6. In almost all the countries which have been mentioned, endeavours are made to prevent the existence of a redundant population, by throwing obstacles in the way of improvident marriages. Marriage on the part of persons in the actual receipt of relief, appears to be everywhere prohibited, and the marriage of those who are not likely to possess the means of independent support, is allowed by very few.

6. Prevention of improvident marriage.

Thus we are told that in Norway no one can marry without "showing, to the satisfaction of the clergyman, that he is permanently settled in such a manner as to offer a fair prospect that he can maintain a family." (p. 697.)

In Mecklenburg, that "marriages are delayed by conscription in the 22d year, and military service for six years; besides, the parties must have a dwelling, without which a clergyman is not permitted to marry them. The men marry at from 25 to 30, the women not much earlier, as both must first gain by service enough to establish themselves." (p. 423.)

In Saxony, that "a man may not marry before he is 21 years old, if liable to serve in the army. In Dresden, professionists, (by which word artizans are probably meant,) may not marry until they become masters in their trade." (p. 482.)

In Wurtemberg, that "no man is allowed to marry till his 25th year, on account of his military duties, unless permission be especially obtained or purchased: at that age he must also obtain permission, which is granted on proving that he and his wife would have together sufficient to maintain a family, or to establish themselves; in large towns, say from 800 to 1,000 florins, (from 66*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* to 84*l.* 3*s.* 4*d.*); in smaller, from 400 to 500 florins; in villages, 200 florins, (16*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*) They must not be persons of disorderly or dissolute lives, drunkards, or under suspicion of crime, and they must not have received any assistance from their parish within the last three years." (p. 511.)

And we have seen that a similar law prevails and is strictly enforced in Bavaria.

7. Another means by which the extension of pauperism is opposed in the countries which we have described, is the care taken by the government to provide for the education of the labouring classes. We are told, (p. 695 & 698,) that in Norway their children have free access to the parish schools, and that the poor pay for the education of their children, and for religious teachers, nothing or nearly so. The general report from Russia states, (p. 332,) that every parish in every town has a school which is open to children of all classes, under the direction of the clergyman; and this is borne out by the consular return from Archangel (337.) The Gottenburg report states, (p. 385) that in Sweden gratuitous education is provided for the children of the indigent, and that it is asserted that there is not one person out of 1,000 who cannot at least read. The Danish reports state, (p. 264, 293) that the children of all poor persons are educated gratuitously: that the parish is taxed for the payment of the schoolmaster, the repairs of the school-house, books, papers, pens, ink, &c.; and that parents are bound under a penalty to send their children regularly to school until they have passed the age of 14, and been confirmed. Gratuitous education is also afforded in Mecklenburg,

7. Provision for the education of the labouring classes.

Causes favourable to the working of the above Institutions.

(p. 491), and in Prussia. Mr. Gibsone states, as the general law of the country, that "all children capable of going to school are obliged to attend it. Those whose parents are unable to pay the expense, must be sent thither at the cost of the community to which they belong (p. 460); the expense of school-money and religious instruction is about 1 s. 6 d. yearly for each child (p. 466.) In the detailed regulations for the relief of the poor in Berlin, (p. 455,) it is laid down that "the period of children's being sent to school regularly commences at the beginning of the child's seventh year, and terminates when the child, according to the testimony of the minister, has acquired the knowledge necessary for his station in life, which generally occurs on his attaining his 14th year. If parents allow their children to grow up without instruction, the commissioners for the relief of the poor are to remonstrate with them, and should this be of no avail, the commissary of police is to interfere." In Saxony, "the local poor commission supports free schools." (p. 480).

The care which has been bestowed on this subject in Wurtemberg is remarkable. The government report, after stating the recent introduction and success of infant schools, adds that—

For older children, from the age of 6 to 14, there has long existed in Wurtemberg in every, even the smallest community, supported chiefly at the expense of the local church estate and community fund, and of the parents, with the co-operation, however, of the public treasury, a *German or elementary school*, which all children of that age, both boys and girls, must attend, and in which, with the exception of short holidays during the time of haymaking, harvest and vintage, they receive throughout the year every day, with the exception of Sundays and holidays, in winter for five and in summer for at least two hours, instruction in religion, morality, singing, the German language, reading, writing, arithmetic and the elements of natural philosophy, natural history, geography and history. In summer, in consideration of the work in the fields, the instruction is given as much as possible in the morning; and at the season when the labours of the field are the most urgent, and in cases of great poverty, an exception is made in favour of those children, where it is required, who, on application, are excused two or three times a week from coming to school. With this exception, every illegal neglect of school is punished by a fine of two or three kreutzers, and if the neglect of attending is continued, from four to six kreutzers; and no child, even if it has completed the 14th year, is suffered to leave the elementary school till it has acquired sufficient knowledge of what is taught there. (p. 528.)

As, however, many poor children endeavour notwithstanding to avoid attending the elementary schools, and in all cases the instruction in these elementary schools occupies only the smaller portion of the day, so that those poor children who are not properly attended and employed by their parents have still plenty of time for idleness and beggary; attempts have latterly been made in some places to put such children under special superintendence, and, for instance, by appointing a guardian for each poor child in the person of an overseer or other public officer of the community, or of a neighbour, who has to observe it every where, at home, at work, at play; or by periodical general summons to the several parents; or by periodical visitations in the houses of poor families, especially of those who are suspected of not paying proper attention to the education of their children; or by the periodical exhibition of the work done at home; or by the public performance of some work as a specimen; or by gratuitously providing the poor children with tools and materials; by the distribution of rewards among the most diligent and skilful of the children; and by exhorting, summoning and punishing negligent parents; by these means to acquire the certainty that such children are kept to the constant attendance of the church and school, and to doing their tasks; that they are sufficiently employed in a suitable manner; that they are not ill-treated, either by being overworked or by unmerited corporal chastisement; that they are not neglected with respect to clothing and cleanliness; and that they are not abandoned to idleness, beggary and other vices, &c. (p. 529.)

Partly to retain, by practice, what they have learnt in the elementary schools, and partly to promote the further improvement of the grown-up youth, a *Sunday School* is kept in every community in Wurtemberg, in the common school-room, where every youth and girl above 14 years of age, in the Protestant places to their 18th, and in Catholic places to their 21st year, must go every Sunday, or where there is only one school-room the youths and girls every Sunday alternately, and attend the lessons for at least an hour and a half, on pain of paying four kreutzers, and if the neglect is of long continuance, six kreutzers, for every time that they remain away. It may be added, that, according to the existing laws, more care has been lately taken that young persons of this age, unless they are wanted to assist their parents in their domestic and field-work, particularly those who are educated at the public expense, and the poor girls and youths discharged from the penal establishments, do not remain at home with their families, or, out of love to a more unrestrained way of life, endeavour to gain a livelihood as *Eigenbrödler*,* as they are called, merely by sewing, knitting, &c., but that they try either to engage as servants or learn a trade. (p. 534.)

The Bavarian poor law enacts, that all the children of the poor shall, without favour and without regard to the usual pretexts, be kept to the practice of the public school and religious instructions, as also of frequenting the work and industry schools

* "*Eigenbrödler*," means one who endeavours to earn a livelihood independently.

schools and of learning a trade. The school money is to be paid from the poor institutions. (p. 559.)

Causes favourable to the working of the above Institutions.

Among all the Continental communities which recognise in the poor the right to relief, the only one which does not appear to provide the means of education, and to enforce their being made use of, is that in which pauperism has become absolutely intolerable, namely, the Canton de Berne; and even there any aubain (or person not entitled to bourgeoisie in the parish in which he resides,) may be summarily ejected, (unless possessed of landed property in it,) if it can be proved that he does not either send his children to school or provide otherwise for their education. (p. 199.)

8. Lastly, in most of the countries which have been considered, the local administration of the laws for the relief of the poor is controlled by a central superintending authority.

8. Central Superintendence.

The only countries, the reports from which state that this is not the case, are Sweden, Denmark and Berne; and we have seen both that these are the three countries in which the poor laws are the worst administered, and that in all of them the mal-administration which the reporters deplore is mainly attributed by them to the absence of a central control.

We now proceed to give a short outline of the institutions for the relief of the poor in those countries which do not appear, from the reports in this Appendix, to acknowledge a legal right in the applicant.

HANSEATIC TOWNS.

1. HAMBURGH.—The situation of Hamburgh, a large commercial town, with a small territory and few manufactures, exposes it to a considerable influx of foreign poor; and the number of charitable establishments appears to have fostered and still to encourage pauperism to an extent exceeding the average of the north of Europe. It appears, from the Consul-general's return, that besides many endowed schools, hospitals and almshouses, the city possesses a general institution for the poor, supported by the interest of its own capital and some voluntary contributions, and considerable advances from the treasury of the State. A report has been furnished of the proceedings of that institution during the year 1832.

HANSEATIC TOWNS.

Hamburgh.

It appears by that report (pp. 397, 398) that in 1832, 141,858 current dollars, or about 25,000 *l.* sterling, was distributed in money, by way of weekly relief among registered or regular poor, amounting at an average to 2,900 individuals or heads of families; the smallest weekly relief being 8 schillings or 7 *d.* sterling; the largest for an individual, 2 dollars or 7 *s.* sterling; and for a family, 3 dollars or 10 *s.* 6 *d.* Half of the adult paupers appear to have been foreigners. Besides the amount of money relief, considerable sums were expended in the distribution of soup, clothing, beds and bed clothing, and fuel, and in the education and maintenance of poor children, and in medical relief to the sick. Both the Consul's report and that of the institution, lament the absence of a workhouse. "Of those who are capable, but will not work," says the latter, "a great number to be sure will be found: the only help against this would perhaps be an institution, under a strict superintendence of the police, for compelling them to work; the want of which, from the undeniably increasing degeneration of our lowest class of people, is sensibly felt from year to year." (p. 402.) This statement is borne out by the progressive increase of the registered paupers, from 2,332 in May 1826 to 2,969 in May 1832, and by the large amount of the regular out-door relief in money, amounting, on a population of 130,000, to very nearly 4 *s.* a head. Further evidence of the extent of pauperism is afforded by the number of persons buried in 1832 at the expense of the institution, which was 459, or nearly one-tenth of the average number of deaths.

No means exist of forcing parents to educate their children; a defect deplored by the institution. (p. 403.)

2. BREMEN.—The poor institutions of Bremen seem to resemble those of Hamburgh; but the general enforcement of education, the use of a workhouse, and perhaps other circumstances not mentioned in the report, appear to have rendered their results more beneficial. The following answers to questions 3, 4, 5, 7 & 8 of the Commissioners' questions, give a short outline of the existing system:

Bremen.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there district houses of industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families, and supplying them with food, clothes, &c., and in which they are set to work?—There exists but one poor-house in

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Bremen,

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Bremen, in which the destitute able-bodied are received, to the number of 220, lodged, fed and clothed, for which they are bound to work, for the benefit of the institution, as far as they are able.

4. To what extent and under what regulations do any religious institutions give assistance to the destitute, by receiving them as inmates, or by giving them alms?—Independently of three houses for the lodging and partly providing for poor widows, free of expense, there are other buildings set apart for the reception of poor superannuated or helpless women; but chiefly a number of private institutions for the relief of poor deserving persons by testamentary bequests. Such are the Rheden, the Tiedemann, the Nonnen, the Von Bühren, &c. so called.

5. To what extent and under what regulations is work provided at their own dwellings for those who have trades, but do not procure work for themselves?—This is done, but in a very limited degree, at the public expense, as those who have trades come under the care and superintendence of their respective guilds, whose duty and credit it is to prevent any of their fraternity coming upon the parish, and who can easily afford the means of providing them with work. Females, on application to the poor-house, may receive hemp and flax for spinning, and are remunerated accordingly.

7. To what extent and under what regulations are fuel, clothing or money distributed to such persons or their families; at all times of the year, or during any particular seasons?—Those who are registered in the poor-house list, and thus come under the superintendence and control of the parish officers, receive, as long as they may require assistance,—1. A small monthly allowance in money. 2. Clothing for themselves and their families. 3. If necessary, bedding. 4. In the winter, during severe frost, fuel.

8. To what extent and under what regulations are they relieved by their children being taken into schools, and fed, clothed and educated or apprenticed?—Means are not only afforded to the poor for sending their children to school and for giving them religious instruction, but they are here compelled to do so, on pain of forfeiting all claim to parochial relief, or by other modes of punishment. *That every child in the State, of whatever descent, shall be subjected to school discipline and tuition*, is founded upon the principle, that no means so effectually obviates that general poverty, among the lower classes in particular, as an attention to the developement of their minds, by which they acquire that self-confidence that stimulates exertion, and that proper spirit of independence that keeps them above want, whilst by religious instruction they are impressed with a sense of the duties and advantages of good moral conduct through life. It has ever been the prevailing opinion in this Republic, that the principal duty of the State towards bettering the condition of its poorer classes, rests upon a due regard to this school discipline, and that it tends in its practice to prevent the frequent recurrence of application for relief in the same family; the descendants of which, without such control, would habitually and irrecoverably become, in their turn, dependants upon public charity. When such children have arrived at the age of 14 or 15 years, after having been taught reading, writing, arithmetic and any other acquirement consistent with their situation, books and other materials being furnished them by the poor-house, gratis; they are, after confirmation, generally put out to service, and thus prevented from returning to the idle habits of their parents. Girls are, in like manner, often provided for. They are taught reading, writing, knitting and needle-work. (p.p. 410, 411.)

Lubeck.

3. LUBECK.—If the statistical returns respecting Lubeck, which do not appear to rest on enumeration, can be depended on, the proportion of deaths, births and marriages to the whole population is less than in any other part of Europe. The deaths being stated to be 1 in 56; the births 1 in 53 $\frac{1}{2}$; and the marriages 1 in 177. And, what is perhaps the strongest indication of the general welfare of a community, the deaths under the age of one year are stated to be only 1 in 7. The following answers to questions 3, 4, 5, 7 & 8, may be compared with the corresponding answers from Bremen:

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there district houses of industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families, and supplying them with food, clothes, &c., and in which they are set to work?—No other institution of this kind exists here but the work and poor-house, called the Cloister, into which, however, none are admitted but persons totally incapable of contributing to their own support, whether from drunkenness or other incapacitating causes.

4. To what extent and under what regulations do any religious institutions give assistance to the destitute, by receiving them as inmates, or by giving them alms?—We have none such, but a collection is made in all our churches every Sunday for the poor; this, however, being a regular matter-of-course thing, yields comparatively small sums, which are privately distributed to poor persons by the churchwardens and deacons.

5. To what extent and under what regulations is work provided at their own dwellings for those who have trades, but do not procure work for themselves?—or for such persons in agriculture or on public works?—Every able-bodied man is supposed capable of providing for himself, and no such work or relief is afforded him. In winter many poor women are supplied with a little work by the overseers of the workhouse, who give them flax to spin. The average annual quantity thus spun is about 6,000 to 6,500 pounds, the pay for which, amounting to about 130*l.* annually, relieves about 300 poor women. The linen yarn thus spun is disposed of by lottery among the wealthier classes. No work is

is supplied at the public expense or by public institutions to able-bodied men, merely because they are destitute; they must seek and find it themselves, and are of course accepted and employed on public works, as far as there is a demand for them. Having no relief to expect elsewhere, they are of course spurred on to exertion, and if sober and of good character, it may be generally assumed that they find work, at least sufficient for their bare existence, since, if a man can earn but a few pence daily it will suffice to support him in this country.

7. To what extent and under what regulations are fuel, clothing or money distributed to such persons or their families; at all times of the year, or during any particular seasons?—As above stated, no relief of this kind is afforded to able-bodied men; their families, if considered destitute, may perhaps obtain the relief afforded by the poor-board to the poor generally, by means of portions of cheap food daily during the five winter months, and four times a week during the other part of the year. About 230,000 such portions are distributed annually, and bread to the value of about 60*l*. Fuel is distributed during the severer part of the winter, but money is rarely given, and only in extreme cases, never exceeding one mark, or about 14*d*. sterling a week, to the same party. Clothing forms no part of the relief afforded. In Lubeck these various kinds of relief are partaken of by about 850 persons annually.

8. To what extent and under what regulations are they relieved by their children being taken into schools, and fed, clothed and educated, or apprenticed?—Not only are all the children of the poor admitted into the poor-schools for instruction gratis, but when relief is afforded by the poor-board, it is on the positive condition that they shall send their children to such schools. Neither food, clothing nor any further provision is afforded them, in these schools, excepting in a very few extreme cases, in which the maintenance of very young children is undertaken by the poor-board. The number of children in our poor-schools averages about 300. (p. 415, 416.)

The allowance in our poor and workhouse for every individual, is—

Daily :—1 $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. of coarse rye bread.

2 $\frac{1}{2}$ — vegetables or porridge such as potatoes, yellow peas, green peas, dried white beans, carrots, peeled barley, cabbage, &c. according to the season, and sometimes rice.

1 bottle of weak beer.

Monthly :—1 $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. of meat, and

$\frac{1}{2}$ lb. of butter, lard or fat, to cook the food with. (p. 420.)

Marriages among the poor are delayed by the necessity a man is under, *first*, of previously proving that he is in a regular employ, work or profession that will enable him to maintain a wife; and *secondly*, of becoming a burgher and equipping himself in the uniform of the burgher guard, which, together, may cost him nearly 4*l*. (p. 419.)

The condition of the labouring classes living on their own earnings is considered by themselves to be far superior to that of the paupers maintained in our poor-house. The partial assistance afforded by the poor-board is chiefly directed towards aiding those who are not devoid of honest pride, and have some feelings of independence left, who consequently earn their own maintenance as far as they can, and are thus assisted in their endeavours to support themselves and keep out of the workhouse. The aid they receive is proportioned to their age and families, and is mostly granted to females; it is gratefully received, and no idea exists of ever thinking it a right. As a rule no persons fully able to work can receive assistance, they are therefore forced to seek out employment, and may be generally presumed to succeed. If they get but a moderate portion of work, very trifling earnings place them in a situation much more eligible than that of the pauper maintained in the poor-house. (p. 418.)

FRANKFORT ON THE MAIN.

The institutions for the relief of the poor in Frankfort do not appear to require much notice.

The most striking circumstance mentioned in the report is, that the orphans and deserted children brought up in the public establishments are so carefully and successfully educated, that on an average they turn out better than those merely kept to school and living at home. (p. 567.) Permission to marry is not granted to a person who cannot prove his ability to support a family.

HOLLAND.

As the Canton de Berne appears to be the portion of continental Europe in which the burthen of legal relief is most oppressive, Holland appears to be that in which pauperism, unaided by a legal claim, is the most rapidly advancing. The Appendix contains an official communication from the Dutch government, and answers from His Majesty's Consul in Amsterdam, to the Commissioners' questions.

The clearest general view of the mode in which relief is administered, is contained in the following extract from the Consul's report: (p. 581.)

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The main support of the poor is derived from religious communities and charitable institutions. Every denomination of Christians, as well as the Jews, relieve their own members; and for this purpose have, for the most part, orphan and poor-houses and schools connected with them, which are supported by property belonging to them, and by voluntary contributions at the church doors, and collections at the houses of the members; the Jews being permitted occasionally to make a general collection throughout the city for their own purposes. These establishments, among the Protestants (the most numerous community), are called Deaconries; and they provide not only for the support of their indigent members, but also for their relief in sickness. The deacons, who have the immediate superintendence of the poor, limit the assistance given according to the exigency of the case, which they investigate very narrowly; and by becoming particularly acquainted with the situation of the applicants, are enabled to detect any imposition. The pecuniary relief afforded is very small, and can only be considered as in aid of the exertions of the poor to earn their own support, being limited to a few pence in the week; a weekly donation of 2 florins (or 40 *d.*) being looked upon as one of the largest. In winter, provisions, fuel and clothing are given in preference to money. The aged and infirm are admitted into the poor-houses, where, and at the schools, the children are educated, and afterwards put out to different trades, till they are able to provide for themselves. The deacons act gratuitously; and being of the most respectable class of citizens, elected by the churches to that office, the conscientious discharge of it is ensured, and in consequence malversations seldom take place. The general poor (being inhabitants), including persons who are and are not members of religious communities (Jews excepted), are relieved at their own houses from the revenue of property long since appropriated to that use, administered by commissioners appointed by the magistrates, and acting without emolument (as is the case with most similar offices in this country), and in aid of which public charitable collections at private houses are permitted, while any eventual deficiency is supplied from the funds of the city; but the relief afforded by these means is very small, and is confined chiefly to bread, with the addition of fuel in winter. Without other resources, therefore, or the assistance of private charity, the claimants could hardly subsist upon what they obtain in this way. By a decree passed in the year 1818*, it was enacted, that the domicile of a male pauper is the place of his birth, superseded by the place where he has resided four years and paid taxes; and that of a child, the residence of his father, or of his mother, if a widow. That the domicile of a stranger is the place where he has resided six years; of married women and widows, the place of their husbands' residence; of legitimate minors, that of their fathers', and of illegitimate, that of their mothers'. This decree, fixing the domicile of paupers for the purpose of obtaining relief, and a subsequent one, by which gratuitous legal advice is allowed them, if they apply for it, implies that they have a claim to support, which can be enforced at law; but as the funds from which this support must be obtained are uncertain, the amount of the relief that can be given depends upon their extent, and it is in fact left at the discretion of the overseers, who have the faculty of withholding it on the proof of bad conduct of the recipients, or when their children do not properly attend the school, or have been neglected to be vaccinated. Those not members of churches are, moreover, admonished to join some religious community, and must promise to do so the first opportunity. The decree above alluded to also regulates the proceedings of one town against another, and of religious and charitable institutions at the same place, in respect to paupers. There are at Amsterdam, besides, a variety of private establishments for the poor of different religious denominations, endowed by charitable persons, in which the poor are relieved in different ways, according to prescribed regulations. In general, the funds of all the public charitable institutions have greatly diminished, while the number of claimants has much increased, which causes frequent and urgent appeals to the public benevolence. In the country the same system prevails, and the deacons or office-bearers of the churches are often called upon during the winter to assist in the support of indigent labourers with families, till the return of spring enables them to find work; but there are few permanent poor there, except the old and infirm, who are generally boarded in poor-houses in the adjoining town. (p. 582.)

It will be observed that the Consul considers the law which fixes the domicile of a pauper, and entitles him to legal advice, as implying in him a legal right to relief. We understand, however, that no such right is in practice acknowledged. And as a large proportion of the fund for the relief of the poor arises from endowments, the law may fix the legal settlement of every person, that is, his right to participate in the endowments of a particular parish, and allow him legal assistance in establishing it, without giving to him that indefinite claim which exists in those countries in which every person has a right to receive from the public subsistence for himself and his family.

The official report contains the following details respecting the funds from which public relief is afforded: (pp. 573, 574, 575.)

The principle which invariably has been acted on is, that the charge of relieving the poor should in the first place rest on the overseers of the poor of the religious sects in each parish; but when the means of the administration of the poor are not sufficient, they can indiscriminately (without reference to the sect to which such poor belong) apply to the local

* See this decree, *post.* p.

local administration for relief, which, after due investigation, generally grants it, according to the means of the municipal administration, which is regulated by its direction.

Paupers, however, who are not members of any congregation, or any religious sect, in the place where they live and receive relief, or where no ecclesiastical charity for the poor exists, are supported by the municipal administration of the place where they live and obtain their support; for which purpose, in several cities and parishes a separate administration for the poor is established, responsible to the municipal administration; whereas in the remaining cities and parishes such relief is granted either by the burgomaster, or by an overseer of the poor nominated by him.

The hospitals, which in many cities exist, are for the greater part government establishments, which are administered on account of the local magistracy, by a number of directors appointed thereto, in which hospitals all inmates, without any distinction as to religion, are taken in; some of these hospitals are however separate foundations, which exist wholly or in part on their own revenues.

Amongst the orphan houses and charities for children and old people, there are several establishments which exist wholly or in part on their own revenues; whereas the remainder are generally the property of particular church administrations of the poor, which in great cities is almost generally the case in orphan houses or charities for children.

Foundlings and abandoned children, at the charge of the place in which they are abandoned, are provided for in the establishment for children of the society for charitable purposes, by which institution the beggars are also provided for in the establishments appropriated for that purpose, and acknowledged by the government, at the charge of the place where they have a claim for relief.

There exist three local workhouses, one at Amsterdam, one at Middleburgh, and one in the commonalty Nieuwe Pekel A., in the province of Groningen, in which paupers, generally those who apply of their own accord, are taken in, upon condition that they contribute to their support as much as possible by labour: further, there are in several places twenty-one charitable houses of industry, which procure work for paupers who are in immediate want of work, either in the houses of industry, or at their own dwellings.

Besides the before-mentioned institutions, there are also various places, unions and societies, the intentions of which are to grant relief in some way or other; namely, some for the relief of very indigent poor; others for granting relief to poor lying-in women; and the commissions or societies which during the winter distribute provisions and fuel.

For the twelve years from 1820 to 1831, the receipts of the administration for the established charity houses, and those of the hospitals, taken on an average for each year, amount together;

1. The revenues of properties and acknowledged rights	-	-	guilders.	2,461,883	26
2. Proceeds of collections	-	-	-	1,320,551	48
3. Subsidies granted by					
a. The parishes	-	-	-	1,779,719	67
b. The provinces of the State	-	-	-	38,642	78
				1,818,362	45
Making - - - guilders				5,600,797	19

By which all the disbursements of these institutions are covered.

And if to the above-mentioned sum are added, for the same period of twelve years, the following; viz.

1. For the local workhouses and charitable houses of industry:					
a. Revenues of properties	-	-	-	7,458	50
b. Collections	-	-	-	7,971	63
c. Subsidies of the parishes	-	-	-	99,083	87
2. For the new erected beggars' workhouses:					
a. Daily wages paid by the parish for the beggars placed therein	-	-	-	41,090	40
b. Provincial subsidies	-	-	-	871	49
3. For the society for charitable purposes:					
a. Contributions and voluntary donations by individuals	-	-	-	48,893	55
b. Monies for stipulated contracts	-	-	-	208,651	69
Consequently, the whole sum is - - - guilders				6,014,818	32

It appears from this statement that rather more than 6,000,000 guilders (equal at 20*d.* the guilder to 500,000 *l.* sterling) has on an average of the last 12 years been annually expended on the relief of the poor, being an expense per head, on an average population of 2,292,350, of about 4*s.* 4 $\frac{1}{4}$ *d.* An expenditure small compared with our own, but very large when compared with the average expenditure of Europe.

The official report does not state the progressive increase of the annual expenditure; but it contains a table of the progressive increase of the persons receiving relief, from which we extract the particulars of the 10 years ending with 1831. (p. 580.)

Institutions for Relief.				INSTITUTIONS FOR GIVING OR PROCURING WORK.										Statement for the Population of North Netherland of 100 Persons.										
Population of North Netherland on the 31 Dec.	Number of Persons relieved by the direction of the Poor-house.			Population of the Hospitals.			Number of Persons.			Number of Persons who have worked in and for the local Workhouses and Charitable Work-places.			Population of Paupers' Workhouses.			Population of the Colonies, and Establishments of the Society for Charitable Purposes.					General Total Persons who have received Relief, or to whom Work has been given.	Of the Total number of Persons relieved or maintained by the Institution for granting Support.	Of the Total of Persons by the Institution for providing Work.	Of the general Total of Persons who have participated in the Relief, or to whom Work has been given.
	Number of Persons relieved by the direction of the Poor-house.	Population of the Hospitals.	Number of Persons.	Fed and lodged in the Institutions.	Those only who have worked in the same, or at their own Houses.	Together.	At Hoorn.	At Veere.	Together, or in the whole.	Poor Families making the number of Persons.	Orphans, Foundlings or abandoned Children.	Beggars.	Persons, Veterans, families, making together.	Together, or in the whole.	Number of Persons.									
1822 -	174,802	20,501	195,303	id.	id.	3,227	750	-	750	1,979	456	300	-	2,735	6,712	202,015	8,914	0,306	9,220					
1823 -	196,633	17,430	211,063	id.	id.	4,358	750	273 ^(a)	1,023	2,295	475	1,053	-	3,823	9,202	220,265	9,507	0,415	9,922					
1824 -	196,786	19,955	216,741	id.	id.	4,271	700	200	900	2,614	1,214	1,061	-	4,889	10,060	226,801	9,617	0,446	10,063					
1825 -	240,400	17,943	222,343	862	2,982	3,844	323	136	459 ^(b)	3,227	2,174	1,377	-	6,778	11,081	233,424	9,744	0,486	10,230					
1826 -	227,501	18,731	246,232	920	3,199	4,119	380	82 ^(c)	462	2,724	2,233	1,581	231	6,769	11,350	257,582	10,724	0,494	11,218					
1827 -	232,426	19,775	252,201	670	4,001	4,671	378 ^(d)	-	378	2,560	2,059	1,763	401	6,783	11,832	264,033	10,929	0,513	11,442					
1828 -	217,343	17,928	235,271	607	4,017	4,624	-	-	-	2,510	2,358	1,826	562	7,256	11,880	247,151	10,098	0,510	10,608					
1829 -	235,771	17,884	253,655	672	4,077	4,749	-	-	-	2,626	2,340	1,942	543	7,451	12,200	265,855	10,450	0,503	10,953					
1830 -	244,503	17,870	262,373	733	4,263	4,996	-	-	-	2,619	2,288	2,111	473	7,491	12,487	274,860	10,733	0,511	11,244					
1831 -	248,380	17,887	266,267	973	4,637	5,610	-	-	-	2,694	2,297	2,406	456	7,853	13,463	279,730	10,849	0,549	11,398					

General Observations.—Although the persons who have only worked in or for the charitable work-places, and are not lodged or fed in them, are probably already included amongst the number of those who have been relieved by the direction of the Poor-house; it was however thought proper not to exclude them from this Table, because the expenses of procuring work belong likewise to these persons.

(d) This establishment was done away with on the 15th October, all the paupers in it were removed to the Ommerschans.

It appears from this table that the number of persons relieved has steadily increased from 202,015, the number in 1822, to 279,730, the number in 1831; and that the proportion of paupers to independent members of society has also increased from $9\frac{220}{1000}$ per cent., the proportion in 1822, or rather more than one-eleventh, to $11\frac{398}{1000}$ per cent., or rather more than one-ninth, the proportion in 1831: a proportion exceeding even that of England.

And it is to be observed that the greater part of this great positive and relative increase of pauperism has taken place during a period of profound peace, internal and external; only one of these years being subsequent to the Belgian revolution. It is probable that if the years 1832 and 1833 had been given, the comparison with the earlier period would have been still more unfavourable.

We have omitted in the statement of the expenditure for the relief of the poor a sum of 200,000 guilders, or about 16,666 *l.* sterling, annually employed on the gratuitous instruction of poor children: the number thus instructed in 1831 was 73,609. It does not appear, however, that any persons are compelled to attend to the education of their children, except by its being made (as is the general rule on the Continent of Europe) one of the conditions on which relief is granted: and the Consul states that the labourers in general think it beneath them to let their children go to school for nothing; and that some, when unable to pay, prefer keeping them at home.

It is remarkable that neither the official nor the consular report dwells on that portion of the Dutch poor institutions which has excited the greatest attention in Europe, namely, the Poor Colonies.

DUTCH
POOR COLONIES.

The following statements are extracted from the narrative of Count Arrivabene, who visited them in 1829: (pp. 610, 611, 612, 613, 614.)

La disette des années 1816 et 1817, et la misère qui s'ensuivit, furent les causes qui, pendant l'année 1818, donnèrent naissance, dans les Provinces Septentrionales du royaume des Pays-Bas, à une société de bienfaisance, dont le but était de mettre à exécution de nouveaux projets philanthropiques. Les membres de cette société s'obligèrent à payer chacun par semaine une sou, et cela pendant tout le temps qu'il leur conviendrait de faire partie de la société. Le nombre des souscripteurs s'éleva bientôt à vingt mille; et la société, au moyen d'administrateurs choisis dans son sein, conçut le projet de fonder des colonies destinées à servir d'asile à différentes espèces de pauvres, dans les bruyères dont le pays abonde: Colonies pour réprimer la mendicité, colonies d'indigents et de vétérans, colonies ordinaires ou libres, colonies de surveillants aux travaux de l'agriculture, colonies d'orphelins et d'enfants-trouvés, et enfin colonies d'industrie agricole.

Dans l'année même où la société prit naissance, elle établit avant tout une colonie ordinaire ou libre, sur les bruyères situées entre les provinces de Drenthe, de Frise et d'Over-Yssel: cette colonie fut nommée Frederiks-Oord. Elle se composait de cinquante-deux petites fermes, exploitées en partie auparavant par la société, d'un magasin pour les objets nécessaires aux colons, de plusieurs fabriques, d'une école, etc. Elle fut peuplée au moyen de familles indigentes, mais qui ne vivaient pas tout-à-fait d'aumônes. La dépense pour la fondation de cette colonie s'éleva à 68,000 flor.*, produit des souscriptions annuelles et des donations des membres, qui, pour assurer aux colons du travail pendant cette époque de l'année où la campagne n'en offre point les ressources, s'engagèrent à leur acheter vingt-six mille aunes de toile.

En 1819, la société offrit aux directeurs des institutions d'orphelins de tout le royaume, de se charger, moyennant une rétribution annuelle, d'un nombre d'orphelins de l'âge de 6 ans qu'ils voudraient bien lui confier, en leur laissant le droit d'exercer une juste surveillance. La société, pour faire face à cette nouvelle dépense, fit un emprunt de 280,000 flor. Elle plaça d'abord les orphelins dans de petites maisons séparées, à raison de six dans chacune, et deux personnes âgées pour leur servir de parents. Mais ensuite elle les réunit presque tous dans de grands édifices. Dans cette même année, le nombre des membres s'éleva à 22,500 et leurs souscriptions à 82,500 fl., ce qui permit à la société d'établir deux autres colonies ordinaires ou libres, et d'y placer cent cinquante familles.

En 1820, elle emprunta de nouveau 100,000 flor., qui, réunis à 78,000 fl. qui lui furent donnés, lui offrirent les moyens d'établir pendant cette année un même nombre de familles.

En 1821, elle réunit une somme de 421,000 flor., produit d'un emprunt de 300,000 flor., et de 121,000 fl. provenant des souscriptions; et elle possédait sept colonies ordinaires ou libres, composées de 500 petites fermes, et autres établissements dont nous avons parlé.

En 1822, elle fonda la première colonie pour réprimer la mendicité; et dans le mois de Novembre de la même année, elle s'engagea envers le gouvernement à recevoir et placer dans d'autres colonies 4,000 orphelins, 2,500 indigents, et 1,500 mendiants. Le gouvernement aurait à payer 45 flor. par an pour chaque orphelin, pendant 16 années, et rien pour les autres pauvres, ce qui faisait 22 fl. 50 cents pour chaque individu du nombre total. Mais jusqu'à présent la société n'a pu remplir qu'une partie de ses engagements. Elle établit néanmoins toutes les espèces de colonies que nous avons énumérées.

C'est

* £. 5,666 13s. 4d.

HOLLAND.
 POOR COLONIES.
 Frederiks-Oord.

C'est dans le courant du mois d'Août de l'année 1829, que nous avons visité toutes les colonies de la société. Celles de Frederiks-Oord s'étendent sur un espace de deux lieues, et les petites fermes sont placées le long de chemins bordés d'arbres, et le long de canaux qui coupent les colonies en différentes sections. Chaque maison est composée d'une grande chambre, dans les murailles de laquelle sont pratiquées des espèces de larges tiroirs où couche la famille, selon l'usage des paysans Hollandais; une étable, une grange, et tout ce qui est nécessaire à une famille d'agriculteurs, se trouve annexé à la ferme. Près de la maison est situé le jardin, puis les terres cultivables. Toutes les fermes ont trois bonniers et demi.*

Tout chef de famille, dès son entrée à la colonie, fait une déclaration par laquelle il s'oblige à en observer les réglemens, en ce qui concerne l'obéissance aux supérieurs, sa conduite religieuse ou morale, celle de sa famille, la manière dont les travaux doivent s'exécuter, l'habillement uniforme des colons, etc.

Lorsqu'une famille de huit individus s'établit dans une ferme (et c'est de ce nombre que l'on compose ordinairement les familles), la société lui ouvre un compte de 1,700 flor., répartis de la manière suivante:

Pour l'acquisition des 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ bonniers* de terre	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	fl. 100†
Pour les exploiter	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	400
Pour deux vaches et quelques moutons	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	150
Pour la maison	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	500
Pour les dépenses communes	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	50
Pour meubles et habillemens	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	250
Pour un fonds de réserve destiné à entreprendre des travaux extraordinaires	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	250
									fl. 1,700‡

La somme donnée par anticipation pour les meubles et les habillemens est retenue dans la suite au colon sur ses propres gages; et aussitôt que la ferme est entièrement exploitée, le chef de la famille est débité de 60 flor. pour intérêts du restant du capital, et pour loyer de la ferme même.

Pendant trois ans au moins, les colons cultivent les terres en commun; leur travail est rétribué par des gages; et ils ne disposent nullement du produit de la ferme, mais de celui du jardin et des vaches. Les produits des fermes (et ils nous ont paru bien médiocres), qui consistent principalement en seigle, pommes de terre, sarrazin, etc., sont transportés dans les magasins de la société, où on les conserve pour les distribuer ensuite aux colons en à compte du prix de leur travail, partie en comestibles préparés, partie en simple nature.

Aussi long-temps qu'une famille ne parvient pas à se procurer par son travail tous les produits nécessaires à son entretien, elle reçoit journellement sa subsistance de la société; mais, lorsqu'elle gagne quatre florins par semaine, elle peut préparer sa subsistance dans l'intérieur de sa maison; et quant aux ustensiles qui lui sont nécessaires, le colon peut les acheter à la société ou ailleurs.

La société distribue trois sortes de médailles, les unes en cuivre, les autres en argent, les troisièmes en or. Les premières servent de récompense à ceux que distinguent un travail régulier et une bonne conduite; elles donnent, à ceux qui les ont obtenues, le droit de sortir de la colonie les Dimanches et jours de fête, sans en obtenir la permission des supérieurs. Les secondes récompensent ceux qui, par leur industrie active, gagnent par eux-mêmes tous les moyens de subsistance; elles donnent le droit de sortir de la colonie sans permission, non-seulement les Dimanches et jours de fêtes, mais tous les autres jours de la semaine, aux heures qui ne sont point consacrées au travail. Enfin les médailles d'or sont distribuées à ceux qui ont déjà obtenu celles en argent, dès que leurs fermes produisent annuellement pour une valeur de 250 fl., et, en les obtenant, le colon n'est plus soumis au régime colonial, et il ne diffère d'un fermier ordinaire que par certaines conditions qui lui sont imposées. De même que le colon obtient une médaille par sa bonne conduite, de même il la perd, pour un certain temps ou à jamais, et avec tous les privilèges qui y sont attachés, par sa mauvaise conduite. Les médailles sont solennellement distribuées et retirées tous les quinze jours.

Après un séjour de trois ans dans la colonie, les colons sont distribués en trois classes: 1^o. Celle des hommes laborieux qui ont reçu la médaille d'argent; ils peuvent, ou cultiver la ferme pour leur propre compte, en en payant le loyer à la société, et en acquittant les dettes qu'ils ont contractées à leur entrée; ou la cultiver en commun comme auparavant. 2^o. Celle des colons qui ont reçu la médaille de cuivre, et peuvent en conséquence, en cultivant leur ferme à part, disposer d'une partie des produits; mais l'autre partie doit être rapportée aux magasins de la société, en compensation du loyer de la ferme, des avances qui leur ont été faites, et pour créer un fonds commun. Cependant une partie de ce rapport leur est distribuée en pain. Si les colons, pendant l'année, ne recueillent pas sur leurs champs une quantité déterminée de pommes de terre, ou s'ils demandent à la société des secours extraordinaires, ils doivent restituer la médaille, et passer à la troisième classe. Cette dernière est composée de ceux qui n'ont obtenu aucune médaille, et qui en conséquence doivent verser dans les magasins de la société une plus grande quantité de produits, de sorte qu'ils en ont moins

* Not quite seven English acres and a half. A bonnier is equal to $2\frac{4}{5}$ English acres, or one hectare.

† £. 8. 6s. 8d., or about 1 l. 4s. per acre.

‡ About 141 l. 13s., a florin being worth about 1 s. 8 d.

moins à administrer par eux-mêmes, tout en ayant à remplir les mêmes obligations que les autres.

Les colons cultivent en commun une certaine étendue de terrain, dont le produit est destiné à suppléer au déficit de récolte spéciale de chaque ferme, et à pourvoir aux dépenses occasionnées par l'école, l'hôpital, et l'administration. Chaque chef de famille est obligé d'y travailler trois jours par année, pour lesquels il reçoit un salaire. Les salaires en général sont payés au moyen d'un papier-monnaie, qui n'a cours que dans la colonie, et avec lequel les colons peuvent acheter tout ce que bon leur semble, à l'exception des boissons spiritueuses, dont l'usage et la vente sont prohibés. Il y a dans les colonies diverses boutiques, et le prix des objets est fixé par l'administration de la colonie.

Pendant l'été, les colons envoient leurs bestiaux dans des pâturages communs.

Quelle que soit la durée du temps pendant lequel un colon ait résidé dans la colonie, il ne peut jamais devenir propriétaire de sa ferme. Il peut cependant acquérir la propriété des meubles, dont il dispose comme chose à lui, soit en les vendant, soit en les emportant, lorsqu'il quitte définitivement la colonie.

Il n'est pas permis au colon de se marier, à moins qu'il ne soit veuf, ou fils d'un veuf, et en possession d'une ferme ; et lorsque ses enfants sont parvenus à l'âge de 16 ou 18 ans, ils choisissent un état, avec le consentement de leurs parents et des supérieurs, état qu'ils peuvent exercer soit dans le sein de la colonie, soit ailleurs.

Il y a, par vingt-cinq fermes, un surveillant, qui les visite tous les jours, qui dirige les travaux, et les distribue entre les divers colons. Dans ce partage des 25 fermes et la distribution des familles qui les occupent, la société a soin de faire entrer des individus exerçant des métiers différents. En raison de la bonne conduite de chaque famille, la surveillance diminue de jour en jour, et elle cesse presque entièrement, lorsque le colon a restitué la valeur des avances qui lui ont été faites. Pour cent fermes, il y a un sous-directeur, qui donne ses instructions au surveillant, tient les registres, et dirige les manufactures.

Les colons paresseux et d'une conduite irrégulière sont traduits devant un conseil de surveillance, dont quelques colons font partie ; ce conseil les renvoie devant un autre, dit de Discipline, qui peut les faire transférer à Ommerschans (colonie pour réprimer la mendicité, dont nous parlerons ensuite), dans un endroit qui leur est particulièrement destiné. Ils y séjournent pendant un temps déterminé, soumis à un travail plus rigoureux que de coutume. Les colons laborieux et honnêtes sont commis à la surveillance des travaux dans les colonies pour réprimer la mendicité, et dans celles d'orphelins et d'indigents.

Dans ces colonies de Frederiks-Oord, la plupart des familles sont Protestantes ; il y en a cependant plusieurs Catholiques, et deux Juives.

La matinée du troisième jour, nous nous sommes rendus à Wateren, qui est à deux lieues de Frederiks-Oord. Wateren est la colonie d'industrie agricole, où sont envoyés les orphelins qui se distinguent le plus dans leurs colonies. Les orphelins, au nombre de soixante, y apprennent la théorie de l'agriculture, au moyen d'un maître, et la pratique, en cultivant une ferme de quarante-deux bonniers, partagés en champs cultivés, en pépinières, et en pâturages. Le même maître leur enseigne en outre l'arpentage, l'histoire naturelle, la botanique, les mathématiques, la chimie, l'histoire de la Hollande, leur explique la Bible, et leur fait faire des exercices gymnastiques. Ces orphelins sont destinés à devenir surveillants dans les colonies ordinaires ou libres. Ils sont mieux habillés que les autres, et portent un chapeau orné d'un ruban sur lequel est écrit le nom de la colonie privilégiée à laquelle ils appartiennent. Cette colonie gagne à la société à-peu-près 900 fl. par an.

Le même jour, après une course de trois lieues, nous arrivâmes à Veenhuisen, où il y a une colonie pour réprimer la mendicité, deux orphelins, une d'indigents et de vétérans, et une de surveillants aux travaux d'agriculture. Deux grands édifices quarrés, à la distance d'un demi-mille l'un de l'autre, contiennent dans la partie qui donne sur les cours, le premier, des mendiants ; le second, des orphelins ; et tous deux, dans des chambres qui donnent à l'extérieur, des indigents et des vétérans. Un autre édifice pareil, à deux milles de distance, contient également ces trois classes d'individus ; et, entre ces trois édifices, sont situées deux églises, l'une Catholique et l'autre Protestante, vingt-quatre maisons formant une colonie de surveillants aux travaux d'agriculture, et un même nombre de maisons habitées par les employés de ces colonies.

Les enfants ont ainsi été placés dans le voisinage des hommes, afin que les travaux de l'agriculture et ceux des arts et métiers pussent être distribués plus convenablement. Ces colonies sont aussi entrecoupées par des grands chemins, bordés d'arbres, et par des canaux, qui les mettent en communication avec la ville d'Amsterdam.

L'intérieur des trois grands édifices est partagé en deux ; d'un côté demeurent les hommes, de l'autre, les femmes : il se compose de grandes salles au rez-de-chaussée qui contiennent de 40 à 50 individus, et qui sont séparées l'une de l'autre par une cuisine.

Au-dessus du rez-de-chaussée, il n'y a que des greniers, qui servent de magasins.

Les individus de la colonie pour réprimer la mendicité reçoivent, à leur entrée, un habillement neuf, complet et uniforme, et, pendant quelque temps, sont entretenus en toutes choses, sans que l'on exige que, par leur travail, ils gagnent au prorata de ce qu'on leur a donnée. Ils travaillent, ou à l'extérieur, à la culture des champs, à la fabrication des briques, à l'exploitation des tourbières, ou à l'intérieur, dans les manufactures, et plus souvent à la tâche qu'à la journée. Le prix du travail est fixé par l'administration de la société.

Les terres de ces colonies sont partagées en fermes, de trente-deux bonniers chacune, moitié champs cultivés, moitié pâturages. A chacune de ces fermes sont attachés quarante ou cinquante colons, qui travaillent sous la direction d'un surveillant, instruit auparavant

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ravant par le sous directeur quant à la manière de les cultiver. Les dépenses annuelles pour l'exploitation de chacune de ces fermes sont fixées à 1,680 flor.

La comptabilité entre la société et les colons est tenue suivant le système militaire. Chaque colon est porteur d'un livret sur lequel sont inscrits la somme des travaux qu'il a exécutés chaque jour, celle des fournitures qui lui ont été faites, des dépenses générales auxquelles il doit prendre part, et tout ce qu'il a reçu en papier-monnaie.

Si les gains du colon excèdent les dépenses qui ont été faites pour lui, ce qui arrive, dit-on, communément, un tiers de cet excédant lui est donné en papier-monnaie, un second tiers est versé dans une caisse d'épargne, pour lui être rendu à sa sortie de la colonie, et le dernier tiers est retenu par la société pour faire face à des dépenses imprévues.

Des gardes à cheval, qui circulent autour de la colonie, des primes accordées à ceux qui reconduisent les colons qui ont tenté de s'échapper, un habillement uniforme, tels sont les moyens employés pour empêcher que la colonie ne soit désertée. Les colons y sont retenus pendant six ans, à moins que, dans un plus court espace de temps, ils n'aient épargné 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ flor. : ils sortent alors immédiatement.

Les orphelins sont conduits dans les colonies qui ont été fondées pour eux, dès qu'ils ont atteint l'âge de six ans. Une partie de la journée est employée par eux au travail dans les champs ou à l'intérieur ; l'autre partie est consacrée à l'instruction élémentaire, au dessin et au chant. Les orphelins sortent des colonies à l'âge de dix-huit ans, et la plupart prennent du service soit dans la marine, soit dans l'armée.

Les colonies d'indigents et de vétérans servent de lieux préparatoires avant de passer aux colonies ordinaires ou libres. Les vétérans et les indigents demeurent avec leurs familles dans les appartements extérieurs des grands édifices habités par les mendiants et les orphelins. De même que ceux-ci, ils sont considérés comme des journaliers, et sont payés en raison de leur travail.

Dans toutes ces colonies, les fournitures aussi bien que les gages varient en raison de la différence d'âge, de force, de sexe des individus. Les hommes sont divisés en cinq classes, et les femmes en sept. La première classe d'hommes doit gagner un florin 70 c. par semaine ; la seconde 1-35 ; la troisième 1-06 ; la quatrième, composée d'enfants de 8 à 16 ans, 1-01 ; la cinquième, composée d'enfants au-dessous de cet âge, 67 $\frac{1}{2}$ c. La première classe de femmes doit gagner par semaine 1 flor. 51 ; la seconde 1-26 ; la troisième 98 c. ; les quatrième et cinquième, composées d'enfants, 95 c. et 75 c. ; les sixième et septième, composées également d'enfants, mais plus jeunes, 63 c. et 55 c.

La matinée du quatrième jour, nous nous rendîmes à Ommerschans, qui est à sept lieues de Veenhuisen.

Ommerschans.

A Ommerschans il y a une colonie pour réprimer la mendicité et une d'indigents et de vétérans. La première est composée d'hommes et d'enfants ; et, dans un lieu séparé, sont placés les colons ordinaires ou libres, envoyées en expiation de quelque faute commise dans leurs propres colonies. L'édifice, qui peut contenir mille individus, ressemble sous plusieurs rapports à celui de Veenhuisen, si ce n'est que l'eau qui l'entourne, et les barreaux de fer aux fenêtres, lui donnent une bien plus grande apparence de prison que l'autre, et qu'au lieu d'un seul rez-de-chaussée, il est surmonté d'un étage. Sont également semblables les dispositions des salles, les occupations des colons, la discipline, etc. Au milieu de la cour, il y a des boutiques de serruriers, de menuisiers, et d'autres métiers, et des fabriques de fil et de toile. En dehors, se trouvent l'église qui sert aux cultes Catholique et Protestant, et d'école en même temps ; la maison du sous-directeur, l'hôpital, et d'autres locaux à l'usage des colonies ; et vingt maisons, éparses dans les terres, forment une colonie de surveillants aux travaux d'agriculture.

De cette colonie pour réprimer la mendicité, sortent tous les ans 150 individus à-peu-près.

On recurring to the official statement of the total number of persons relieved during the ten years ending 1831, it will be seen that in 1831 the population of the poor colonies consisted of 7,853, being an increase of 402 from the time of Count Arrivabene's visit, arising solely from an increased number placed in the repressive or most severe of the penal colonies. And that this population was thus distributed : 2,297 in the colony assigned to orphans and abandoned children ; 456 in the preparatory colony ; 2,694 in the colonies called free ; and 2,406 in the repressive or mendicity colonies.

The nature of these institutions appears to have been imperfectly understood in England. They are in fact large agricultural workhouses ; and superior to the previous workhouses only so far as they may be less expensive, or, without being oppressive, objects of greater aversion.

It is scarcely possible that they can be less expensive.

The employing persons taken indiscriminately from other occupations and trades, almost all of them the victims of idleness and misconduct, and little urged by the stimulus of individual interest in farming the worst land in the country, (land so worthless that the fee-simple of it is worth only 24 s. an acre,) at an expense for outfit, exclusively of the value of the land, of more than 130 l. per family, and under the management of a joint-stock company of more than 20,000 members, cannot but be a ruinous speculation.

Nor does the institution appear to have repressed pauperism by the disagreeableness

ableness of the terms on which it offers relief : we have seen, on the contrary, that it has not prevented its steady increase. It will be shown subsequently that a similar establishment has signally failed in Belgium, and we cannot anticipate a different result in Holland.

HOLLAND.

M. Lebau, the Belgian Minister of Justice, has furnished a detailed report on the poor laws of Belgium, together with a considerable number of printed documents. Of the latter, we have printed only the regulations of the schools for the poor in Louvain, and of the out-door relief in Tournay ; the laws of August 1833, respecting the Dépôts de Mendicité ; and some statistical papers respecting the relief afforded in different manners in 1833, and in some of the preceding years. The others were too voluminous for this publication ; and though we have consulted them, (particularly the Code Administratif des Etablissements de Bienfaisance, M. Quetelet's statistical works on the Netherlands and Belgium, and M. Ducpétiaux's on Indigence,) with great advantage, we have been forced to omit them. Baron de Hochepeid Larpent and Mr. Fauche, His Majesty's Consuls in Antwerp and Ostend, have given valuable replies to the Commissioners' questions ; and Count Arrivabene a detailed account of the state of Gaesbeck, a village a few miles from Brussels. And we have inserted three reports as to the state of the Belgian poor colonies ; one from Count Arrivabene, who visited them in 1829, and one from M. Ducpétiaux, and another from Captain Brandreth, both dated in 1832.

BELGIUM AND FRANCE.

The union and subsequent separation of Belgium and France, and afterwards of Belgium and Holland, occasion the Belgian laws on this as on every other subject to be divisible into three heads :

First, those which she received when incorporated with France ; secondly, those which were made during the union with Holland ; and thirdly, those which have been passed since the revolution of 1830.

By far the largest portion of the Belgian poor laws is derived from the first of these sources.

The government of the Directory, by three laws passed in the autumn of 1796, established the system under which the principal portion of the relief afforded by the public is now regulated in most of the countries which constituted the French empire.

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By the first of these, that of the 16 Vendémiaire, An v. (7th October 1796), the property belonging to the hospices (or almshouses) was restored to them, and their management was entrusted to a commission appointed by the municipal authorities.

Hospices and Bureaux de Bienfaisance.

By the second, that of the 23 Brumaire, An v. (13th November 1796), it was enacted, that all the revenues of the different hospices in one commune should be employed as one fund for their common support.

And by the third, that of the 7 Frimaire, An v. (25th November 1796), that in every commune there should be appointed one or more bureaux de bienfaisance, each bureau consisting of five members, to administer out-door relief ; and that the funds at the disposition of the bureau de bienfaisance should consist of one tenth of the receipts from all public exhibitions within its district, and of whatever voluntary contributions it could obtain. By the same law all able-bodied beggars were required, under pain of three months' imprisonment, to return to their place of birth, or of domicile, if they had subsequently acquired a domicile.

By the law of the 3 Frimaire, An vii. (23d November 1798), the additional sums necessary to provide for the hospices, and the secours à domicile (or out-door relief), of each commune, are directed to be raised by the local authorities in the same manner as the sums necessary for the other local expenses.

By that of the 4 Ventose, An ix. (23d February 1801), all rents belonging to the State, of which the payment had been interrupted, and all national property usurped by individuals, were declared the property of the nearest hospitals. By that of the 5 Prairial, An xi., the commissaires des hospices and bureaux de bienfaisance were authorized to make public collections in churches, and to establish poor-boxes in public places ; and by a train of subsequent legislation they were enabled to acquire property by testamentary dispositions.

It is to be observed that under these laws the members of the commissions des hospices and of the bureaux de bienfaisance are frequently, but not necessarily, the same persons. The maire (or principal civil officer) of each commune is a necessary member of every charitable board. The other members go out by lot, one every year, but are re-eligible.

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By the law of the 16 Messidor, An vii., the inmates of the hospices were to be set to work, and two thirds of the produce of their work was to belong to the hospice, the other third to be given to them either periodically or when they quitted the hospice. We mention this enactment, because it has afforded a precedent for many similar regulations.

And partly for the purpose of increasing the funds for charitable purposes, and partly with a view to reduce the rate of interest in the mode of borrowing usually adopted by the poor, by two arrêtés of the 16 Pluviose and 24 Messidor, An xii. (6th February and 13th July 1804), all pawnbroking by individuals was prohibited, and public establishments for that purpose, under the name of *Monts-de-Piété*, were directed to be established and conducted for the benefit of the poor.

Foundlings and
deserted Children.

The French legislation respecting foundlings and deserted children is of a very different kind, and appears to us to be the portion of their poor laws deserving least approbation.

A law of the 27 Frimaire, An v. (17 Dec. 1796), enacted, that all recently-born deserted children should be received gratuitously in all the hospices of the Republic, at the expense of the State so far as those hospices had not a sufficient revenue specially destined to that purpose; and an arrêté of the Directory, of the 30 Ventose, An v., (20th March 1791), founded on the previous law, directed that as soon as possible after children had been received in any hospice they should be sent out to be nursed, and brought up in the country until the age of 12; and then either left to those who had brought them up, if they chose to take charge of them, or apprenticed to farmers, artists or manufacturers, or, if the children wished it, to the sea service.

The law on this subject received nearly its present form from an Imperial decree of the 19th Jan. 1811.

By that decree, the children for whom the public became responsible were divided into three classes: 1. *Enfans trouvés*; 2. *Enfans abandonnés*; 3. *Orphelins pauvres*. The first class comprises children of unknown parents, found exposed, or placed in foundling hospitals. The second, children whose parents are known, but have abandoned them, and cannot be forced to support them. The third, children without father or mother, or means of subsistence. For the first class a hospice was directed to be appointed in every *arrondissement*, with a *tour* (or revolving slide) for their reception, without the detection of the person bringing them. All the three classes of children were to be put out to nurse until six years old, and then placed with landholders (*cultivateurs*) or *artizans* until 12, subject to any mode in which the *Ministre de la Marine* might dispose of them. If not wanted by him, they were at 12 to be apprenticed for periods not exceeding their attaining the age of 25.

The annual sum of four millions (160,000 *l.*) in the whole was to be contributed by the State towards these expenses. The remainder to be supplied by the hospices out of their own revenues or out of those of the *communes*.

Relatives claiming a foundling were to repay all that it had cost, as far as they had the means.

The last clause of this decree directs that those who make a custom of taking infants to hospitals shall be punished according to law. It is not easy to reconcile this clause with the rest of the decree. If taking an infant to a foundling hospital were an offence, it seems strange that the law should itself prescribe a contrivance (a *tour*), the object of which is to prevent the detection of the person committing the offence. In fact, however, no such punishment "according to law" seems to exist. If a nurse or other person entrusted with a child take it, in breach of duty, to a foundling hospital, the offence is punishable by the *code pénal*; but no punishment is denounced against a parent for doing so, however often the act may be repeated. Nor does the "making a custom of taking children to a hospital" appear as an offence in the detailed "*Compte général de l'administration de la justice criminelle en France*."

Mendicity and
Vagrancy.

The following is an outline of the French regulations, as far as they affected Belgium, for the repression of mendicity and vagrancy. A decree of the Convention, 27 Vendémiaire, An ii. (15th Oct. 1793), fixed the settlement, or *domicile de secours*, of every person, 1st, in the place of his birth; 2d, of his residence for six months in any commune in which he should have married, or for one year in any in which he should have been registered as an inhabitant, or for two years in any in which he should have been hired by one or more masters. Every person found begging was to be sent to his place of domicile; if he could not prove any domicile he was

to be imprisoned for a year in the maison de repression of the department, and at the end of his imprisonment, if his domicile were not then ascertained, to be transported to the colonies for not less than eight years. A person found again begging after having been removed to his domicile, was also to be imprisoned for a year: on a repetition of the offence the punishment was to be doubled. In the maison de repression he was to be set at work, and receive monthly one-sixth of the produce of his labour, and at the end of his imprisonment another sixth, the remaining two-thirds belonging to the establishment. On the third offence he also was to be transported. A transport was to work in the colonies for the benefit of the nation, at one-sixth of the average wages of the colony: one-half of that sixth to be paid to him weekly, and the other half on the expiration of his sentence. No person was to be transported except between the ages of 18 years and 60. Those under 18 were to be detained until they arrived at that age, and then transported; those above 60, to be imprisoned for life.

The local authorities were authorized to employ their able-bodied poor on public works, at three-fourths of the average wages of the canton. Every person convicted of having given to a beggar any species of relief whatever was to forfeit the value of two days' wages; to be doubled on the repetition of the offence.

The provisions of this law were, as might have been anticipated, far too severe for execution. After having remained, though inoperative, on the statute book for nearly 15 years, it was replaced by the Imperial decree of the 5th July 1808.

By that decree a *depôt de mendicité* was directed to be established in each department, at the expense partly of the nation and partly of the department. Within 15 days after its establishment, the Prefect of the department was to give public notice of its being opened, and all persons without means of subsistence were bound to proceed to it, and all persons found begging were to be arrested and taken to it.

By a subsequent *arrêté* of the 27th October 1808, it was ordered that all beggars should on their arrest be placed in the first instance in the maison d'arret of the district; and transferred from thence, if guilty of vagrancy, to the maison de detention, or prison; if not vagrants, to the *depôt de mendicité*. In the *depôt* they were to be clothed in the house dress, confined to regular and very early hours, the sexes separated, subject to severe punishments (rising to six months solitary imprisonment (*cachot*) on bread and water) for disobedience or other misconduct, or attempts to escape, deprived of all intercourse, except by open letters, with their relations or friends, and kept to work at wages to be regulated by the Prefect, two-thirds of which were to belong to the establishment, and the remaining third was to be paid to them on their quitting the *depôt*.

The conditions on which a person might obtain his release from a *depôt de mendicité* are not stated.

The provisions of the code pénal appear to leave that question to the discretion of the Executive.

Section 274 of that code enacts that every person found begging in a place containing a public establishment for the prevention of mendicity, shall be imprisoned for from three to six months, and then removed to the *depôt de mendicité*. Under section 275, if there be no such establishment in the place where he is found begging, his imprisonment is to last only from one to three months; if, however, he begs out of the canton in which he is domiciled, it is to last from six months to two years.

After having suffered his punishment, he is to remain (apparently in the *depôt de mendicité*) at the disposition of Government.

Such was the state of the law respecting purely charitable, and what may be called penal, relief at the time of the establishment of the kingdom of the Netherlands. We have stated these provisions at some length, because they form, with little material alteration, the existing law on the subject in France. No change of any importance appears to have been made by the late Government of the Netherlands, or by the present Belgian Government, with respect to the hospices or the bureaux de bienfaisance; but with respect to foundlings, an *arrêté* of the 2d June 1825, declared that the expense of their maintenance ought to be supplied by the hospices, and so far as these were unable to meet it, from the local revenues of the commune or the province in which they had been abandoned: a provision which has been the subject of much complaint, as imposing a heavy and peculiar burthen on the few towns which possess foundling hospitals. And with respect to *monts-de-piété*, an *arrêté* of the 31st October 1826,

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directed the local authorities of towns and communes to prepare regulations for the management of their respective monts-de-piété, their support, and the employment of the profits, subject to certain general rules; among which are,—

1. That the administration shall be gratuitous.
2. That the interest shall not exceed 5 l. per cent. per annum, and that no further charge shall be made on any pretext whatever.
3. That they shall be open every day.
4. That the pledges may be redeemed at any time before their actual sale.
5. That they shall not be sold until the expiration of 14 months from the time of the loan.

Mendicity.

The following are the most material alterations made in the laws respecting mendicity. By a law of the 28th November 1818, the period of residence necessary for acquiring a settlement or domicile de secours was extended to four years: and by a law of the 12th October 1819, the expense of supporting a person confined in a dépôt de mendicité was thrown on the commune in which he had his domicile de secours.

In 1823 the Belgian Société de Bienfaisance was established, on the model of that which existed in Holland, and contracted with the Government to receive in its colonies de repression 1,000 paupers at the annual sum of 35 florins (2 l. 18 s. 4 d.) per head. In consequence of this arrangement, all the regulations which required a beggar to be removed to a dépôt de mendicité were varied by the introduction of the words "or to a mendicity colony;" and by an arrêté of the 12th October 1825, the governors of the different provinces were directed to give notice that all persons in want of employment and subsistence would obtain them in the dépôts de mendicité or the mendicity colonies, and had only to apply to the local authorities in order to be directed to the one or the other; and that consequently no begging at any period of the year, or under any pretext whatever, could in future be tolerated. Persons arrested for begging were allowed on their own request, if their begging were not accompanied by aggravating circumstances, to be conducted to one or the other of these establishments without suffering the previous imprisonment inflicted by the penal code.

By another arrêté of the same date, the local authorities were directed to prepare new codes for the regulation of the different dépôts de mendicité, based on principles of which the following are the most material:

1. That the dépôts should be confined to the reception of those who, from age or infirmity, should be unfit for agricultural labour.
2. That all above the age of six, and under that of 70, and capable of working, should be kept to work, at average wages; that each person should be charged 17 cents (about 3 ½ d.) for his maintenance, being its average cost, and retain the remainder of his earnings; and be allowed nothing beyond strict necessities (mere bread is specified for food), if his earnings were under that sum.

That a portion of each person's surplus earnings should be reserved and paid over to him on leaving the house, and the other portion paid to him from time to time in a local paper money.

3. That cantines should be established in the house, to enable the inmates to spend their surplus earnings.

4. That those who had voluntarily offered themselves for reception should be at liberty to quit the house, after having repaid the expenses of their maintenance there.

5. That those arrested and sent thither as beggars should not be set free until, 1st. they had repaid all expenses; and 2dly, had fitted themselves to earn an independent livelihood, or been demanded by their commune or relatives, and security given for their future conduct.

6. That in each house there should be an ecclesiastic to perform divine service, and give moral and religious instruction frequently in private, and twice a week in public; and that, where the inmates should consist of Protestants and Catholics, there should be both a Catholic and a Protestant ecclesiastic.

7. That in each house there should be a daily school for the young, and a school for the adult, open for four hours on Sundays, and for an hour two evenings of the week. The attendance on these schools to be compulsory.

8. That so far as the confined paupers did not earn their own subsistence, each commune should pay the support of those having in it their domicile de secours, at the above-mentioned rate of 17 cents (3 ½ d.) per day, but be allowed a discount of 2 cents per day (reducing the daily payment to 3 d.) on prompt payment.

A decree of the 9th April 1831, by the Regent, abolished that discount, the sum of

of 3*d.* a day having been found insufficient, except in the *depôt* of Bruges, in which the decree states that it covers every expense.

The existing Government has passed two very important laws, dated the 13th & 29th of August 1833.

The first of these enacts, that until the laws on mendicity shall have been revised, the daily charge for the subsistence of each *detenu* in the *depôt de mendicité*, instead of being fixed at 17 cents, shall be determined annually by the Government. The commune bound to repay the expense is to be assisted, if incapable of meeting it, by the province, the King deciding if the matter is disputed. If payment is not made, a personal remedy is given against the receiver of the commune.

By the second, a *conseil d'inspection des dépôts de mendicité* is to be elected in each province. Each conseil is to propose a scheme,—

1. For dividing the inmates of the *dépôts* into three classes, comprising, 1st, the infirm; 2d, the able-bodied who have voluntarily entered them; 3d, those sentenced to them as beggars or vagrants.

2. For obviating the abuses which might follow from the power given to the indigent of voluntarily entering the *dépôts*.

And as a general rule, a pauper who requests admission without any authority from his commune, may be received; but in that case his commune is to be immediately informed of what has occurred. If it offers to support him at home, he is to be sent back to it: if it refuses, he is to remain in the *depôt* at the expense of the commune: and the communes are to be informed that it depends on themselves to diminish the expense of supporting their poor in the *dépôts*, by the judicious distribution of out-door relief, by the organization of committees for the purpose of watching over the indigent, and inquiring into the causes of their distress; by the erection of asylums for lunatics, the deaf and dumb, the blind and the incurable; and by the establishment of houses of employment (*d'ateliers libres de travail*) in winter, and infant schools. For all which purposes they are recommended to assess themselves. M. Lebeau says in his report, "*Enfin chez nous nul ne peut exiger de secours en vertu d'un droit.*" (p. 594.) But it must be admitted that these provisions, if not constituting a right in the pauper to relief, give at least a right to the managers of the *dépôts* to force the parishes to relieve, either at home or in the *depôt*, any pauper who presents himself: and M. Lebeau himself felt the danger to which the parishes are exposed. In his circular of the 13th September 1833, addressed to the provinces in which *dépôts* are established, he urges the importance of adopting regulations respecting the reception and dismissal of the poor voluntarily presenting themselves, which may preserve parishes from "the indefinite burthen which would follow the too easy admission of applicants." "These establishments," he adds, "must not be considered by the poor as places of gratuitous entertainment, (*des hôtelleries gratuites*). One of the best methods of preventing this will be, the strict execution of the law which prescribes work to all those who are not physically incapable of it; and for those who are incapable, the ordinary hospices and hospitals are the proper receptacles. It is true that in some *dépôts* work has been discontinued, because the results did not repay the expenditure; but this consideration ought not to prevail over the moral advantages which follow its exaction. Labour is the essential condition which must be imposed on the pauper; and if it require the sacrifice of some expenditure, that sacrifice must be made."

In a subsequent circular, dated the 4th July 1834, and addressed to the governors of the different provinces, M. Lebeau states, that one of the causes assigned for the prevalence of mendicity, is the facility with which persons obtain release from the *dépôts*. "I invite you, M. le Gouverneur," says the Minister, "when a pauper requests his release, to consider his previous history, to ascertain whether he has the means of subsistence, or the local authorities have engaged to provide for him; and to treat with great suspicion the solicitations of parishes, as they are always interested in obtaining the release of the paupers for whose maintenance they pay."

With respect to the general working of these institutions we have not much information. It appears from the report of M. Lebeau that there are in Belgium six *dépôts de mendicité*; one at Hoogstraten for the province of Antwerp, at Cambre for Brabant, at Bruges for the two Flanders, at Mons for Hainault, at Namur for Namur and Luxembourg, and at Reckheim for Limbourg and Liege; that the hospices for the old and impotent, and the hospitals for the sick, are very

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numerous, and that each commune possesses its bureau de bienfaisance for the distribution of out-door relief. In 1832 the annual income of the different bureaux de bienfaisance was estimated at 5,308,114 francs (equal to about 212,325 *l.* sterling), and that of the hospices at 4,145,876 francs (equal to about 165,835 *l.* sterling), altogether about 378,160 *l.* But the report contains no data from which the whole expenditure in public relief, or the whole number of persons relieved, or the general progress or diminution of pauperism, can be collected.

An important paper, however, is contained in the supplement to M. Lebeau's report, stating the number of foundlings, deserted children and orphans, in the nine provinces constituting the kingdom of Belgium, in the years 1832 and 1833; of which we subjoin a copy, having added to it the population of the different provinces, as given in the official statement of 1830.

YEAR 1832.

Population.	PROVINCES.	Nombre moyen des Enfans		NOMBRE TOTAL.	TOTAL des Frais qu'ils occasionnent.	Répartition de ces Frais entre			OBSERVATIONS.
		Trouvés ou Exposés dont les Parens sont inconnus.	Abandonnés et Orphelins délaissés, nés de Père ou de Mère connus.			Les Hospices, Bureaux de Bienfaisance ou Fonda- tions.	Les Villes ou Com- munes.	La Province.	
354,974	Anvers - - -	886	566	1,452	71,300	- -	31,300	40,000	(a)
556,146	Brabant - - -	2,244	286	2,530	197,550	- -	147,050	50,500	(b)
601,678	Flandre Occidentale	35	461	496	34,123	15,600	18,523	-	(c)
733,938	Flandre Orientale -	688	219	907	64,479	- -	-	64,479	(d)
604,957	Hainaut - - -	1,870	333	2,203	172,792	- -	25,072	147,720	(e)
369,937	Liège - - -	41	153	194	15,550	9,665	4,694	1,191	(f)
337,703	Limbourg - - -	11	123	134	12,056	10,658	1,398	-	
292,151	Luxembourg - - -	13	12	25	1,841	232	1,609	-	(g)
212,725	Namur - - -	653	9	662	44,533	- -	25,533	19,000	
4,064,209	- - TOTAL - -	6,441	2,162	8,603	614,224	36,155	255,179	322,890	

- (a) Un tour à Anvers et à Malines.
 (b) Un tour à Bruxelles et à Louvain.
 (c) N'y existe point de tour.
 (d) Un tour à Gand.

- (e) Il y a un tour à Mons et à Tournay.
 (f) N'y existe point de tour.
 (g) Un seul hospice et point de tour.

N.B. Il n'existe donc des tours qu'à Anvers, Malines, Bruxelles, Louvain, Gand, Mons et Tournay; sept en tout.

YEAR 1833.

PROVINCES.	Nombre des Enfans		Total.	Dépenses pour les Enfans		TOTAL des DEPENSES.	
	Trouvés.	Aban- donnés.		Trouvés.	Abandonnés.		
Anvers - - -	886	578	1,464	37,107 65	26,927 61	64,035	26
Brabant - - -	2,648	318	2,966	182,321 69	23,081 84	205,403	53
Fl. Occidentale - -	39	460	499	3,258 67	31,841 89	35,100	56
Fl. Orientale - -	752	242	994	49,874 81	14,902 67	64,717	48
Hainaut - - -	1,969	382	2,351	123,368 71	23,533 18	146,901	89
Liège - - -	38	162	200	2,899 -	12,857 04	15,756	04
Limbourg - - -	14	157	171	913 96	11,054 44	12,968	40
Luxembourg - - -	7	31	38	880 94	3,212 80	4,093	74
Namur - - -	615	7	622	41,082 -	467 60	41,549	60
	6,968	2,337	9,305	442,647 43	147,879 07	590,526	60

It appears from this statement that in the provinces of Antwerp, Brabant and Hainault, containing a population of 1,514,072 persons, and possessing each two public receptacles for foundlings, the number of foundlings in 1833 was 5,404, or 1 in 278: that in Flandre Orientale and Namur, containing a population of 946,663, and possessing each a single public receptacle, the number of foundlings was 1,367,

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or 1 in 699; and that in Flandre Occidentale, Liege, Limbourg and Luxembourg, containing a population of 1,601,469, but having no such establishment, the number of foundlings was 98, or less than 1 in 16,000. Nor does this difference arise from an increase of the number of deserted children in those provinces in which foundling hospitals do not exist: on the contrary, the numbers in the second column, comprising both orphans and deserted children, in the four provinces in which no foundling hospitals exist, amount to 910, out of a population of 1,601,469, being 1 in 1,649, whereas those in Antwerp, Brabant and Hainault amount to 1,356, out of a population of 1,514,077, or 1 in 1,116; and when it is recollected that as the proportion of orphans can scarcely differ in the different provinces, and that in the second column they are mixed with the deserted children, the superiority of the four former provinces over the three latter will be found to be really much greater than it appears.

Nor does the difference arise from the prevalence of infanticide.

It appears from the *statistique des tribunaux de la Belgique*, that in the years 1826, 1827, 1828 and 1829, there were in the provinces of Antwerp, Brabant, Flandre Orientale, Hainault and Namur, containing 2,450,740 inhabitants, and possessing foundling establishments, 13 convictions for infanticide; and in Flandre Occidentale, Liege, Limbourg and Luxembourg, containing 1,601,469 inhabitants, and no such establishments, only nine convictions, being a proportion slightly inferior. So far, therefore, from foundling hospitals having had a tendency to prevent desertion of children or infanticide, it appears that their tendency is decidedly to promote the former, without preventing in any degree the latter. The real infanticides, strange as it may sound, are the founders and supporters of foundling hospitals. The average mortality in Europe of children during the first year does not exceed one in five, or 20 per cent. In England and Holland it is less: in Belgium it is $22\frac{49}{100}$ per cent. But in the foundling hospitals of Belgium (and their mortality is below the average of such establishments), it is 45 per cent*.

In the foundling hospital in Brussels it is now 66 per cent., having been from 1812 to 1817, 79 per cent.

Nor is the fate of those who escape from these receptacles much preferable to that of those who perish there. M. Ducpétiaux, the inspector of prisons, states that, small as is their number relative to the rest of the population, they form a considerable proportion of the inmates of gaols and prisons, and a still larger proportion of the prostitutes†.

Such having been the legislation, and such being its results, an attempt towards its improvement was made by a law, dated the 30th July 1834. That law enacts, that from the 1st of January 1835, the maintenance of foundlings and of deserted children whose place of settlement is not known shall be supplied one half by the communes in which they shall have been exposed or deserted, with the assistance of their bureaux de bienfaisance, and the other half by the province of which those communes form a part, and that an annual grant shall be made by the State in aid of this expenditure; and that the expense of maintaining deserted children whose place of settlement is known shall be supported by the hospices and bureaux de bienfaisance of their place of settlement, with the assistance of the commune.

The object of this law is stated in a circular from the Minister of Justice, dated the 23d January 1834.

He directs, in the first place, the local authorities to provide for the subsistence of the foundlings with whom they may be charged, without reference to the proposed annual grant, since neither the amount of that grant nor the mode of its distribution is laid down by the law; and urges them to prevent the increase of their own burthens by endeavouring to prevent the abandonment of children born within their jurisdictions, and the exposure within their jurisdictions of children born elsewhere; and for that purpose to procure the punishment by law of those convicted of having exposed infants or made a custom of taking them to hospitals. He admits, however, that the necessary investigations are matters of great delicacy; and he might have added that the punishment by law to which he refers does not exist, unless punishment by law means the arbitrary interference of the police, so much tolerated in continental Europe.

“These,

* Quetelet *Recherches sur la Population*, &c. p. 38.

† *Des Modifications*, &c. de la *Loi sur les Enfants Trouvés*, p. 13.

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“These,” he adds, “are the wishes of the Government and of the Chambers; and this declaration will enable you to understand the motives of the silent repeal of the law, directing the establishment of tours for the reception of foundlings. The Legislature could not at the same time prescribe measures intended to diminish the exposure of children, and an institution by which it is favoured and facilitated. It did not venture to pronounce the suppression of the existing tours; but the silence of the law on this subject is the expression of its earnest desire that this institution should be discontinued: the mode of discontinuing it is left to the local authorities. The Government will require from you an annual report on these subjects, before it decides on the distribution of the annual grant; and the favour shown to each district may depend on its endeavours to comply with these instructions.”

This circular is a curious instance of an attempt to undermine an institution which the Government and the Legislature disapprove, but which they do not venture directly to grapple with. All that the Legislature ventures directly to do is to express its earnest desire (desire formel), *by the silence of the law*. The Government however goes further, and holds out hints, though it does not venture to hint very clearly, that the fewer the foundlings in any district, the larger will be the share of that district in the government grant. Under the influence of these double motives we may expect the tours soon to be closed.

Monts-de-Piété.

We have also inserted (p. 607) a paper respecting the operations of the monts-de-piété, of which the following is the result:

Average of Nine Years from 1822 to 1830 inclusive.		1831.		1832.	
Pledges.	Amount.	Pledges.	Amount.	Pledges.	Amount.
1,271,122	Francs. 3,778,286 or £. 151,131	1,185,834	Francs. 3,268,104 or £. 130,124	1,129,373	Francs. 3,939,219 or £. 157,548

The number of pledges redeemed is stated only for 1832, in which year 1,124,115 pledges, on which 3,162,399 francs, or 126,495 *l.* sterling, had been lent, were redeemed. It is to be observed that the pledges are for small sums, amounting on an average to about three francs, or less than half-a-crown per pledge; and that the amount of the redemption in 1832 nearly corresponds with the amount lent in 1831. On the whole, considering the low rate of interest exacted by the Belgian monts-de-piété, as compared with that taken by our pawnbrokers, the small aggregate amount of deposits, being about 150,000 *l.* for four millions of people, is a strong indication of the generally provident habits of the labouring population.

As further illustrations of the general working of the Belgian system, we extract the following particulars from the reports from Antwerp and Ostend. (pp. 627, 628, 629, 630. 634. 636, 637 & 639.)

ANTWERP.

Vagrants.

ANTWERP.
Population, 77,199.

Indigent travellers, foreigners or denizens, who pass through Antwerp, are received there at an establishment called St. Julien's Hospital, where they are lodged and boarded for three nights at the expense of the establishment, which provides their wants for the moment.

The foundation of this hospital, which yearly receives about 1,000 individuals, dates from the beginning of the 14th century. It subsists by itself, under the direction of a private charitable administration, by means of some fixed revenues, and also by the liberal donations of philanthropic persons.

The same poor travellers, when Belgians, receive at Antwerp an indemnity of 15 centimes, or 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.* sterling, per league per head for travelling expenses to the first town in the neighbourhood, where this relief is continued to them. These travelling expenses are at the charge of the town, and paid out of the municipal funds, in virtue of a Royal Act of the 10th May 1815.

Destitute Able-bodied.

Necessitous individuals of the labouring and indigent class, who do not attempt to go a begging, and who, for want of work, are without means of providing for the necessities of

of life, and also the members of their families, are provided for at their own dwellings, by the care of the bureau de bienfaisance, by the means or revenues of this establishment, and the subsidies which the town grants it yearly out of the municipal funds, in order to supply what may be necessary to continue its service. The amount of this grant varies annually, according to the real wants of the establishment, by reason of the circumstances that either augment or reduce its expenses.

The succours distributed by this establishment consist in money, bread, potatoes, fuel and clothing, &c.

Besides, there exists at Antwerp, under the direction of the same bureau de bienfaisance, a workhouse, where carpets of cow-hair and other articles are made. This workhouse is established especially to procure work to the indigent and working class who are without employ. The population of this establishment varies according to the different seasons and other circumstances. It is most frequented during the winter, when the navigation is interrupted, and the stagnation of several branches of industry cause the number of indigent to augment. Those who come to work in this establishment remain there the whole day, and receive their meals, besides a salary in cash, proportioned to the work they are employed at.

If, through the effects of a hard winter, the wants of the labouring and indigent class are excessive, there are formed at Antwerp private societies for relief, which, by means of donations, collections and voluntary subscriptions, efficaciously assist the unfortunate by distributions of money, food, fuel, &c.

The depôt of mendicity in the province of Antwerp is situated at Hoogstraeten, in an ancient manor bought for that purpose by the former department administration. It is a spacious establishment of agriculture, possessing a great number of acres of arable, pasture and wood land, and a still greater number of heath, (*bruyère*).

Those individuals who are destitute, and who desire to be admitted into this establishment, are received as free men; the vagrants are brought there by force. Both are employed there at sundry works of agriculture, of manufacture, or in the household establishment, according to their physical strength. The impotent and aged alone are kept without working in a separate place.

For several years the expense for the maintenance of individuals of the depôt at Hoogstraeten has not amounted to more than 32 centimes per individual, (or 3*d.* sterling.)

On the 1st January 1834 the number of persons entertained at the provincial depôt, on account of the city of Antwerp, was 153. The population of this establishment generally amounts to 250 or 300 individuals, all belonging to the province.

The children of the working class or indigent are received, without any distinction, in the public schools established gratis. Those children abandoned to the public charity, or of whom the parents are entirely unable to bring them up, and who request to be relieved of them from inability to maintain them, are sent to an hospital established for that purpose, or else placed in the country under the direction of the civil hospital, or the bureau de bienfaisance.

Impotent through Age.

There are at Antwerp 26 private hospitals, founded and established for many centuries by charitable persons in favour of a stated number of aged persons, of both sexes, and of decent and respectable families; but in preference for the members of the founders' family, and which persons, without being entirely destitute, have, notwithstanding, no sufficient means to provide for their subsistence. Those persons inhabit a small house in the hospital, where they keep their own household separately, and subsist by what they can earn personally by any handwork, and by the weekly succour which they receive from the revenue of the foundation. These men and women reside in separate hospitals.

Destitute persons, of both sexes, who are impotent through age, but have not claims to be admitted into the before-mentioned private hospital, are maintained by the administrations of the poor, the sick, incurable and impotents, in the civil hospital, and the others in the country, where they are boarded with the farmers at the expenses of the public establishment of charity; that is to say, of the administration of the civil hospitals and bureau de bienfaisance. Besides, there is at Antwerp a special establishment as a refuge to the impotent through age, of decent and respectable families, who are without means of procuring a livelihood.

Sick.

In Belgium every town has its civil hospital for the maintenance of destitute sick. That of Antwerp is open to all the unfortunate, without distinction, whenever their social position does not afford them the means of being attended by a physician at their dwellings, who are deemed proper objects for admission.

Are also admitted, in a private room in this hospital, (upon payment of a small daily retribution), all individuals who, although not entirely destitute, prefer to be treated in the hospital rather than at their own houses; such as men and female servants, who are commonly sent there by the persons who have them in their employ.

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Antwerp.

Indigent persons, born at Antwerp, are treated at the hospital at the expense of the establishment. Those who are not of the town, but are of the country, are treated there at the expense of the commune where they have their domicile de secours.

These expenses are fixed at the rate of 62 cents, or 1 franc 31 centimes (1 s. 0 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. sterling) per diem, whatever may be the sickness. The expenses, for the treatment of those who have no domicile de secours, are repaid by government out of the treasury funds. The town provides for the insufficiency of the private revenue of this establishment, in the same manner as it does for the bureau de bienfaisance, by means of "subsidies in aid," paid out of the municipal funds. This amount of "subsidies" varies annually according to the wants of the administration of the hospital.

Persons of the indigent and necessitous class, whose sickness or complaint is not severe enough to require their entering the hospital, receive medical and surgical relief at their own homes. To that effect, there are several physicians and surgeons appointed and attached to the bureau de bienfaisance, who give their assistance to the sick who require it, every one in the district or section for which he is appointed. These physicians and surgeons, who receive a fixed salary from the administration of the poor, also receive at their domicile, at fixed hours of the day, indigent persons who want to consult them on the state of their health; and it is on a ticket delivered by them, that such sick persons are received at the civil hospital. The bureau de bienfaisance has a special pharmacy, situated in the centre of the town, where medicine is given gratis to the indigent, on a prescription signed by a physician of the poor establishment.

The indigent persons relieved by the bureau de bienfaisance receive only the strict necessities of life to feed and support their families, and no more, so that they have nothing to satisfy their private wants or fancies, nor can they procure themselves any luxuries or other comforts; and they always lead a life, that, although protected against the most pressing wants, is notwithstanding a very miserable one. It is thus the interest of those individuals that are able to work (and this they perfectly comprehend) to seek to maintain themselves. It is only those persons who are totally depraved, and who give themselves entirely up to drunkenness and every other excess, who feel assured that, after having wasted and spent the little they possess, and abandoned the work that maintained them, there always remains to them the resource of the distributions made by the administration of the poor.

In Antwerp, the situation of a workman, whatever may be the class he belongs to, and who maintains himself solely by his work, is by all means preferable and better than that of a person who only subsists by relief or public charity. The existence of those who reside in the dépôts of mendicity, excepting only the loss of their liberty, is even in many respects preferable to the situation of the latter, who are maintained by general charity.

OSTEND.

Destitute Able-bodied.

Ostend,
Population, 11,328.

The only legal mode of lodging the destitute able-bodied is to send them to the dépôt of mendicity, where they are treated as paupers. There existed formerly agricultural colonies on the same principles as those in Holland, to which the parishes could send their able-bodied, destitute and their families; it was found in vain to attempt making cultivators or proprietors of them.

The destitute able-bodied, but quite indigent, of the two Flanders, and the vagrants who have been tried as such, compose altogether a population of about 300 persons (the destitute able-bodied of Ghent excepted.) For each of these 300 poor, his parish pays a contribution of 32 centimes (3d.) per day (men and women equally.) The dépôt for both the Flanders established at Bruges, by the mildness of its administration, has gradually overcome the dread which it inspired at its origin. The directors have banished all rigour, not even enforcing work on the destitute; but as they are paid according to their industry, that inducement to work is found sufficient. This establishment is remarkably prosperous, having already saved fr. 80,000 (3,200 l.), all expenses paid. It is not found necessary to have any armed force in the neighbourhood to keep this large number of destitute in order, this being attained by gentleness and good usage. On any of the poor leaving the establishment, improved in their moral conduct, they receive a part of their own earnings, which enables them to seek some employment.

Besides this dépôt, there is at Ghent a workhouse where employment is given to the destitute, but without their being maintained. The number of labourers in this establishment, which was erected by voluntary subscription, has been as many as 1,900 in time of great distress.

Every church has its masters of the table of the poor, or distributors of assistance. Such funds proceed from collections made in the church, voluntary alms, and assignments from the "bureau de bienfaisance." Weekly distributions of bread or fuel, sometimes money or clothing, are made; but this assistance is generally discontinued in the summer months, on account of the abundance of work during that season. In the towns the relief consists principally in money (about 32 centimes per man and per day, or 3d. sterling.) In the country the rule is not to give money, but assistance in kind.

Generally their children may be educated gratuitously; but they take little advantage of it, as they prefer employing them in gathering up firewood, &c.; and, generally, there is felt a want of coercive measures to force the parents to send their children to school, and to allow them to be put out as apprentices.

Impotent through Age.

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Ostend.

There are almshouses throughout the kingdom, where the impotent through age are maintained and taken care of. These institutions are so far profitable to the parishes, as that it would cost them more money to assist these persons separately. Some have been endowed by deeds of gift, others are supported by the inhabitants of the towns. The number of them is increasing in the country, and most towns are well provided in that respect.

The assistance afforded to those relieved at home is in clothing, bread, fuel twice a week, and 75 centimes in money (7*d.*) every Sunday.

There exists between the self-supporting labourers and the persons subsisting exclusively on alms or public charity, a very numerous intermediate class, consisting of those who live partly on relief and partly on labour, so that the two extremities only of the scale can be compared. An able-bodied but not labouring man receives only about the half what the last of those who do labour and are not assisted would earn; the legal relief being 32 centimes (3*d.*), and the lowest day's work more than 64 centimes (6*d.*) As to liberty, nobody is forced to work, not even at the *depôt* of mendicity; they are only not allowed to go out at will. Food is almost equally distributed, and many destitute poor prefer the *depôt* to free labour, when they are not sure of being employed every day; but in no other instance.

The grievances which result from this system arise from the neglect, the ignorance or the corruption of the local authorities, and although numerous, they are not very striking.

2dly. Grievances arise from the want of proper conditions with which lands or houses are bequeathed to the *bureaux de bienfaisance*. Wherever a revenue is bequeathed it is shared equally by the poor, even when they may be beyond need; for instance, a beggar will receive 1 fr. 50 c. (1*s.* 2*d.*) per day for her maintenance, which would not have cost more than the fifth part of that sum, if paid by the *depôt* of mendicity. To obviate this abuse, and to increase the power of useful charity, the revenue of the *bureau de bienfaisance* of each parish should be added to the sum principal of the province when the revenue of the *bureau* exceeds the wants of its locality. 3dly. Grievances arise from the liberty of parents to neglect their children and allowing them to beg alms for their own benefit. This last appears to be the root of the evil, and the great cause of the augmentation of pauperism in these towns.

GAESBECK. (page 1.)

Gaesbeck.

But the most interesting portion of the Belgian details is Count Arrivabene's account of Gaesbeck, a small village about nine miles from Brussels, containing about 857 acres, inhabited by 364 persons, forming 60 families, or separate menages; constituted of 13 comparatively large farmers, occupying each from 30 to 150 acres, 18 small proprietors or small farmers, 21 day labourers, and 8 artizans. The commune possesses a property producing an annual revenue of 556 francs, or nearly 23*l.* sterling, managed by its *bureau de bienfaisance*, of which the *curé* is the acting member. It expended in the year 1832, on the relief of the poor, (including the salary of the schoolmaster and clothing for the poor children who were to be confirmed), 625 francs, or about 25*l.* 2*s.*, being rather less than 1*s.* 4½*d.* per head. How the extra 2*l.* 2*s.* was obtained is not mentioned; but as the *bureau* is stated to have always nearly a year's revenue in hand, it was probably taken from the receipts of a previous year. The heaviest item of expense is the support of one old man, at the annual expense of 72 francs, (rather less than 3*l.*) Ten other individuals or heads of families appear to have received nearly regular relief, amounting in general to about 6*d.* a week; and four others, to have been assisted at times irregularly; the largest sum being 1*l.*, given to L. Maonens, "pour malheur." There has been only one illegitimate birth during the last five years. The average age of marriage is 27 for men, and 26 for women; the average number of births to a marriage, 3½. As these averages are taken for a period of 23 years, ending in 1832, during which the population has not increased, they may be relied on. Of the whole 60 families, only 11 are without land; all the others either possess some, or hire some from the proprietor. The quantity generally occupied by a day labourer is a *bonnier*, or about 2½ acres, for which he pays a rent of from 60 to 80 francs. With this land the labourers keep in general a cow, a pig, and poultry. To be without land is considered the extreme of poverty. The number of labourers is precisely equal to the demand for their services. Daily wages are 6*d.*, with some advantages equal to about 1*d.* more; and, as might be expected under a natural system, with no preference of the married to the unmarried. Labourers are generally hired by the year, and remain long in the same service. Crime is exceedingly rare: for the last 12 years no one has been committed to prison. Offences against the game laws are unknown. There are three houses of entertainment in the village, but they are not frequented by the labourers. "Are the labourers discontented; do they look on the farmers with envy?" asked the Count of his informant. "I do not believe,"

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Gaesbeck.

believe," was the answer, "that the labourers envy the farmers. I believe that the relation between the farmers and labourers is very friendly; that the labourers are perfectly contented in their situation, and feel regard and attachment for their employers." (p. 14.)

What a contrast is exhibited by this picture of moral, contented, and (if the term is permissible) prosperous poverty, supported by the frugality and providence of the labourers themselves, and that of the population of a pauperized English village, better fed indeed, better paid, better clothed, and better lodged, and, above all, receiving 10, or perhaps 20 times the amount of parochial alms, but depraved by profligacy, soured by discontent, their numbers swelled by head-money and preference of the married to double the demand for their labour, their frugality and providence punished by the refusal of employment, and their industry ruined by the scale; looking with envy and dislike on their masters, and with hatred on the dispensers of relief!

And it is to be observed, that the independence of the Belgian peasantry does not arise from any unwillingness to accept of relief. Out of the 60 families forming the population of the village, 19 appear to have received it in 1832; and a fact is related by Count Arrivabene, which shows that indiscriminate alms are as much coveted there as with us. In 1830 (the year of the revolution), many persons applied for charity at the gate of the castle of Gaesbeck, the residence of Marquis Arconati, and something was given to each. The next year the applications were renewed: the sum given to each applicant was fixed at 1 *d.*, and a single day in the week was fixed for their distribution. On the first of these days there were 50 applicants; the second, 60. The sum given was reduced to $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.* to a man, and a farthing to a child; but towards the end of the season the weekly assemblage had risen to 300 and 400 persons; they came from 10 and 12 miles distance, and it became necessary to abolish the allowance, trifling as the amount appears.

Poor Colonies.

The last portion of the Belgian institutions requiring notice are the poor colonies. We have already stated, that in 1823 the Belgian Société de Bienfaisance was established on the model and for the purposes of that already existing in Holland. In the beginning of that year the society purchased 522 *bonniers* (rather less than 1,300 statute acres), at Wortel, for the establishment of two colonies, called free, and divided them into 125 farms, of $3\frac{1}{2}$ *bonniers* (about $7\frac{1}{2}$ statute acres) each; 70 in the colony No. 1, and 55 in the colony No. 2. In 1823 they purchased 516 *bonniers* (about 1,280 acres), at Mexplus and Ryckevorsel, for the establishment of a mendicity colony. The first estate cost 623 *l.*, the second 554 *l.*, or less than 10 *s.* an acre, from which the quality of the land may be inferred.

Families placed in the free colonies were provided each with a house, barn and stable, a couple of cows, sometimes sheep, furniture, clothes and other stock, of the estimated value, including the land, of 1,600 florins, (133 *l.* 6 *s.* 8 *d.* sterling), which was charged against them as a debt to the society. They were bound to work at wages fixed by the society, to wear the uniform, and conform to the rules of the colony, and not to quit its precincts without leave. A portion of their wages was retained to repay the original advance made by the society; a further portion to pay for the necessaries furnished to them from time to time, and the food for their cattle; and a portion paid to them in a base money of the colony, to be expended in shops established by the society within its limits.

At first each family of colonists worked on its own farm, and managed its own cattle, but it was found that the land was uncultivated, and the cattle died for want of attention or food; and in 1828 the society took back the cattle, and employed all the colonists indiscriminately in the general cultivation of the land of the colony. "From this time," says M. Ducpétiaux, (p. 624), "the situation of the colonist who is called free, but is in fact bound to the society by restrictions which take from him almost the whole of his liberty for the present, and deprive him of all hope of future enfranchisement, has resembled that of the serfs of the middle ages or of Russia. It is worse than that of the Irish cottiers, who, if they are fed like him on potatoes and coarse bread, have at least freedom of action and the power of changing their residence."

Those colonists who had obtained a gold or silver medal, as a testimony that they could support themselves out of the produce of their own farms, were excepted from this arrangement, and allowed to retain the management of their farms, paying a rent to the society: but at the date of M. Ducpétiaux's communication, (10th December 1832), the greater part even of them had been

forced to renounce this advantage, and to fall back into the situation of ordinary colonists. Four families were all that then remained in this state of comparative emancipation.

The inhabitants of the mendicity colony were from the first subjected to the regulations ultimately imposed on the free colonists, with the additional restriction of being required to live in common on rations afforded by the society; the only respect in which, according to M. Ducpétiaux, they now differ from the free colonists.

Count Arrivabene visited these colonies in 1829, and then predicted their failure. The three years which elapsed between his visit and the report of M. Ducpétiaux, were sufficient to prove the accuracy of this prophecy.

It appears from the statement of M. Ducpétiaux (p. 621), that on the 1st of July 1832, the debts due from the society amounted to 776,021 florins (about 64,661 *l.* sterling); the whole value of its property, to 536,250 florins (about 44,698 *l.* sterling); leaving a deficit of 239,771 florins, or nearly 20,000 *l.* sterling. And this deficit was likely to increase every year; the expenses, as they had done from the beginning, greatly exceeding the receipts, a fact which is shown by the following table :

	Free Colonists.	Beggars.	Expenditure.	Receipts.
1822 - - -	127	- -	38,899 50	—
1823 - - -	406	- -	93,532 07	—
1824 - - -	536	- -	106,102 72	12,339 31
1825 - - -	579	490*	102,983 73	25,740 74
1826 - - -	563	846	163,933 45	56,476 88
1827 - - -	532	899	168,754 61	50,677 38
1828 - - -	550	774	144,645 28	54,994 62
1829 - - -	565	703	174,611 44	98,523 57
1830 - - -	546	598	127,358 72	67,718 72
1831 - - -	517	465	135,405 81†	82,578 81‡

* During the four last months.

† These sums do not include many of the expenses of administration. They consist simply of the sums remitted to the director for current expenses.

‡ These sums include not only every species of net profit, but in fact the value of the gross produce.

M. Ducpétiaux's statement may be compared with that of Captain Brandreth, who visited the colonies at about the same period. (pp. 19, 20.)

Among the colonists there were a few whose previous habits and natural dispositions disposed them to avail themselves, to the best of their ability, of the benevolent provisions thus offered for their relief, and who had worked industriously, and conducted themselves well during their residence in the colony. Their land was cultivated to the extent of their means; and their dwelling-houses had assumed an appearance of greater comfort, order and civilization than the rest. But these were too few in number, and the result too trifling to offer the stimulus of emulation to others.

Those farms that I examined, with the above exceptions, were not encouraging examples; there were few evidences of thrift and providence, the interior of the dwellings being, in point of comfort, little, if at all removed from the humblest cottage of the most straitened condition of labourers in this country.

A clause in the regulations allows certain of the colonists, whose good conduct and industry have obtained them the privilege, to barter with the neighbouring towns for any article they may want.

The nearest towns to the establishment, of any note, are Hoogstraten and Tournhout; but on inquiry I could not find that any intercourse was maintained with them; and the country round offered no evidences of the existence of a thriving community in its centre, exercising an influence on its traffic or occupations. In the winter, I should think the roads to the colonies scarcely practicable for any description of carriages.

From what I saw of the social condition of the colonists, I am disposed to insist much on the inexpediency of assembling, in an isolated position especially, a large community of paupers for this experiment.

Admitting the physical difficulties to have been much less than they are, and the prospect of pecuniary advantage much greater and more certain, the moral objections to the system would outweigh them. Without the example of the better conditions of society, there can be no hope of such a community gradually acquiring those qualities that would fit the members of it for a better condition. One or two families established in the neighbourhood of an orderly and industrious community, would find the stimulus of shame as well as emulation acting on their moral qualities and exertions; but in the present

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Poor Colonies.

case, where all are in a condition of equal debasement, both of those powerful stimuli are wanting. The reports of the progress of the Dutch free colonies up to the year 1828, are certainly encouraging; and as the same system has been adopted in the free colonies of Belgium as in Holland, and the experiment in both cases tried on similar soils, they might lead to the inference that some peculiar cause has operated in favour of the Dutch colonies, or against those of Belgium. Not having had an opportunity of visiting the Dutch colonies, I cannot offer an opinion on the subject; but reasoning from what I personally witnessed, I should be disposed to think, that either some greater encouragement has been granted in Holland, or some improvement of the system adopted; or that the habits, dispositions and character of the Dutch fit them better for this experiment.

The same authorities that I have quoted in the case of these colonies, speak favourably also of the Belgian colonies up to the same period; and on the part of the latter experiment it may be asserted, that the unsettled state of the country since that period ought very much to qualify any condemnation of its principle. But notwithstanding this disadvantage (which is much less, I fear, than has been insisted on) there would still have remained evidences of the probable success of the experiment. Those evidences were not satisfactory to my mind; and I may further observe, that while the people in general recommended the colonies to foreigners as especially worthy of their notice, I do not remember meeting with one individual who could point out any specific results, and few who would distinctly assert that there was any increasing and permanent benefit to the community from them.

It is probable that unless some great change is made in the present system, the colonies will be ultimately abandoned, or merge into the establishments for compulsory labour; in other words, the society will become the farmers, and the present colonists merely agricultural labourers, differing only from the ordinary labourer, inasmuch as they will work under the penalty of being treated as vagabonds in case of contumacy.

The observations I have hitherto made apply only to the free colonies. In the mendicity, or compulsory colonies, the poor are assembled in large establishments, and cultivate the ground, either by task or day-labour, and attend the cattle, &c. under the direction of certain officers; it is, in fact, a species of agricultural workhouse.

The following is a Return of the compulsory establishment at Merxplas (p. 20.)

—	1826.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.
Present on the 1st January - - -	604	919	816	722	658	519
Admitted during the year	422	247	172	147	97	5
Brought back from desertion - - -	6	25	12	23	27	18
Born - - -	5	3	3	3	1	-
	1,037	1,194	1,003	895	783	542
Enlarged - - -	7	159	135	116	82	18
Deserted - - -	14	42	35	37	65	66
Died - - -	91	166	104	37	81	23
Entered the military service as volunteers	-	-	2	39	28	-
Entered the militia -	4	9	4	8	4	3
Brought before justice	2	2	1	3	8	-
	118	378	281	240	268	110
Total, 31st Dec. - -	919	816	722	655	515	432

The number of deaths is very striking. It amounts to 502 in six years, or $83\frac{1}{3}$ per year, the average population during that time having consisted of 708 persons; so that the average annual mortality was nearly 12 per cent. The proportion of desertions appears also to have progressively increased, until in the last year 66 deserted out of 542.

On the whole the Belgian poor colonies appear to be valuable only as a warning.

FRANCE.

FRANCE.

The information contained in this Appendix respecting the poor laws of France, and their administration, consists of a paper by M. Frederic de Chateaufieux, on the comparative state of the poor in France and England (p. 21); a report by Mr. Majendie, from Normandy (p. 34); and reports by his Majesty's Consuls from Havre (p. 179), Brest (p. 724), Nantes (p. 171), Bourdeaux (p. 229), Bayonne (p. 260), and Marseilles (p. 185).

We have already stated (pp. 49-50-51) the general outline of the French establishments for the relief of the poor, consisting of hospices for the impotent, hospitals for the sick, dépôts de mendicité for vagrants and beggars, (constituting the in-doors' relief), and bureaux de bienfaisance for the secours à domicile, or out-doors'

out-doors' relief. But this comprehensive and discriminative system of public relief appears to have been carried into effect in France with a far less approach to completeness than in Belgium. The number of hospices and hospitals is indeed large in the towns, and not inconsiderable in the country ; but of the dépôts de mendicité, of which the decree of 1808 ordered the establishment, very few were in fact organized, and of those the greater part have since been suppressed ; and the bureaux de bienfaisance are almost confined to the towns. As more than three-fourths of the population of France is agricultural, only a small portion of that population therefore is capable of participating in public or organized relief. M. de Chateaueux estimates that portion, or, in other words, the population of the towns possessing institutions for the relief of the poor, at 3,500,000 persons, and the value of the public relief annually afforded at 1,800,000 *l.* sterling, (p. 25.) If this approximation can be relied on, the expenditure per head in that portion of the French population nearly equals the expenditure per head in England.

The following are the most material portions of the consular reports :—

HAVRE.

The provisions for the relief of the poor in Havre may be collected from the following statement of the principal regulations of the hospitals, the bureau de bienfaisance, and the depot de mendicité for the department, which is situated in Rouen. (pp. 182, 183, 184, 185, 186.)

Hospital Regulations at Havre.

Aged persons of 60, without distinction of sex, are admitted into the hospital upon a certificate of indigence delivered by the mayor of their district, and a ticket of admission signed by one of the directors of the establishment.

The sick are admitted if they can produce a certificate of indigence from the mayor or curate of their parish, and every care is taken of them at the expense of the establishment.

Orphans, foundlings, or deserted children are admitted, provided they are under 12 years ; they are then engaged as servants or apprentices ; but should they get out of employment from no fault of their own, they are at liberty to return until the age of 21 years.

Regulations of the Establishment of the Bureau de Bienfaisance, of Havre.

1. None are admitted but those whose poverty is well known, and who have lived 12 months in the town. The number of persons to be relieved is fixed by the bureau, whose names must be entered in a register, stating their age, date of application, place of residence, number and age of their children.

2. There is a second register for such poor who, having resided one year in Havre, shall apply after the closing of the register mentioned in the above article. This inscription is made in order of their dates, and the paupers carried upon it will only be entitled to relief in turn, and as vacancies occur in the first list, by departures, deaths or discharge.

3. No poor of either sex can receive relief more than 15 years old, and under 50. This exclusion is not applicable to widows with young children, or with four children under 15 years. In all cases they must produce a certificate that their children attend the free school, and are diligent.

4. The inscription in the register mentioned in No. 2 can only take place after inquiry has been made respecting the claimant, and it has been authorized by the bureau, which meets for this purpose once a month.

5. No children can be admitted to the assistance of the bureau, nor into the classes of instruction and work, above the age of 15, or without having been vaccinated.

6. If the number of children attending the classes and work shall be too many, either on account of the size of the building or the attention of the instructors, preference will be given to the children whose parents are already on their lists, and who are known to require assistance for the education of their children.

7. Every year, at the period of the first communion, a certain number of children shall be clothed. But to be admitted to this assistance they must produce a certificate from the clergyman appointed to give religious instruction, or from the nuns of the convent, that they have been attentive and are deserving. The boys are clothed in brown cloth ; the girls in coloured calico.

8. Every year the sum of 653 fr. (26 *l.*) shall be given to the clergymen of the town, in tickets of 1 fr. (9 *d.*), and 50 c. (4 $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.*), to be distributed where they think proper, of which only those who are past 60 or under 15 can participate.

9. Each person shall receive 3 lbs. of bread, two in the same family 6 lbs. of ditto, three to five persons in the same family, whose children are under 15, 12 lbs. of ditto, for 15 days. The number admitted to this relief to be regulated each year, so that the distribution shall not exceed 3,000 lbs. a month. These distributions will take place to the most needy each Monday and Friday, from 9 to 12 o'clock, after which no more will be given.

FRANCE.

SEINE
INFERIEURE.

Havre.
Bureau de Bien-
faisance.

10. In the distribution of clothing, which will be made once a year, each individual will only be clothed once in two years.

11. When the establishment is enabled to give woollen clothing, it will only be to such as are above 60 years, or to children under seven years, and those the most destitute; this relief once in two years.

12. If any one who receives bread and clothing from the bureau sells or pawns the same, he shall be struck off.

13. All clothes given by the establishment shall be marked, so that they may be known.

14. Assistance to lying-in-women, new-born children and sick, will be rendered at their houses; these who are not on the lists cannot be assisted until their case is examined; money will not be given to women in labour but when absolutely necessary; soup is distributed on Mondays and Wednesdays, from two to three o'clock.

15. There is attached to the establishment a doctor, at 400 fr. (16*l.*), and two assistants, at 500 fr. (20*l.*) each per year, who attend such as are named by the bureau; and also women in extraordinary cases of labour.

16. A midwife is attached, at 200 fr. (8*l.*) a year, who attends all women designated by the bureau.

17. In hard weather, if it should be thought expedient to make a subscription, the poor who are upon the second list (article 2) will be relieved from it.

ROUEN.

Depôt de Mendicité de Rouen.

POLICE INTERIEURE.

Titre 1^{er}. *Service du Portier de l'Extérieur.*

Art. 1^{er}. TOUTES les portes qui communiquent à l'extérieur resteront constamment fermées.

3. Le portier ne laissera entrer ni sortir, pendant le jour, aucun individu sans un permis ou laissez passer du directeur.

6. Il est défendu expressément et sous peine de destitution aux portiers de l'extérieur et de l'intérieur, ainsi qu'à tous autres préposés du dépôt, de favoriser, ou de permettre aucune commission, communication ni correspondance des reclus avec l'extérieur; les lettres des mendiants ne seront reçues ou expédiées qu'après avoir été communiquées au directeur, afin de prévenir toute atteinte au bon ordre et à la sûreté de l'établissement.

Titre 2. *Portier de l'Intérieur.*

Art. 3. Afin d'empêcher toute communication des mendiants des deux sexes et d'âges differens, il lui est enjoint de tenir fermées, aux heures prescrites, les portes des dortoirs, des ateliers, des cours de récreation et autres lieux occupés par les détenus aussitôt qu'ils les ont évacués.

4. Il tiendra la main conjointement avec les servants et surveillants, à ce que les reclus soient exactement renfermés dans leurs appartements respectifs; il fera des rondes pendant le jour, pour s'assurer de l'exécution de cette partie essentielle du règlement.

Titre 3. *Dortoirs.*

Art. 1^{er}. La cloche annoncera le reveil à quatre heures du matin, depuis le 1^{er} Mars jusqu'au 30 Sept^{re}, et à six heures depuis le 1^{er} Oct^{re} jusqu'au 28 Fev^{er}. Aussitôt les surveillants et servants des dortoirs tiendront la main à ce que les reclus s'élèvent avec décence et tranquillité.

3. La prière finie à six heures en été et à sept heures dans l'hiver, les reclus se rendront accompagnés des surveillants dans leurs ateliers respectifs pour se livrer au travail; les dortoirs seront fermés après avoir été balayés et nettoyés par deux reclus désignés tour à tour dans chaque dortoir pour cet emploi.

4. A neuf heures du soir, en toute saison, la cloche sonnera le coucher. Les reclus se rendront aussitôt dans leurs dortoirs respectifs; le surveillant fera l'appel nominal, et l'on entendra avec recueillement la prière, qui ne durera qu'un quart d'heure; après la prière chacun se couchera tranquillement et le plus profond silence regnera dans les dortoirs.

Titre 4. *Refectoirs.*

Art. 1^{er}. Le déjeuner aura lieu pendant le semestre d'été à huit heures précises du matin, et à neuf heures pendant le semestre d'hiver; il durera un demi-heure.

Les reclus retourneront au travail immédiatement après le déjeuner, jusqu'à midi et demi précis, heure du diner en toute saison.

5. La récreation qui suivra le diner se prolongera jusqu'à deux heures en tout saison, sous la surveillance immédiate d'un servant dans chaque district. A deux heures précises la cloche annoncera la reprise des travaux, et les surveillants feront l'appel dans leurs ateliers respectifs.

6. A huit heures du soir en tous tems la cloche sonnera le souper; chaque reclus se rendra au refectoire dans le même ordre qu'au diner, jusqu'à neuf heures au plus tard, heure à laquelle on rentrera dans les dortoirs.

7. Le

Rouen.
Workhouse
Regulations.

7. Le même régime sera observé dans les dortoirs et les refectoirs des deux sexes, exceptés pour les malades et les vieillards et les infirmes.

Titre 6. Ateliers.

Art. 1^{er}. Les surveillans attachés aux ateliers veilleront à ce que chaque ouvrier s'occupe assidûment et ne perde pas son temps.

2. Les ateliers seront fermés pendant le travail, afin que les reclus n'en sortent que pour leurs besoins et aux heures indiquées.

3. Les reclus valides devront être imposés à une tâche de travail proportionnée à leur force et à leur aptitude; tout ouvrier qui ne fera pas sa tâche journalière ne sera payé qu'en raison de la quantité qu'il aura faite; il sera mis au pain sec et restera dans l'atelier pour travailler pendant les heures de récréation.

4. Tout ouvrier qui pendant trois jours consecutifs manquerait à faire sa tâche, restera durant les heures de repas et de récréation et pendant la nuit enfermé dans la loge de discipline, au pain sec de punition et à l'eau jusqu'à ce qu'il ait atteint la tâche qui lui est imposée.

5. Tout ouvrier qui par négligence ou par méchanceté gâterait les matières, outils, et ustensiles confiés à ses soins, payera les dommages sur son tiers de réserve et sera puni en outre selon l'exigence du cas.

6. Tout ouvrier soigneux de son travail et qui fera plus que sa tâche *ordinaire* aura à son profit, indépendamment du tiers de réserve, les deux tiers de l'excédent de sa tâche, à titre de récompense et d'encouragement.

7. Tout reclus qui aura encouru la peine d'emprisonnement, subira sur le produit, de son tiers de réserve, une retenue de cinq centimes pour chaque jour de prison.

Le montant de ces retenus joint au produit des autres rétributions de l'oratoire, amendes, etc. formera un fonds de réserve qui sera reparté deux fois en forme de prime d'encouragement, aux reclus qui par leur bonne conduite et leur travail se seront fait distinguer parmi leurs camarades.

Titre 7. Oratoire.

Art. 1^{er}. Conformément au règlement général, il y aura instruction de religion et de morale deux fois par semaine dans la chapelle les Jeudis et Dimanches, à sept heures du soir.

Tout les reclus valides sont tenus d'y assister dans le silence et le recueillement, sous l'inspection de leurs surveillans respectifs.

Les Dimanches et jours de fête maintenus par le concordat, tous les reclus et les employés du dépôt assisteront à la messe, qui se dira à huit heures et demi du matin, et aux vêpres, qui se diront à une heure et demi après midi.

2. Indépendamment de ces exercices religieux il y aura, aux époques déterminées par l'autorité ecclésiastique, une instruction particulière pour les enfans destinés à faire leur première communion; cette instruction durera deux mois.

7. En cas d'infraction au présent règlement il en sera référé par les surveillans et préposés à Monsieur le Directeur du dépôt, qui prononcera suivant les cas les peines encourues par les reclus.

Mr. Perrier's report from Brest, and Mr. Newman's from Nantes, give a very interesting account of the state of Brittany. We will begin by Mr. Perrier's, as the more general view. (pp. 728, 729.)

BRITTANY.

It is extremely difficult to obtain any statistical information in Brittany, all inquiries being received with distrust, not only by the authorities, but also by the inhabitants. This has been the principal cause of my delay in replying to the series of questions. The answers, imperfect as they may appear, are the result of patient and persevering inquiry.

The state of society in Brittany, and its institutions, differ so widely from those of any other civilized country, that few of the questions are applicable. In order, therefore, to convey the information which they are intended to elicit, it is necessary to enter into a description of the population, which I shall endeavour to do as briefly as possible.

The population of Brittany may be classed under the following heads:

Old noblesse, possessing a portion of the land.

Proprietors, retired merchants and others, who have vested their money in landed property.

Peasants, owners of the ground they till.

Farmers.

Daily labourers and beggars.

The abolition of the right of primogeniture causes a daily diminution of the two first classes. As property, at the demise of the owner, must be divided equally amongst his children, who can seldom agree about the territorial division, it is put up for sale, purchased by speculators, and resold in small lots to suit the peasantry. Farmers having amassed sufficient to pay a part, generally one half, of the purchase-money of a lot, buy it, giving a mortgage at five or six per cent. for the remainder. Thus petty proprietors increase, and large proprietors and farmers decrease.

A man, industrious enough to work all the year, can easily get a farm.

P. L. (F.)

K

Farms

FRANCE.

SEINE
INFÉRIEURE.

Rouen.

Brittany.

Finistère	- - -	524,396
Côtes-du-Nord	- - -	598,872
Morbihan	- - -	433,522
Ille-et-Vilaine	- - -	547,052
Loire Inférieure	- - -	470,093
		2,573,935

FRANCE.

Brittany.

Farms are small. Their average size in Lower Brittany does not exceed 14 acres. Some are so small as two acres, and there are many of from four to eight. The largest in the neighbourhood of Brest is 36 acres. The average rate of rent is 1 *l.* 5 *s.* per acre for good land, and 8 *s.* for poor land (partly under broom and furze).

The farmers are very poor, and live miserably; yet, their wants being few and easily satisfied, they are comparatively happy. Their food consists of barley bread, butter, buck wheat (made into puddings, porridge and cakes). Soup, composed of cabbage water, a little grease or butter and salt poured on bread. Potatoes; meat twice a week (always salt pork.)

A family of 12, including servants and children, consumes annually about 700 lbs. of pork and 100 lbs. of cow beef; the latter only on festivals.

The class of daily labourers can only be said to exist in towns. In the country they are almost unknown.

The inmates of each farm, consisting of the farmer's family, and one, two, or three males, and as many female servants (according to the size of the farm), paid annually, and who live with the family, suffice for the general work. At harvest some additional hands are employed. These are generally people who work two or three months in the year, and beg during the remainder. Daily labourers and beggars may, therefore, in the country, be classed under the same head.

Farmers' servants are orphans or children of unfortunate farmers.

The conditions of the poorer farmers, daily labourers and beggars, are so near akin, that the passage from one state to another is very frequent.

Mendicity is not considered disgraceful in Brittany. Farmers allow their children to beg along the roads. On saints' days, especially the festivals of celebrated saints, whose shrines attract numerous votaries (all of whom give something, be it ever so little, to the poor), the aged, infirm and children of poor farmers and labourers, turn out. Some small hamlets are even totally abandoned by their inhabitants for two or three days. All attend the festival, to beg.

The Bretons are hospitable. Charity and hospitality are considered religious duties. Food and shelter for a night are never refused.

Several attempts to suppress mendicity have been unsuccessful. District asylums were established. No sooner were they filled than the vacancies in the beggar stands were immediately replenished by fresh subjects from the country; it being a general feeling, that it is much easier and more comfortable to live by alms than by labour.

In towns where the police is well regulated, the only mendicants permitted to sojourn are paupers belonging to the parish. They are known by a tin badge, for which they pay at the police office.

No such thing is known as a legal claim for assistance from public or private charities.

In towns, destitute workmen or other persons in distress must be authorized by the municipality previous to soliciting public or private assistance. To this effect, the pauper makes known his case to the commissary of police of the quarter he inhabits, who makes inquiry among the neighbours. Should the destitute case of the applicant be established, the mayor grants him a certificate of indigence, which authorizes him to apply for relief to the public institutions, and to solicit private charity. It also exempts him (or rather causes his exemption) from the payment of taxes.

The principal cause of misery is inebriety; its frequency among the lower orders keeps them in poverty. The "*cabaret*" (wine and brandy shop) absorbs a great portion of their earnings. This vice is not confined to men; the women partake of it. It has decreased within the last five or six years, but is still considerable.

We now proceed to give some extracts from the more detailed report of Mr. Newman, who writes, it must be recollected, from Nantes. (pp. 171, 172, 173, 174, 178, 175, 176, 177.

LOIRE INFÉRIEURE.

NANTES.

Vagrants.

In the department Loire Inférieure there is no asylum for mendicants; but Nantes has a species of workhouse, "St. Joseph's House," supported entirely by private subscriptions. To this house the tribunals often send vagabonds, in virtue of the 274th article of the Penal Code, although the directors of the establishment have contested, and still contest, the right assumed by the judges to do so; and they never receive any person so sent as a criminal to be detained a certain number of days at labour as if in a prison, but merely give him a refuge as an act of charity, and liberty to leave the place, if he likes to go before the time expires. The number of vagrants that formerly infested Nantes (strangers to the department as well as to the city) have decreased to about a tenth part since begging in the streets was prohibited, and the paupers sent to this establishment.

The hospitals of Nantes receive all workmen, travellers, and needy strangers, that fall sick in the city (if foreigners, at the charge to their consuls of 1 *s.* 3 *d.* sterling per day for men, and 10 *d.* for women.) If a man, (and his family also,) being destitute, wishes to return to his native place, and has not rendered himself liable to be committed as a vagrant, the préfet has the power to give a passport to him for that place; on the production of which at the mairie of the commune from which he sets out he receives from the public funds of the department three halfpence per league for the distance from thence to the next place he

LOIRE
INFÉRIEURE.

Nantes.

Population of the
Department,
470,093.
Population of
Nantes, 87,191.

he is to be relieved at, and so on to the end of his journey, each place he has to stop at being set down on his passport; if he deviates from the route designated, he is arrested as a vagabond.

There is in France throughout the whole country a general union for each of several trades, the carpenters, bakers, masons, tailors, &c. In each city or town of consequence, each society has a member who is called "the mother," who receives the weekly contributions of those who reside in that place, affords relief to all of its members passing through it, and is obliged to procure work for the applicant, or support him at a fixed rate, established by their bye-laws, until a situation be provided for him there or elsewhere. Those unions sometimes assume a very dangerous power, by compelling masters to hire all their members that are without work, before they engage one man who does not belong to them.

Destitute Able-bodied.

In times of political commotion, of unforeseen events, of rigorous seasons, when the usual courses of labour are stopped, the civil administrations create temporary workshops, furnish tools, &c., to the labourers, and enter into contracts for repairs to the streets, quays, bridges, roads, &c., from which a large city, as well as the country parishes, can always draw some advantages for the money so distributed to employ those persons who would otherwise be supported without work by the same funds. The money required on those occasions is furnished by the treasury of the city or commune, assisted by private subscriptions from nearly all persons in easy circumstances. The want of regular or parish workhouses for labourers, unemployed, is in some measure supplied by private charities, for a great number of wealthy families, and others of the middling class, give employment to old men, women and children, in spinning, and in weaving of coarse linen, at prices far beyond those that the articles can be purchased at in the shops; but this plan is adopted to prevent a disposition to idleness, although at a greater sacrifice, perhaps, than would be made by most of the promoters of it, in a public subscription.

The bureau de bienfaisance distributes annually about 80,000 fr.; the chief part, or very nearly the whole, to poor families at their homes, in clothes, food, fuel, and sometimes money; but of the latter as little as possible. Les dames de charité (ladies of the first families, who are appointed annually to visit and give relief to the poor, each having a fixed district) distribute about three-fourths of that sum, which would be insufficient for the indigent if it were not assisted by distributions made by the priests of the different parishes and other persons employed to do so by private families, who give their alms in that manner, and not at their own residences. It is generally supposed that, in the whole, not less than 250,000 fr. are so distributed annually in the city of Nantes. In making this distribution care is always taken to prefer invalids to those in health.

Impotent through Age.

In the city of Nantes there is a general hospital, called the "Sanitat," for the reception of the old and impotent; at present it contains about 800; it answers to an English workhouse; the inmates are lodged, fed, clothed, and are taken care of in every way: they are employed about trifling work, but the average gain by it does not exceed 20 fr. per annum for each. The average cost appears to be about 11 to 12 sous per day for each person. The establishment of St. Joseph's, already alluded to, is, in fact, a sort of assistant to the Sanitat (although supported by private charity) for the 100 to 120 old people it contains. The Sanitat has a ward for dangerous as well as ordinary lunatics; is under the same board and direction as the Hôtel Dieu (the general hospital for the sick); but each is supported by its own funds, arising from bequests and donations from private persons, and from the city funds; yet if either hospital should require any assistance, the money wanted would be voted by the city treasury.

The general council for the department votes about 1,200 to 1,250 fr. annually to the Sanitat from the departmental funds.

Sick.

Nantes has a general hospital (Hôtel Dieu) for the sick, containing 600 beds, 300 of which are reserved for the indigent of the city. The expense of this establishment is about a franc to 25 sous per day to each person. The military are received at 20 sous per man per day, which is paid by the government. It is supported by its own funds, arising from bequests and donations, and grants made from time to time by the city; is under the same board and direction as the Sanitat. If a poor person becomes sick in the country, he is either relieved by the curé of the parish or by some of the more wealthy neighbours, or he comes into Nantes and resides there for a week or ten days before he makes an application to the mayor to be admitted into the hospital; he is then sent there as an inhabitant of the city. The authorities in the country have not the right to send a patient to the Hôtel Dieu, yet a great number arrive at the hospital, sent by country practitioners, who have not the skill, or perhaps the leisure or inclination, to attend to them; and *they are always received*, if it be possible to take them in. The students at the hospital are ever ready to admit any difficult cases or fractures from the country, for their own improvement.

There are also hospitals for the sick at the following places in the Loire Inférieure: Ancenis, for the town and commune; Chateaubriand, Paimbœuf, Savenay and Clisson, for the towns only.

FRANCE.

LOIRE
INFÉRIEURE.

Nantes.

Besides the succour afforded to the poor at their homes by the bureau de bienfaisance, there are three dispensaries supported by that establishment, for administering relief to the sick, who are attended at their homes, if necessary, by the nuns of St. Vincent de Paule, 12 or 14 of whom are kept in the pay of, and are wholly supported by the bureau. They carry to them soup and other victuals, remedies, &c., and lend them linen and clothes, if wanted. There are a number of young men, who are either studying, or have just completed their study of medicine, who are anxious to give their assistance gratis, and who are in constant attendance on those who are receiving relief from the dispensaries. It is impossible to state the extent to which such relief is given. The nuns are paid by the bureau de bienfaisance, which also pays for the medicines, &c. they distribute; but the sum that is thus expended bears but a small proportion to the amount that is distributed by the hands of those sisters, who, from the accurate knowledge they possess of the real situation and condition of each person they visit, are employed by numerous wealthy persons to distribute privately such charities as they feel disposed to give; and can thus be well applied in providing those little comforts for the invalids, as cannot be sent from the bureau to all those who require them, although the funds are increased from time to time by the proceeds of representations at the theatre, public concerts, &c. given for that purpose.

Independent of the foregoing, there are several tradesmen's societies on the plan of benefit societies in England, the members of which pay five or six sous per week, and receive, in case of sickness, all necessary assistance in medicines, &c., besides an indemnity of a franc to a franc and a half per day during the time they are unable to work.

Orphans, Foundlings or Deserted Children.

The law requires an establishment (a tour) in each department, for the secret reception of children. Every arrival is particularly noted and described in a register kept for that purpose, that the infant may be recognised if it should be claimed. The children, after having received all necessary assistance and baptism, are confided to women in the country, (a regulation of this department only), to dry-nurse them, (au biberon); they are paid eight francs per month for the first year, seven for the second and third, six until the ninth year, and four francs per month from that time until the child is 12 years old; when the nurse who has taken care of one from its birth to that age, receives a present of 50 fr. for her attention. A basket of requisite linen is given with the child, and a new suit of clothes annually for seven years. These regulations are observed for orphans and foundlings. The registers for the last 20 years give an average of 360 to 370 admissions annually; *more than one half of them die under one year old*; therefore, with the deaths at other ages, and the claims that are made for some of them before they attain 12 years, the establishment has seldom at its charge more than from 1,200 to 1,300, of all ages from 0 to 12.

The parents being unknown when they place their infants in the "tour," cannot be traced afterwards, unless they acknowledge themselves; they are, however, as has been observed before, liable for the expenses of their offspring; and whenever they are discovered, whether by claiming their children or otherwise, the right to make them repay the costs they have occasioned is always maintained, and they are compelled to pay the whole, or as much as their finances will admit of.

Deserted children of the city, or the children of poor persons, who cannot support them, are received and treated in a similar manner, without being placed in the "tour;" they are admitted according to the state of the finances appropriated to such branch of the establishment, which in general permits from 80 to 100 to be on it. Certificates are required that the parents are dead, the child abandoned, or that the mother is totally unable to support it, or that she has a number of young children. Independent of the 1,400 children thus received by the Hôtel Dieu, the bureau de bienfaisance supports 200 *legitimate* children, and the société maternelle from 60 to 80, until they attain the age of 18 years.

The number of deaths in 1832, was 11,999; the number under one year old, 1,970, or one in $6\frac{12}{107}$. Chateaufort states, *for all France*, 33 deaths, under one year old, out of every hundred births, which is nearly double the number of deaths of that description for this department; but the mortality is much greater amongst the orphans, foundlings and deserted children of this city received at the hospital. An account, made up to the year 1828, gave an average of 52 deaths, under one year old, of every hundred children received there; and since that date it has increased considerably.

There are women in the city who make it their business to place infants in the "tour," and who afterwards attend the delivery of them to the country nurses, and thus, knowing where certain children are placed, give notice to the parents, who can visit them without being discovered. Children thus recognised are frequently demanded by their parents for servants, in the ordinary way; and by this plan they screen themselves from the payment of the child's support.

Effects of these
Institutions.

There can be no doubt that the prospect of an asylum for the indigent creates amongst the working class a disposition to idleness and debauchery, whilst at the same time there are those who look down with disgust on their miserable brothers who are compelled to accept a public charitable support; and the shame which they consider attaches to a man who does it stimulates them to avoid the doors of an hospital, by industry and sobriety. The number of these however is very small, whilst the applications for admittance to the

Sanitat and to St. Joseph's are so very numerous, so far beyond the accommodation that can be granted, that after the name of an applicant is registered he has (frequently) to wait 18 to 24 months for his turn. For the sick, however, at the Hôtel Dieu it is not so; for arrangements are made that no delay takes place with any case requiring immediate relief or treatment.

The shades between the healthy labourers of the lowest class that support themselves and those who obtain relief from charitable institutions, are so slight, that it is almost impossible to state the difference in their conditions. *No man* has a *legal claim* upon any of the charities; in the distribution of which, however, there is but one fixed rule that governs the distributors, and that is, to compel the applicants for relief to work to their utmost power, and to give such relief only in each individual case as they suppose to be necessary with the wages he can or ought to earn, according to the demand for labourers at the time.

According to the price of lodgings, victuals and clothing in Nantes, a steady labourer at the highest rate of his wages, 1 s. 3 d. per day, supposing he had 300 days' employment in the year, is considered to be able to support a wife and three young children; if he has a larger family, is out of employ, or is at a lower rate of wages, without his wife and children being able to gain a little, he is regarded as indigent, and in need of succour. A labourer, his wife, and three children consume in the day from 8 to 10 lbs. of bread, which is their chief food, and will cost him 240 fr.; his cabbages and other vegetables, butter or fat for his soup, 90 fr.; his room, 50 fr.; leaving 70 fr. or 2 l. 18 s. 4 d. for clothes, fuel, &c.; which make up the sum of his wages for 300 days at 1 ½ fr., or 1 s. 3 d. per day. The wife in general adds a little to the husband's earnings by spinning, and sometimes weaving; but it is not much when the family is young.

To prevent the increase and lessen the present state of disorder into which the greater part of the labouring class and mechanics of Nantes has fallen, a number of master tradesmen and proprietors of factories will not employ those men who do not agree to allow a certain sum weekly to be retained from their wages for the use of the wife and family. The example spreads, and will no doubt become more general; but this circumstance shows forth, in strong colours, the immoral state of the working class in France.

There are no cottages for labourers, as are seen in England: the chief part of the work on farms in this part of France is done by servants in the house of the farmer, or by married labourers, to whom an acre or two, sometimes as high as 10, according to the quality, is fenced off from the estate for the use of the man and his family; for which he has to give a certain number of days' work. If such patch of land requires to be ploughed, the farmer does it for him for an additional number of days' work. Besides those, there are an immense number of little proprietors, having from an acre and a half to 10 or 15 acres; and they give their labour also to the farmers of larger estates, receiving in return either assistance with oxen, carts, ploughs, &c., or an equivalent in some produce which they do not raise on their own land. Very little money, if any, passes between them. These little properties have sprung up from labourers and others fencing in small patches of commons or waste lands. Nearly all the vineyards in the Loire Inférieure are cultivated by labourers, who have a small spot of ground partitioned off from the main estate; it is for married men only that ground is so divided; the single men live with their families in the villages, or in public-houses, but generally in the latter. In regard to these questions, it must be observed that almost every farmer who hires an estate takes such a one as will just sustain his family, without the aid, or with the assistance only of a man or a man and woman servants, and that therefore very few daily labourers find employment. Few estates run to 200 acres, and, if so large, a daily labourer is only hired during harvest, so wretchedly is the husbandry of the country managed.

The cottages or houses in villages for labourers are in general the property of the owners of the large estates in the neighbourhood, as well as those that are built on the patches of land for the use of those who are married; some of the latter, however, are built at the joint expense of the farmer and labourer. A cottage or cottages in a detached place from a village, or a house in such a situation, with a little plot of ground for a garden for each apartment, lets for about 20 to 30 francs a year per room, whether the building consists of one or of four rooms. In the villages the rent is a little higher, from 30 to 50, and sometimes as high as 80, if the garden be large to a cottage with only one room. These buildings are so seldom on sale, that the price cannot be stated with accuracy.

We now proceed to the

GIRONDE.

BOURDEAUX. (p. 229, 230, 231, 232, 233. 235.)

THERE are no houses of industry in this department for the destitute able-bodied, except that known as the *Depôt de Mendicité*.

This institution was first established in the year 1827, with a view to suppress the great number of professed beggars who infested the streets and public walks, taking advantage of any defect of conformation, &c. to attract the notice of passengers. By law all persons found begging in the streets are liable to be taken up and imprisoned; but instead of imprisonment, those arrested are conveyed to the *Depôt de Mendicité*, where, if able, they are made to work. The good effects of this institution are visible; for instead of the

P. L. (F.)

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number

FRANCE.

LOIRE
INFÉRIEURE.

Nantes.

GIRONDE.

Bordeaux.

Population of
the Department,
554,225.
Population of
Bordeaux,
109,467.

FRANCE.

GIRONDE.

Bordeaux.

number of professed beggars amounting to 800, which it did before the institution of the establishment, it does not now amount to above 150 or 200.

This institution is supported by private contribution. The King and the town contribute a certain portion to make up what may be wanting. The average number of the population of the dépôt amounts to 350 souls.

Generally speaking, owing to the want of population, employment is to be found in commerce, trade or agriculture. The high price of wages in the towns and the country proves that work is always to be found.

When any unforeseen circumstances have arisen to interrupt the common order of things, the local authorities have come to the assistance of the population, by giving work to those out of employment. Public subscriptions are also resorted to on these occasions.

All indigent families, and in which there are those capable of working, but who are not able to obtain it, or whose numbers are so great that all cannot be subsisted, are relieved by the *Bureaux de Charité*.

The same relief is given to those who, having a habitation, are unable of themselves, through age or infirmity, to support themselves.

The mode of obtaining this relief is by petition, signed by some credible person, and attested by the priest or protestant clergyman. It is proportioned to the number of the family, and to the number of those able to work, and whose wages go to the maintenance of the family. The relief consists in bread, soup, wood for fuel, and sometimes, though rarely, blankets and woollen clothing; medicines for the sick, and broth.

Generally speaking, these distributions of food would be insufficient; but most indigent families are assisted by private persons, so that, on the whole, they have wherewithal to sustain life.

The annual *distribution à domicile* (domiciliary relief) amounts to the sum of 100,000 francs, (4,000*l.*)

3,520 families are relieved. The number of impotent in these families, father and mother included, though able to work, amounts to 9,634, or less than a franc per head per month.

It is in proportion to these numbers that the relief is given, but it is greater in winter than the other parts of the year.

As to the medicines and broth, whenever there are sick in these families a sufficiency is given. Physicians are attached to each auxiliary bureau of every district, who visit the sick, prescribe the remedies, &c., all of which are distributed by the *Sœurs de Charité* (Sisters of Charity, an order of nuns who devote themselves to the care of the poor and sick, and who undertake, gratuitously, the elementary education of their children). It is a most respectable and praiseworthy institution.

The same Sisters receive in their houses the little girls of these families who are old enough to learn to read. Books are supplied by the instructors.

In extraordinary cases, recourse is had to subscriptions and collections, which increase the means of the *Bureaux de Charité*; so that during long and hard winters, more clothing, &c. is distributed. It seldom happens that money is given.

There are, however, no positive regulations on these points. The whole is in the hands of the directors of this establishment. A responsible receiver is attached to it, whose accounts are submitted to the examination of the *Cour des Comptes* (audit-office). Thus, though the distributions are left to the judgment of the directors, they are subjected to control.

The above details relate to the city of Bordeaux. There are, however, proportionate institutions in most of the larger towns of the department, but in the poorer parishes and rural districts the *Bureaux de Charité* are merely nominal. These parishes being without a revenue, are unable to assist their poor, who subsist on the alms they may receive at the different dwelling-houses, and who when ill, if possible, come to the nearest hospital, generally to that of Bordeaux.

In this department there are no schools in which indigent children are received to be fed and clothed gratuitously, but there are those in which they receive a certain degree of instruction.

For Boys.—The institution of *Frères des Ecoles Chrétiennes* (Brothers of the Christian Schools), and two Lancastrian schools, which have been lately instituted.

For Girls.—A Lancastrian school, a few boarding schools, in which a certain number of indigent girls are taught gratuitously; and also the Sisters of Charity attached to the administration of the *Bureaux de Charité*.

The *Ecoles Chrétiennes* are at the charge of the town. The sum appropriated to those establishments amounts annually to about 14,000 francs (560*l.*). Admissions are granted by the town. The number of children instructed in reading, writing and a little arithmetic, amounts to about 1,800 for the town. At the Lancastrian school, the instruction is on a more extended scale. Grammar, drawing and surveying are taught, in addition to what is taught at the *Ecoles Chrétiennes*.

There are at present in these latter schools 300 boys and 150 girls in all.

The department pays the expenses of these schools.

The girls received in the private boarding schools, where they learn to read, to write and to sew, amount to the number of about 600. This is entirely a private act of charity.

The number of girls received by the Sisters of Charity amounts to about 900.

There

There has also been established within the last year a model infant school, founded by private subscriptions, for the children of labourers and journeymen artisans. At present, however, it is so little known, that it is of very little importance.

Impotent through Age.

Bordeaux is the only town of the department which possesses any establishments of this kind, viz. the Hospital of Incurables (*Hospice des Incurables*), and that of the old people (*Hospice des Vieillards*).

These two establishments support 300 old people. This number falls very short of that which the population requires. The requisite qualifications for admission are, to have passed the age of 60, and to prove that the candidate has no means of subsistence.

It may be added, that at Bordeaux the number of old people who are candidates for admittance to these hospitals amounts to 300, and that on an average a vacancy occurs for each at the end of four years at the *Hospital des Incurables*, and two years at the *Hospice des Vieillards*, and that all these claimants find either in their families the *Secours à Domicile*, or private charity, means of subsistence.

Sick.

The department possesses, for the reception of the sick, a small hospital at Bazas; one at St. Macaire, and one at La Réole; a more extensive one at Blaye and Libourne, and the great hospital at Bordeaux.

The great hospital of Bordeaux contains always from 600 to 650 sick. The daily admittances average 30; the discharges, 28, and the deaths two.

No distinction is made as to country, &c., either in admittance, treatment or discharge.

The inmates of this hospital are generally composed of inhabitants of the town, who are too poor to be treated at home, or who prefer the care that is taken of them there to that which they would experience at home; of workmen, &c. from the neighbouring departments employed in the town, and who have nowhere else to go to; of peasants, even in easy circumstances, who, from illness or accidents, have not the same resources at home.

Bordeaux possesses a *Hospice de la Maternité*, or Lying-in Hospital, and a society, founded by private benefactions, for the same purpose.

The Lying-in Hospital is an asylum in which any woman who presents herself in the ninth month of her pregnancy, whatever may be her state, her country or condition, is admitted without difficulty, without question or inquiry, under the name she pleases, and in such a manner, that the fear of being known or discovered may not prevent those who wish to remain unknown from benefiting by the institution.

Women admitted at the ninth month remain in the establishment till they have completely recovered their lying-in. (p. 231.)

The number of those women, either lying-in or subsisted in the hospital, varies from 35 to 60, and their stay is about 30 days. The births amount annually from 400 to 450; upon this number, 30 or 40 at most are kept and suckled by their mothers; the rest are abandoned and sent to the Foundling Hospital.

Among these inmates, about one-fifth is composed of married women, who have no means of being confined at home; two-fifths of young girls of the town, chiefly servants; the rest of peasants, who leave their homes in order not to be discovered.

Illegitimate children deserted by their parents, and which are deposited at the Foundling Hospital, are clothed and nourished by women in the institution, till a nurse out of it can be procured.

These children, after being suckled, remain with their nurses till the age of 12 years. At this age, if the individuals who have brought them up do not wish to keep them gratuitously till their majority and give them a trade, they return to the hospital, and they then cease to be at the charge of the special funds. The establishment itself provides for their expenses; and until they can be placed as apprentices, they receive, in the Bordeaux hospital, the rudiments of reading and writing, and they are taught some trade.

Once placed as apprentices, they remain with the master till the age of 21, when they are to shift for themselves.

Those that cannot be placed, or are infirm, remain in the hospital, and form a sort of permanent population there.

Children whose parents are known, and who are living, but have either disappeared or are confined, are received in the same way as foundlings, the mode of admission differing only. This must be granted by the prefect after an inquest. For the remainder, they enjoy the same advantages as the foundlings.

As to orphans, they are also admitted into the Foundling Hospital, upon the order of the administrative commission, after information as to the state of the family. At Bordeaux the orphans of the town alone are received. Those of the rest of the department remain at the charge of their parishes, and generally live by alms. The orphans received into the hospital enjoy the same privileges as the foundlings and deserted children.

The annual exposal of children amounts at Bordeaux to 900, comprising all those abandoned

FRANCE.

GIRONDE.

Bordeaux.

done at the Lying-in Hospital, those of the town, and those sent from various parts of the department, as well as from the neighbouring departments.

From 10 to 15 deserted children, and the same number of orphans, are annually admitted.

The population of the hospital amounts generally to 40 new-born infants, waiting to be sent to nurse; 150 children beginning their apprenticeships, and waiting to be placed; about 150 infirm of all ages forming the permanent part of the population.

The number of children from the age of one month to that of 12 years, amounts to 3,600; and that of children above 12 and below 21 apprenticed out, amounts to about 1,500.

The expenditure of the hospital, comprising the clothing for the children brought up out of the establishment, amounts to 110,000 francs per annum (4,400*l.*) That for the nurses or board in the country, to 240,000 francs (9,600*l.*), of which

104,000 fr. (4,160*l.*) is given by the government upon the common departmental fund.

27,000 fr. (1,080*l.*) taken from the revenue of the town of Bordeaux.

60,000 fr. (2,400*l.*) voted by the general council on the *Centimes Facultatifs*.

49,000 fr. (1,960*l.*) on the revenue of the other parishes of the department.

Owing to the extreme carelessness and entire absence of frugality on the part of the peasantry and other classes of labourers, it is impossible to give an accurate account of their expenditure. They live entirely from hand to mouth; and nine-tenths are in debt for the common necessities of life. The men are addicted to gambling, and the women spend the greater part of what they earn in useless articles of dress. As to the expenditure for schooling and religious teaching, no provision is thought of.

BASSES
PYRENEES.

Bayonne.

Population of the
Department,
428,401.
Population of Bay-
onne, 14,773.

BASSES PYRENEES.

BAYONNE.

On recurring to the statistical statements respecting this department, it will be seen that it supports its population with a smaller number of deaths, births and marriages than any other extensive district in Europe. Compared with the countries which have been lately considered, its provisions for public charity are trifling, as will appear by the following extracts from Mr. Harvey's report (p. 260, 261, 262.)

Vagrants.

Mendicity, under the head of vagrancy, is not prevalent in the department of the Lower Pyrenees; the relief afforded to French subjects passing through the department, seeking work (which seldom occurs), or returning to their native places, is at the rate of three sols per league, or $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.* per mile; but this relief is more frequently granted to foreigners in distress, and is paid by the several mayors at certain stations or towns on their route. There is no public relief granted to vagrants living by begging.

Destitute Able-bodied.

There are no public or private establishments or relief afforded to the destitute able-bodied or their families; but this description of pauper is seldom or ever to be met with in this department.

Impotent through Age.

There are no public or religious institutions or regulations for the relief of the poor in general; they subsist by begging; and when no longer able to do so, they receive a trifling relief from "The Ladies of Charity," (*Dames de la Charité*), who make quarterly collections from the respectable inhabitants, which these ladies distribute in food, fuel or money, to the *pauvres honteux*, or infirm, as the case may be; but this private voluntary subscription is very inadequate.

The inhabitants of Bayonne (and it is hoped and expected that the example will be followed in other places) are now occupied in forming, by voluntary annual subscriptions, an establishment for the relief of the poor; a commission of gentlemen has been appointed, and there is every prospect that this charitable undertaking will be crowned with success.

Sick.

In the towns there are public hospitals for the sick and wounded; but when convalescent, they are obliged immediately to quit the hospital, destitute or not.

CHILDREN:

Illegitimate.

Illegitimate children (infants only) are received into the hospitals established by the famous St. Vincent de Paul, but where the parents have no communication with or control over them; these children are placed out to nurse in the country at about 5*s.* a month, and are

are afterwards provided for by the hospital, if in the course of seven years they are not claimed by the parents.

When not deposited in the hospitals, the mothers have invariably been found to bestow upon their infants the most scrupulous care and attention, the natural consequence of having had the firmness and humanity not to abandon their offspring, notwithstanding the facility of concealment held out to them by the hospital.

Orphans or Deserted Children.

There are no public or private institutions or regulations for orphans.

Deserted Children.—There are no public or private regulations or institutions under this head; but I have not heard of a case in question in this department.

Cripples, Deaf and Dumb, and Blind.

Cripples.—Obliged to beg if destitute, there being no public or private institutions or regulations for cripples.

The deaf and dumb, if poor and destitute, are obliged to beg; there are excellent establishments in the large towns for their instruction, for those who have the means.

Blind.—Obliged to beg, there are no public or private institutions for them.

Idiots and Lunatics.

There are no public or private institutions for idiots.

There is an institution (Maison de Force) for the admission of lunatics at the Chef Lieu of the department only (at Pau).

The questions relative to hired country labourers are not altogether applicable to this department, which is invariably divided into small farms, not exceeding from 20 to 30 English acres each, the families on each farm sufficing for the cultivation thereof, the proprietors or the farmers being themselves the labourers of the soil, the neighbours assisting each other in time of harvest; consequently it seldom occurs that a hired labourer is called in; but when employed they are paid at the rate of about 1 s. per diem, without food. The women, and the children from the age of 10 years, constantly work on the land. The children generally receive a primary education at the village day-schools, where there is always a schoolmaster or mistress appointed by the authorities; price of education, 2 francs (about 1 s. 7 d.) per month. At these schools the children are prepared for their first communion; they learn reading, writing and calculation. The food of the proprietor or farmer labourer chiefly consists in vegetable soups, potatoes, salt fish, pork, bacon, &c., and seldom or ever butcher's meat, and invariably Indian corn bread, homebaked. These persons (who are generally the owners of the soil) procure for themselves a comfortable subsistence, but they are seldom able to lay by anything. The equal division of the land prevents in a great measure mendicity. The families on each farm in the whole department consist on an average of about five persons.

It is calculated that persons attain a more advanced age in this department than in any other in France.

BOUCHES DU RHONE.

MARSEILLES.

Vagrants.

It has been calculated that the average number of beggars in this department (the Mouths of the Rhone) is 1,060, whereof 900 are natives and 105 strangers, besides 240 who traverse the department. The calculation having been made some years ago, the numbers may have increased with the population, which was then 313,000, and is now 359,000.

The only relief granted to the poor travelling is by giving them a "passport d'indigent," furnished by the local authorities, in which their exact route is designated, and not to be deviated from; they receive, as they pass through each commune, three sous for every league of distance, equal to a halfpenny per mile, and lodging for the night: beggars have no relief but private charity.

Destitute Able-bodied.

The principal establishment at Marseilles for their relief is the bureau de bienfaisance, whose revenues, arising partly from the remnant property of some charitable institutions existing before the Revolution, partly from an annual allowance granted by the budget of the commune, partly by a tax on theatrical admissions, and from private subscriptions, amount altogether to about 140,000 francs, or 5,600 l., of which the major part is distributed in money to the "pauvres honteux" (those who have seen better days), and in providing necessaries and medical assistance to the poor in general, by five directors, and at their sole discretion. Similar establishments exist in the other arrondissements of this department, but, with the exception of Aix, with very small means, principally dependent on the communal budgets, which in many cases furnish nothing. I am informed that in this commune, with a population of 140,000 inhabitants, the bureau relieves, more or less, 800 families of

FRANCE.

BASSES
PYRENEES.

Bayonne.

BOUCHES DU
RHONE.

Marseilles.

Population of the
Department,

359,473.

Population of Mar-
seilles, 145, 115.

FRANCE.

BOUCHES DU
RHONE.

Marseilles.

"pauvres honteux," and 4,000 families of indigent poor. There is also at Marseilles a société de bienfaisance, supported principally by private charity, whose chief object is the establishment of soup kitchens and dispensaries for the relief of the poor, and a school for the education of their children from four to nine years of age. No relief is ever given in money. Their annual revenue is about 40,000 francs, or 1,600 £.; and in times of great distress the local administration increases its funds, and supplies the poor with soup through its means.

The number of children received in the school above mentioned is about 200: they receive two meals a day and sleep at home; they are taught various trades, and apprenticed at the expense of the commune; there are also several gratuitous day-schools for children of the age of seven years and upwards, and who bring their own food.

Impotent through Age.

The only public establishment for the reception of this class is that called "La Charité," in which those are admitted who have attained the age of 70, and none before; the number of those individuals at present is about 350; they are there boarded, clothed and fed.

Sick.

There are no district institutions for the reception of the sick, except the general hospitals. The average number of sick in the hospital of Marseilles may be about 450.

Children.

One large branch of the administration of hospitals of Marseilles is "La Charité," which receives, as before mentioned, old men, and also all children under 12 years of age, whether illegitimate, orphans, foundlings or deserted; they are there received, and, when infants, principally nursed in the country. At this time there are 2,240 infants in this situation, and on their return they are boarded, lodged and educated.

SARDINIAN
STATES.

SARDINIAN STATES.

The information respecting the Sardinian States consists of answers from Piedmont, Genoa and Savoy, obtained by Sir Augustus Foster from the Minister of the Interior, from M. de Vignet, a Senator of Chambery, from Marquis Brignole Sale, Syndic of Genoa, and from the Marquis Cavour, Syndic of Turin, and his son, Count Camille Cavour.

The following extracts comprise their most material contents. (pp. 653, 654, 655, 656, 657, 659, 660, 661, 662.)

The general system appears to resemble that of France, except that in Piedmont mendicity is not an offence.

PIEDMONT.

Mendians.

La mendicité n'est point défendue par les lois: toute personne qui est censée être dans l'impossibilité de se procurer, par son travail, de quoi se maintenir lui et sa famille, peut s'établir dans les rues, et demander l'aumône aux passans. Le gouvernement et les autorités des différentes localités ont plusieurs fois vainement tenté de réprimer les abus sans nombre qui naissent de cette faculté illimitée. Les réglemens qui ont été fait dans ce but, n'ont jamais pu être exécutés d'une manière efficace. Ils sont tous restés sans effet. On applique toutefois assez souvent la loi qui défend aux pauvres de mendier hors de leurs communes. Lorsque, dans une ville, les mendiants étrangers affluent en grande abondance, les autorités municipales les en expulsent en masse, laissant le soin à la gendarmerie de leur faire regagner leur pays natal, ou le lieu où ils sont censés avoir un domicile. Mais comme il n'y a aucune peine correctionnelle pour sanctionner cette loi, ils ne tardent pas à la violer de nouveau, en s'éloignant de chez eux, s'ils trouvent une trop grande difficulté à vivre.

Il n'existe aucun document qui puisse servir à fixer, même approximativement, le nombre total des mendiants. Il dépend d'ailleurs en partie de plusieurs causes qui varient continuellement; telles que l'abondance des récoltes, la rigueur des saisons, les vicissitudes de certaines industries qui occupent un grand nombre de bras.

La mendicité est répandue, quoique à des degrés différens, dans tout le pays. Elle existe à peine dans les vallées des Alpes; au contraire, dans les vallées des Appenins, le nombre des mendiants est fort considérable; comme il l'est en général dans tous les endroits où les châtaignes sont la nourriture ordinaire des classes inférieures.

Si un ouvrier, étranger au pays qu'il habite, vient, par suite d'accident ou de maladie, à se trouver dans l'impossibilité de gagner sa vie en travaillant, et qu'il soit hors d'état de s'en retourner chez lui sans secours, les autorités municipales de l'endroit, et successivement celles de tous les pays qui se trouvent sur la route, sont tenues de lui fournir des moyens de transport. A Turin, on donne quelques légers secours pécuniaires à tous les ouvriers qui s'en retournent chez eux: cet usage n'est pas général.

Pauvres

Piedmont.

*Pauvres bien-portans.*SARDINIAN
STATES.*Piedmont.*

Y-a-t-il des établissemens pour les pauvres bien-portans, et leurs familles, où on les fasse travailler en leur fournissant de la nourriture et des habillemens ?—Il n'en existe pas. Le seul essai de ce genre qu'on a tenté il y a quelques années à Raconis a complètement échoué dès le commencement devant d'immenses obstacles, et des inconveniens de tous les genres. Il existe bien près de Turin un établissement, qui s'appelle l'Ergastolo, où l'on retire les jeunes vagabonds, et où on les soumet à un travail continuel : mais quoiqu'il suffise d'un simple ordre de la police pour y être renfermé, sans aucune forme de procès, on le considère plutôt comme une maison de correction, que comme une maison de travail.

Il y a toujours des couvens où l'on distribue à la porte des soupes, du pain et autres objets alimentaires. Cependant cet usage déplorable est maintenant trop restreint pour produire sur la population pauvre un effet sensible, si ce n'est peut-être dans quelque parties de la rivièrre de Gênes, où les ordres mendiens sont les plus nombreux, et la misère la plus grande.

Plusieurs institutions charitables ont des noms et des formes religieuses ; mais elles ne s'occupent que rarement des pauvres valides ; leur objet principal est de soigner les malades et les infirmes.

Lorsqu'il y a beaucoup de misère à cause de l'insufficence des récoltes, ou de la rigueur des saisons, les autorités municipales, soit spontanément, soit sur l'invitation et avec l'aide du gouvernement, entreprennent pendant l'hiver des travaux d'utilité publique pour procurer de l'ouvrage à tous les pauvres valides. Cela a lieu surtout dans les grandes villes, comme Turin et Gênes.

Jusqu'à quel point leur distribue-t-on des secours en nature et en argent ?—Ils ne reçoivent jamais, ni du gouvernement, ni des municipalités, aucun secours ; mais ils sont entièrement abandonnés à la charité privée. Dans les occasions solennelles cependant, telles que l'anniversaire de la restauration de la monarchie, ou la célébration de la fête du Roi, un certain nombre de distributions gratuites de comestibles et d'habillemens ont toujours lieu aux familles les plus nécessiteuses.

Il existe dans un grand nombre de villes des monts-de-piété, qui prêtent sur gâge à six pour cent d'intérêt. Ces établissemens ont des réglemens fort rigoureux. Le malheureux emprunteur, s'il ne peut pas libérer avant le terme fixé l'objet engagé, on le met en vente quelle que soit souvent sa valeur comparée avec le montant de sa dette. Malgré cela, le nombre des personnes qui y ont recours est immense ; et je ne crois exagérer en disant, qu'il n'y a que bien peu de pauvres ménagers qui n'aient quelques meubles, ou quelques hardes, parmi les dépôts des monts-de-piété.

Des Pauvres rendus Incapables de Travailler par leur Age.

1. Y-a-t-il des hospices pour recevoir ceux que l'âge a mis dans l'impossibilité de gagner leur vie en travaillant ?—Il n'existe aucun établissement dans ce but ; cependant comme il y a plusieurs hospices destinés aux incurables, on parvient quelquefois à y faire recevoir des pauvres gens dont la seule maladie est l'affaiblissement causé par un âge avancé.

2. Leur donne-t-on des secours à domicile, en nature, et en argent ?—Le Gouvernement et les autorités municipales n'en donnent jamais ; mais il y a plusieurs institutions charitables qui distribuent des secours à domicile. A Turin, par exemple, la congrégation de St. Paul a de très-grandes ressources. La loi établit en outre, que dans chaque commune il doit y avoir une congrégation de charité. Dans le fait, il n'en existe que dans un certain nombre de villages et de villes, presque toutes les communes rurales en étant privées. Là, où elles existent, leurs ressources se composent des revenus de fondations particulières, du produit de certaines quêtes, faites à diverses époques de l'année, soit dans les maisons, soit dans les églises, des dons faits par des personnes charitables. *Ces congrégations font certainement beaucoup de bien ; mais n'étant pas soumises à un réglemant uniforme, et à une direction centrale, il s'ensuit une grande diversité, et une grande irregularité, dans la manière dont chacune d'elles s'administre : source d'immenses abus, que, dans l'état actuel des choses, il est impossible non seulement de réprimer, mais même de constater.*

Il se fait aussi une grande quantité d'aumônes par les mains des curés. Ce sont, sans aucun doute, les mieux distribuées et les plus efficaces ; un grand nombre en est consacré aux vieillards impotens.

Des Malades.

Dans toutes les villes, et même dans un grand nombre de gros bourgs, il y a des hôpitaux ; ainsi tout individu atteint d'une maladie aigue, ou ayant subi un accident grave qui nécessite une opération chirurgicale, est sûr de trouver un établissement public où il sera soigné jusqu'à son entière guérison. Il n'en est pas de même pour les maladies chroniques ou incurables : celles-ci ne sont pas traitées que dans un petit nombre d'hospices, ou il n'est possible de retirer qu'une bien faible portion des individus qui en sont atteints. La plus part de ces malheureux sont abandonnées aux soins de la charité privée. Les conditions d'admission varient beaucoup suivant les différens hôpitaux ; dans le plus grand nombre c'est la fièvre qui constitue la maladie aigue.

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Les hôpitaux ont presque tous des revenus en fond de terre, ou des capitaux sur les fonds de l'état, ou prêtés à des particuliers. Ils reçoivent en outre, lorsque ces revenus sont insuffisans, des subventions sur les deniers des communes et des provinces, et de nombreuses aumônes des personnes charitables. L'administration des hôpitaux n'est pas uniforme; elle varie suivant les endroits; en général cependant c'est le Gouvernement qui y exerce, plus ou moins directement, une influence prépondérante. Dans quelques villes, l'autorité ecclésiastique, et les chapîtres de chanoines, ont une part dans l'administration des hôpitaux; c'est ordinairement là qu'il y a le moins d'ordre et plus d'abus.

Dans le plus grand nombre des communes, il y a des médecins et des chirurgiens que reçoivent une subvention annuelle, soit des autorités municipales, soit des institutions de charité, avec l'obligation de donner gratuitement leurs soins à tous les malades trop pauvres pour les payer. A Turin, et dans quelques autres endroits, il y a en outre des pharmacies où l'on distribue gratis un certain nombre de remèdes les plus usuels et les plus nécessaires, à tous ceux qui sont munis d'un certificat de pauvreté du curé de leur paroisse, toutes les fois que les médecins l'ordonnent. En général les malades qui ne peuvent pas être admis dans les hôpitaux, sont dans un état pitoyable de misère et de dénuement.

DES ENFANS :

Illégitimes.

Si une fille a eu en enfant d'un homme non marié, elle a recours devant le tribunal ecclésiastique, c'est-à-dire l'officialité de son diocèse, pour forcer le seducteur à l'épouser. Si elle parvient à établir sa bonne conduite antérieure, et à prouver qu'il a été usé envers elle de promesses ou d'autres moyens de séduction, le tribunal ordonne le mariage. Le défendeur peut s'y refuser; mais alors la cause est portée devant les juges civils, qui, admettant comme constaté, sans besoin de preuves ultérieures, le fait de la séduction, arbitrent une indemnité en faveur de la fille, proportionnée aux circonstances particulières du cas.

Quant à l'enfant, la loi déclare qu'il a droit à une pension alimentaire, et qu'il peut la réclamer tant de son père que de sa mère.

Il faut d'ailleurs observer que, grâce à la disposition constante des tribunaux ecclésiastiques à accueillir favorablement les réclamations des filles séduites dans le but de réparer par le mariage le mal qui a été fait, et à la grande facilité de se débarrasser des enfans illégitimes en les portant dans les hospices pour les enfans trouvés, le nombre des bâtards élevés dans les maisons particulières est extrêmement limité, même dans les plus basses classes de la société.

Si le seducteur est fils de famille, et se trouve sous la domination paternelle, lors de sa liaison avec la fille qu'il a rendu mère, celle-ci a recours contre ses parens pour en obtenir l'indemnité voulue par la loi. De même, le fils naturel peut réclamer la pension alimentaire à laquelle il a droit, soit de son aïeul paternel, soit de l'hoirie paternelle ou maternelle, si son père et sa mère sont morts sans faire de provisions en sa faveur.

Dans plusieurs villes, il y a des hospices où l'on reçoit tous les enfans en bas âge, sans rechercher ni leur origine ni leur nom. Les parens peuvent demeurer parfaitement inconnus; pour cela ils n'ont qu'à déposer, à la nuit close, leur enfant dans une roue qui dans tous ces hospices communique de la rue dans l'intérieur de la maison, à sonner la cloche pour avertir la personne de garde, et à s'en aller. La roue tourne, on en retire l'enfant, on le reçoit dans l'hospice, en l'inscrivant suivant un numero d'ordre, et il ne reste plus de traces de la manière dont il y est entré.

Des Orphélins, des Enfans trouvés, et des Enfans abandonnés.

Dans les hospices, on ne reçoit que les enfans en bas âge qu'on y apporte.

Il y a des établissemens destinés pour les orphélins; il y en a un à Gênes, tenu avec beaucoup de luxe; et un autre à Turin, où les filles seules sont admises. Ils sont bien loin de suffire à cette classe nombreuse d'êtres aussi intéressans que malheureux.

Hors de ces établissemens, il n'y a aucun secours public pour les orphélins et les enfans abandonnés; ils sont entièrement à la charge de la charité privée.

Des Boiteux, des Sourds et Muets, et des Aveugles.

Il n'y a aucun établissement pour les personnes estropiées ou difformes. Dans les hôpitaux même où l'on traite les maladies chirurgicales, dès qu'un individu cesse d'avoir besoin des secours de l'art, on le renvoie, quant il aurait perdu même l'usage de tous ses membres.

Il y a à Gênes un établissement pour les sourds et muets, qui jouit d'une juste célébrité; on y admet gratuitement les enfans pauvres qui satisfont à de certaines conditions.

Il n'y a aucune institution pour les aveugles.

Hors des établissemens publics, le Gouvernement n'intervient jamais à faveur de ces malheureux; ils sont laissés à la charité publique.

*Des Idiots et des Fous.*SARDINIAN
STATES.*Piedmont.*

Il y a deux grands établissemens pour les fous ; l'un est à Turin, l'autre est à Gênes. Dans tous les deux on paie une modique pension. Ceux qui sont hors de cas de le faire, sont admis tout de même, mais c'est leur commune ou leur province qui paie pour eux. Dans quelques cas rares, on reçoit sans rétribution des individus aliénés.

Il y a dans quelques pays de montagnes, dans la vallée d'Aoste surtout, un grand nombre d'idiots, qu'on appelle vulgairement Crétins. Ils sont pour la plupart doux et inoffensifs ; aussi sont-ils l'objet de la commisération et de la pitié de tous leurs concitoyens. Il y a une telle émulation à les secourir et à leur fournir ce dont ils ont besoin, qu'il n'arrive jamais qu'on soit obligé de retirer un de ces malheureux dans un hospice. On sait d'ailleurs par une touchante croyance populaire, que la protection du Ciel est attachée à la maison habitée par un crétin.

Ce n'est point aux encouragemens que donne la charité publique, qu'il faut imputer le grand nombre de mariages précoces et imprévoyans qui se contractent. Si on en excepte ceux qui ont lieu entre des mendiants de profession, ils sont dûs, pour la plupart, d'abord à la disposition bien naturelle à des gens grossiers et ignorans à se livrer aux impulsions des passions du moment, sans s'inquiéter des conséquences de l'avenir ; et ensuite au zèle aveugle que le clergé, et les personnes dévotes, mettent à encourager toutes espèces de mariages, dans le but erroné de parer aux désordres de mœurs et aux scandales des liaisons illégitimes.

Effets des Institu-
tions de la Charité.

Les rapports de famille ne sont nullement affectés par les institutions de charité. Telles qu'elles sont, l'homme pauvre regardera toujours ses parens comme son unique soutien contre l'adversité. D'ailleurs la loi Romaine sur l'autorité paternelle existant dans toute sa plénitude, les unions de familles sont plus faciles et plus communes que partout ailleurs.

On ne peut pas comparer le prix du travail du journalier honnête et indépendant, avec le gain des mendiants : il y a une si immense différence entre l'existence honorable de l'un, et l'humiliation, l'avilissement, la dégradation morale de l'autre, que, quoiqu'il fut possible que certains individus, habiles à exploiter la pitié du public, gagnassent beaucoup au de là de ce que rapporte un travail ordinaire, néanmoins leur sort ne serait pas comparable.

GENOA.

Genoa.

1. La mendicité publique, n'étant pas actuellement défendue, il est difficile de connoître et d'établir le nombre des individus qui se livrent à cet état. On peut cependant conjecturer qu'il existe au moins deux cent mendiants dans la ville de Gênes, ce qui, en ajoutant leurs familles, ou du moins ceux des membres de leurs familles qui vivent sur le produit de leur quête, peut en porter le nombre de six à sept cent *.

2. Les pauvres non mendiants, et sans emploi, sont secourus à domicile par le magistrat de miséricorde, par les dames de miséricorde, et par d'autres administrateurs charitables, qui leur distribuent le revenu de beaucoup de legs pieux qu'elles sont chargées d'administrer.

3. Les enfans des pauvres, à quelque classe qu'ils appartiennent, sont instruits gratuitement dans les écoles publiques primaires, administrées par l'autorité municipale. Six de ces écoles sont destinées aux garçons, et deux aux jeunes filles.

4. Il y a à Gênes un mont de piété, où les pauvres peuvent emprunter sur gage, à l'intérêt de huit pour cent.

5. Les pauvres de tout âge depuis la première enfance, natifs de la ville de Gênes, sont reçus, logés, et nourris gratuitement, dans l'hospice des pauvres, jusqu'à la concurrence des moyens de cet établissement. On y reçoit aussi les autres pauvres du Duché, moyennant une rétribution modique.

6. Deux grands hopitaux existent à Gênes ; l'un destiné au traitement des maladies aiguës, l'autre aux incurables, et aux aliénés. On vient de commencer la construction d'un nouvel hôpital pour ces derniers. Il existe en outre, dans un des faubourgs de la ville, un petit établissement pour la lèpre et autres maladies de la peau.

7. Le conservatoire des sœurs de S. Joseph fournit, conformément à ses statuts, aux pauvres malades honteux, le médecin, le chirurgien, et les médicamens. Une association pieuse, sous le titre de N. D. de la Providence, a été érigée à Gênes il y a peu d'années dans le même but.

8. Les femmes en couche pauvres, nées dans la ville, ou y domiciliées depuis trois ans, sont admises et traitées gratuitement, au grand Hôpital dit de Pammatone.

9. Les enfans illégitimes, et ceux qui sont abandonnés par leurs parens, sont reçus gratuitement à l'Hôpital de Pammatone, pourvu qu'on les place secrètement dans le tour qui y est établi à cet effet. Ces enfans trouvés restent à la charge de l'administration de l'hôpital,

* The population of Genoa exceeds 80,000.

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STATES.*Genoa.*

l'hôpital, les garçons jusqu'à l'âge de 12 ans révolus, les filles pendant toute leur vie, à moins qu'elles ne se marient.

10. Les fous et les idiots natifs de Gênes et pauvres, sont reçus gratuitement à l'hôpital des incurables, et des aliénés. Ceux des autres parties du Duché, et les non pauvres, y sont aussi reçus, moyennant une retribution proportionnée à la nourriture qu'on leur donne.

SAVOY.

Savoy.

1. La mendicité est fort commune dans les environs de Chambéry et dans la haute Tarentaise. Dans les autres provinces, elle n'est pas plus repandue qu'en France, et bien moins qu'en Italie. Le nombre total des mendiants était de 3,688 en l'année 1789. Il s'éleva sous le régime Français à 4,360. Dès lors la mendicité est beaucoup diminuée, soit par suite de l'abaissement des charges publiques, soit à cause de la cessation des expropriations forcées qui étaient journellement poursuivies par le fisc Français contre les parens des conscrits refractaires, et par les prêteurs d'argent Gênois contre leurs debiteurs. On ne peut maintenant évaluer le nombre des mendiants à plus de 2,500.

2. La mendicité errante étant prohibée par les lois, les mendiants n'ont droit à aucun secours. La ville de Chambéry renferme un dépôt de mendicité, où cent indigens sont recueillis, et où l'on essaye de les occuper à divers travaux.

3. Il existe dans le Duché environ 250 établissemens de charité, qui possèdent des fonds spécialement destinés au soulagement des pauvres du lieu où ils sont situés. Mais ces ressources sont tres-insuffisantes, surtout dans les années de mauvaise récolte. Mais les familles pauvres sont secourues par leurs voisins, leurs parens, les ecclésiastiques, et autres personnes charitables de la commune.

Ces secours sont distribués dans la ville de Chambéry d'après un système très-simple, et qui est peut-être ce qu'on peut trouver de mieux dans ce genre. Les pauvres sont classés en 24 quartiers, dont chacun est confié à la direction de trois dames de charité, dont la plupart appartiennent à la plus haute classe de la société. Chacun de ces bureaux recherche, enregistre, et surveille les besoins des indigens; donne de secours secrettement aux familles pour qui la publicité de leur situation serait un deshonneur; et retire les bienfaits de la charité à ceux qui s'en rendent indignes par leur immoralité. Cette œuvre n'a d'autres ressources que le 10^{me} du prix des billets de théâtre, qui se prélève en faveur des pauvres; le produit des grandes quêtes de Noël et de Pâques, et quelques dons particuliers et secrets. Si elle était assez riche pour pouvoir fournir du travail dans l'intérieur des familles indigentes, cette institution serait bien supérieure à tous les autres établissemens de charité.

Ce que nous venons ci dire ne se rapporte qu'aux indigens en général, car lorsque la pauvreté est jointe à quelque circonstance particulière, elle est recueillie, et secourue dans plusieurs institutions. L'Hospice de Charité de Chambéry a 171 places destinées aux vieillards, aux orphélins, et aux personnes infirmes. L'Asyle de St. Benoît est aussi consacré, dans la même ville, aux vieillards des deux sexes, appartenans à la classe aisée de la société, qui n'ont plus de moyens d'existence, et la maison de orphélins y est destinée à recevoir les jeunes filles sans fortune de la classe moyenne, et des artisans, et à leur donner une éducation, qui puisse leur assurer un sort indépendant.

4. Le Duché de Savoye possède actuellement un grand nombre d'écoles religieuses gratuites, où les enfans des pauvres sont reçus comme les autres. A Chambéry les deux écoles de la Doctrine et de St. Joseph élèvent plus de 700 enfans des deux sexes, dont les quatre cinquièmes ne pourraient se procurer une éducation payée.

5. Il n'existe pas de mont-de-piété en Savoye.

7. Chambéry renferme un Hôtel-Dieu de 80 lits, qui sont constamment occupés. Il y existe en outre des institutions spéciales pour les maladies incurables, ou contagieuses, et pour les voyageurs malades. Les autres localités du Duché où il se trouve des hôpitaux pour les malades sont Annecy, Thonon, St. Jean-de-Maurienne, Montmelian, Moutiers, Yenne, la Roche, la Motte-Servolex, et Thônes.

8. Plusieurs établissemens des sœurs de charité ont été fondés, soit par les communes, soit par de riches propriétaires, pour secourir les malades à domicile. Mais on a été forcé, de renoncer à soulager de cette manière la portion la plus misérable des indigens qui ne prenaient pas les médicamens, ou les rendaient mortels par leur imprudence. Ce genre de secours n'est utile qu'aux personnes qui sont au-dessus des habitudes de la pauvreté et de la misère.

9. Parmi les nombreux établissemens de bienfaisance de la ville de Chambéry, il y existe un hospice, dit de la Maternité, spécialement destiné à recevoir les femmes en couche mariées ou non mariées.

10. L'hospice des enfans trouvés de Chambéry, et celui de Thonon, étant destinées à recevoir tous les enfans abandonnés, qui peuvent même y être déposés clandestinement, la plupart des enfans illégitimes y est portée la première nuit après leur naissance, soit que leurs parens soient riches ou pauvres. Ceux qui naissent dans les provinces éloignées de ces deux villes, sont ordinairement élevés par leur mère, et partagent leur fortune, ou leur indigence.

11. Il existe à quelque distance de Chambéry un hospice pour 60 aliénés qui y sont gratuitement

gratuitement soignés. Mais jusqu'ici cette institution ne renfermait qu'une vingtaine de places, et comme elle était insuffisante les autres aliénés étaient à la charge de leur commune.

La classe des journaliers, telle qu'elle existe en Angleterre, est très-peu nombreuse en Savoye, où la population presque entière est composée de propriétaires. Sur 102,000 familles que contient le Duché, on compte 85,000 chefs de familles propriétaires d'une portion quelconque du sol, dont 80,000 environ sont cultivateurs. Les journaliers ne peuvent par conséquent être beaucoup employés. Aussi les recensements faits en 1789 et en 1801 ne portent que neuf à dix mille personnes, des deux sexes, soit artisans, soit ouvriers de campagne, travaillants à la journée, dans la partie de la Savoye qui formait, depuis 1789, le département du Mont Blanc, et qui donnerait un total de 14 à 15,000 pour tout le Duché. Généralement les journaliers prennent à bail, de quelque petit propriétaire, une portion de chaumière et un demi acre, ou un acre de terres labourables, au prix de 60 à 100 f. qu'ils payent en journées.

Les épargnes sont une chose presque inconnue en Savoye. Chez les gens riches, comme chez ceux qui ne le sont pas, chez le gentilhomme comme chez les paysan, il est insolite et étrange de faire servir les revenus à un autre usage que celui de les dépenser. Quelques gens d'affaires et les usuriers sont les seuls qui songent à augmenter leur patrimoine. On voit aussi quelques négocians et artisans économiser leurs profits; mais dans l'intention seulement d'acquiescer une maison de campagne, à laquelle ils consacrent toutes leurs épargnes subséquentes.

Les indigens ne s'adressent jamais à l'autorité, mais à la charité particulière, qui est inépuisable, car (excepté pendant la famine de 1817,) il n'est jamais arrivé qu'un homme soit mort de faim. Lorsque la conduite des indigens est suspecte, et qu'ils peuvent être considérés comme vagabonds, l'autorité les renvoie dans leurs communes, ou les chasse du pays, s'ils sont étrangers.

VENICE.

Mr. Money's report from Venice is so concise that we insert the whole (663, 634.) We cannot perfectly reconcile the statement at the beginning, that there is no compulsory legal provision for the poor; and that at the end, that every commune is bound to support the poor and indigent within its limits. Perhaps Mr. Money uses the word "bound" in a moral, not a legal sense.

SARDINIAN
STATES.

Savoy.

VENICE.

Population about
104,000.

1. Is there any compulsory legal provision for the poor in Venice?—None.

2. In what manner are the funds arising from voluntary donations collected in Venice?—There is a commission of public charity, composed of the laity of the first rank and consideration in Venice, at the head of which is the patriarch.

All sums destined for the relief of the poor and the indigent, from whatever source, are placed at the disposal of this commission.

These funds arise from bequests, which are numerous, from voluntary contributions, from collections made by lay associations in each of the 30 parishes, which hold their meetings either at the church or at the house of the priest; sometimes from the produce of a lottery; and by a singular contrivance of the late patriarch, to render an old custom of complimentary visits on New Year's-day contributory to the purposes of charity, he had it announced, that all who would subscribe to the funds of the commission of public charity should have their names published, and be exempted from the costly ceremony above adverted to.

3. By what authority are they distributed?—By that of the same commission, which receives the reports of the state of the poor in the several parishes, and particularly inquires into the circumstances of every case.

4. What constitutes a claim to relief, and how is that claim investigated?—Among the lower classes, extreme poverty without the means of obtaining subsistence, or incapability from age or sickness to labour for it, This is certified by the parish priest to the association mentioned in answer to query No. 2, which makes itself acquainted with every case of distress. But there is great distress to be relieved among those who once constituted the higher classes of society, but whose families, since the fall of the Republic, have, from various causes, fallen into decay; these make their application direct to the commission, and are relieved according to their necessities and the state of their funds.

5. What is the amount of relief usually given in each case, and for what length of time is it usually continued?—The amount of relief given, according to the class and circumstances of the distressed, is from 10 cents. to 65 cents. per head per day (or from 3 s. 4 d. to 5 s. 4 d. sterling.)—[*Sic in orig.*]

These alms are continued as long as the parish priest certifies the need of those of the lower classes, or the commission, through its inquiries, are satisfied of the necessities of the others.

6. Is relief given by taking the poor into almshouses or houses of industry, or by giving them relief at home; and in the latter case, is it given in money or in food and clothing?—There are no almshouses in Venice, but there are houses of industry, where work of various descriptions is provided for those who are able to work. Relief is given to many at home, but to most upon their personal appearance before some of the members of the commission.

VENICE.

In winter relief is afforded by the commission, both in food and clothing.

7. What is the number of persons in Venice usually receiving relief, and what is the least and greatest number known during the last 10 years?—The number usually receiving relief, and which is the least number during the last 10 years, is about 47,000; the greatest number in the last 10 years was about 50,000. The last year 42,705 received relief, either at home or by personal application to the commission, and the number in houses of industry and hospitals 4,667*.

8. Is there much difficulty in procuring sufficient funds for the support of the poor in times of distress, or is the supply so large as at all to diminish the industry and providence of the working classes?—It has been found impossible to procure sufficient funds for the support of the poor at Venice, and there never was so large a supply as at all to diminish the industry and providence of the working classes. When the funds prove insufficient, the commune contribute, and after their contributions, whatever is sufficient is supplied by the Government.

9. Do cases of death by starvation ever occur?—Do the poorer classes afford much assistance to one another in time of sickness or want of employment?—Cases of death by starvation never occur. Even during the great distress caused by the blockade in 1813, and the famine in 1817, no occurrence of this kind was known. In fact, the more urgent the circumstances are, the more abundant are the subscriptions and donations.

The poorer classes are remarkable for their kindness to each other in times of sickness and need. Many instances of this have fallen under my own observation.

10. Is there a foundling hospital at Venice, and if so, what is the number of infants annually admitted into it?—There is a foundling hospital in Venice, which was instituted in 1346, and the number received into it annually is between 400 and 500. I have known seven found in the receptacle in one morning.

Each child is immediately given to a wet nurse; at the end of seven or eight days it is vaccinated, and sent to nurse in the country.

11. Do members of the same family, among the poorer classes in general, show much disposition to assist one another in distress, sickness or old age?—There is much family affection in all classes of the Venetians, and in sickness, distress and old age, among the poorer classes, they show every disposition to assist and relieve each other.

The clergy, who have great influence over the lower classes, exert themselves much to cultivate the good feeling which subsists among them towards one another.

12. Have you any other observations to make on the relief afforded to the poor at Venice?—Besides the voluntary contributions and the assistance of the commune and the Government, the several charitable institutions (of which there are no less than 10) in this city, have annual incomes derivable from various bequests in land and other property, amounting to 483,000 Austrian livres (or 16,000 *l.* sterling.) Last year the commune contributed 359,000 Austrian livres (or 11,970 *l.* sterling) and the Government 460,000 Austrian livres (or 15,330 *l.* sterling). The Government contributes annually for the foundlings and the insane of the eight Venetian provinces, 1,000,000 of Austrian livres, (33,000 *l.* sterling). I should remark, that among other resources which the commission of public charity have at their command, is a tax upon the theatres and other places of public amusement.

The total expenditure of the commission of public charity may be taken approximately at 3,000,000 of Austrian livres, or 100,000 *l.* sterling annually, for the city of Venice alone, which is now declared to contain a population of 112,000.

Mendicity is not permitted in the streets of Venice, and although distress does force mendicants to appear when they can escape the vigilance of the police, yet I do not believe that 20 beggars are to be met with in this large and populous city.

The poor in every parish in Venice have the benefit of a physician, a surgeon and medicines gratis; the expense of these is paid by the commune.

Every commune in the Venetian provinces is bound to support the poor and the indigent within its limits, whether they be natives of the commune or not. No commune or parish can remove from it a pauper, because he may have been born in another. Ten years' residence entitles a man to a settlement in a different parish from that of his birth. When a commune to which a pauper does not belong affords him relief, it is always reimbursed by his own parish.

Every commune derives funds from local taxes; the commune of towns from taxes on certain articles of consumption; the communes in the country, where articles of consumption are not taxed, from an addition to the capitation tax, which is levied by the State, but all communes have, more or less, sources of revenue from land, houses, and charitable bequests, which are very frequent in these states.

The number of foundlings at present in the country under the age of 12 years is 2,300. After that age the child is transferred from the family who have the charge of it, and apprenticed to learn some craft or trade, or servitude, but so kind-hearted are the people in the Venetian provinces, that in numerous instances, from attachment to the child which they have reared, they have begged, when the time arrived for its removal, to be allowed to keep it as their own.

Venice, 24 March 1834.

* This amounts to nearly one half of the supposed population.

The information from Portugal and its dependencies consists of answers from Oporto, the Azores and the Canary Islands, to the Commissioners' questions. The following extracts show the general state of these countries. (pp. 642, 643, 644, 645. 647. 686, 687.)

PORTUGAL.

PORTUGAL.

Although poverty prevails to a great extent in Portugal, still the frugal habits and very limited wants and desires of the lower classes of the population in the northern provinces, prevent mendicity from showing itself in those offensive and distressing forms which it assumes in many other countries. The very limited provision which has been made for the poor by the Government, or by public regulation, throws them on their own resources, and makes them careful and provident. Although, during the late siege of Oporto, we issued at one period gratuitously, from a soup society, upwards of 6,000 rations of soup each day, the number of absolute mendicants who were relieved fell greatly short of 1,000. The remainder of the applicants were principally families reduced to distress by the circumstances of the times, who withdrew their claims so soon as the termination of the blockade opened to them other resources and means of support.

Persons destitute of resources, who may be travelling in search of work or otherwise, can claim no pecuniary relief; but the different religious establishments are in the habit of affording a temporary asylum and succour to strangers. There are also houses of refuge for the poor, called "Misericordias," at various places, which are supported by royal gifts, bequests by will, and private donations.

None but the military can be billeted on private houses; and even this right is now contested by the camara (municipality) of Oporto, as contrary to the constitutional charter. Nor are there any houses of industry for receiving destitute able-bodied, or their families, except at Lisbon, where I understand there are royal manufactories where the poor are employed, as well as at a rope-walk called the Cordoario. The different religious establishments are, as I have already observed, in the habit of affording pecuniary relief, as well as of giving food and medical aid to the destitute of every description; but the political changes, by suppressing some and diminishing the resources of all these establishments, must have greatly reduced this description of charity.

In most towns and large villages there are schools to which the poor may send their children free of expense; but they receive neither food nor clothing, and the instruction is extremely limited. The masters are allowed a small stipend by the Government.

Relatives are forced to aid each other, in the degrees of father, mother, child, brother and sister, in cases of want: for persons impotent through age, there are houses of charity, called "Recolhimentos," in most cities and considerable towns, where a limited number of aged or infirm poor of both sexes are lodged, clothed and fed. These establishments are supported in part by royal gifts, and in part by the different municipalities; but no provision is made for the attendance of the sick poor at their own dwellings, nor are they in any case boarded with individuals, or billeted on private houses; but if they have relatives in the degrees above mentioned, these are bound to assist them, if able to do so.

There are public hospitals in most cities and towns, where the sick poor are received and treated gratis. There are also lying-in hospitals, which receive pregnant women (without inquiring as to their being married or not) without any charge; but I am not aware of the existence of any regulation which obliges the medical officers of these establishments to deliver women at their own dwellings, although this is frequently done voluntarily.

Children.

A law or decree, issued in 1772, imposes equally on both parents the duty of maintaining their children, whether legitimate or illegitimate, where they have the means of doing so; and the parentage in the latter case, if the father can be ascertained or is acknowledged. Brothers and sisters are equally bound to assist each other.

But in cases where the parents either have not the means or want inclination to support their illegitimate child, a ready resource is offered by the "Casas dos Expostos" which exist in most towns. These establishments for foundlings are provided with rodas, or revolving boxes, into which the infant is placed, and is received without inquiry. The practice of thus abandoning infants to be reared by public charity, prevails, I am assured, to a painful extent in Portugal.

Cripples, Deaf and Dumb, and Blind.

At Lisbon there is, I understand, an establishment for the reception of the deaf and dumb.

Idiots and Lunatics.

At Lisbon there is an establishment for lunatics, called the Hospital of St. Joseph, where lunatics and idiots are received and supported gratuitously, if without means. Better treatment and greater comforts may be obtained for patients ably to pay for the same. This institution is partly supported by the Government, and partly by voluntary contributions, in the same manner as the misericordias in provincial towns.

PORTUGAL.

It may be observed generally, that in Catholic countries, the care of administering to the wants, both physical and moral, of the poor, being left in a great degree to the clergy and religious establishments, the action of the civil government, as well as of private benevolence in their favour, is much less visible, and far more confined than in Protestant states.

Oporto, 24 April 1834.

THE AZORES.

Vagrants.

The Azores.

In the Azores mendicity is limited to the aged and infirm poor, and to the crippled and blind, for whom there is no legal provision; they are therefore dependent on the charity of the wealthy, to whom they make a weekly application and receive alms. There are no houses for their reception, or asylum of any description, but they obtain a distribution of victuals from the convents, of whatever surplus food remains after the friars and nuns have dined.

Vagrants are not allowed; such people are liable to be imprisoned, and on conviction may be shipped off to India, Angola, &c., or employed on public works, by decrees of the 16th May 1641, 19th May 1684, 4th March 1688, 7th March 1691, and 4th November 1755. Those decrees, though severe, have had a good effect in exterminating vagrancy in the Azores. No relief is given to persons seeking work.

Destitute Able-bodied.

There are no laws for granting relief to the poor of any description, excepting the sick. Able-bodied men in want of work can always find employment on seeking it.

Public schools for teaching reading and writing are established in each municipal district, where the children of the poor are taught gratis. A small tribute on wine produce of the country is levied for payment of these schools, called the Literary Subsidy, and public professors are paid out of it also, who teach Latin, grammar, rhetoric and philosophy to all who choose to attend.

The laws of Portugal oblige the proprietors of entailed property to give alimentary allowances to their children and brothers and sisters, in proportion to their own means and the wants of the applicants. Children coming into possession of property are obliged to assist their parents and brothers, if in necessity. The poor, however, are left to themselves, and to the stimulus of natural affection; and cases are very rare in which appeals are made in vain; but lawsuits are very common to oblige the rich heir of entailed property to give aliments to a brother or sister, as the elder brother takes the whole estate, and the younger branches are entirely dependent on him, if the father has not left money or unentailed property to distribute amongst his other children.

Sick.

In every municipal district there is a public hospital called the Misericordia, *i. e.* house of mercy, for the reception of the sick poor, supported by endowments of land and bequests of money from pious people long since deceased, and voluntary contributions of living persons, where the sick are well treated, and when cured are sent to their families, and if in great distress a small sum of money is given to assist them. These hospitals contain generally from 200 to 300 sick, and are, generally speaking, well conducted by the governors, stewards, medical attendants and nurses. Foreign seamen are also admitted on the respective consuls paying 1s. 6d. per diem for diet and attendance.

In cases where the hospitals are full, and cannot accommodate any more patients, medicines are given to applicants, and surgical and medical advice gratis from the hospital practitioners.

CHILDREN:

Illegitimate.

The mother must support it in case she chooses to suckle the child herself; if, on the contrary, the sense of shame overcomes her maternal feelings, and she takes it to the misericordia, where there is a private place to receive the infant, it is immediately taken care of, and put out to nurse at the expense of the municipality until seven years of age, when it is apprenticed (if a male) to some trade or handicraft, or to a farmer; if a female, to domestic service in some family, where they are fed and clothed until of an age to earn wages. In nine cases out of 10, the practice is to take the child to the misericordia, as pregnancy is more easily concealed here than in other countries, by the peculiar dress of the common class of women. The municipality are at the expense of maintenance of the children, and if their funds are scanty the State pays the deficiency.

Orphans, Foundlings, or Deserted Children.

Orphans.—Various laws have been promulgated in favour of orphans, for whom the respective local magistrates were appointed judges and protectors, which duty now devolves on the justices of the peace. If any property belongs to them, proper guardians are appointed to take care of it, and to educate the children; if none, they are under the municipal

municipal protection until of age to be put apprentice to some trade or calling, service, &c. in cases where their relatives are unable to take charge of them.

Foundlings.—Foundlings are taken charge of and treated as orphans; there are several funds set apart for their support by express decrees of former sovereigns of Portugal; they are received into the misericordias, and supported by the chamber of municipality.

Deserted Children whose Parents are known.—Deserted children are also reputed as foundlings or orphans, and have similar care taken of them by the municipal authorities; the instances are extremely rare of children being deserted by their parents, which is justly held in abhorrence by all classes of persons.

Cripples, Deaf and Dumb, Blind, Idiots and Lunatics.

There are no establishments whatsoever of any kind; they live on the alms bestowed weekly by the benevolent.

In general there prevails much love and affection between parents and children, and from the children much obedience and respect towards their parents, to which they are exhorted by the clergy, who inculcate great subjection to their parents on all occasions.

The poorest able-bodied labourer abhors begging; his utmost exertions are therefore employed to support himself and family; and it is only in cases of sickness, or other corporeal impediment, that he ever has recourse to alms.

In the Island of St. Mary's wheat and barley are chiefly cultivated, but little Indian corn; much waste land is to be seen, arising from the absence of the great proprietors, who live in St. Michael's or at Lisbon.

At Terceira more wheat than Indian corn is to be seen under cultivation; much land lying waste from the want of capital or spirit of enterprize in the proprietors.

At St. George's, being a volcanic soil, there are more vineyards and pasture land than arable.

Gracioza being flat in surface, and having a strong clay soil, much barley and wheat is grown, but little Indian corn; the poor subsist chiefly on barley-bread, pulse, &c.; it also produces much brandy from the low-priced wines.

Pico being very mountainous and volcanic, the whole island is one continued vineyard; little soil for corn; the inhabitants depend upon the other islands for supplies of bread.

Fayal, partly vineyard, the rest corn land and pasture; all the principal proprietors of Pico living at Fayal; the poor of Pico are chiefly supplied from thence by their landlords.

Corvo produces grain, &c. for its consumption only.

Flores: some wheat and Indian corn is exported from thence, also bacon and hams, as large quantities of hogs are bred in that island.

A great deal of land is still uncultivated throughout the Azores, so that no able-bodied labourer can want employment, and for two centuries to come will give employment to the increasing population. The temperature of the climate, ranging from 55° to 78° of Fahrenheit, reduces the physical wants of man as to clothing, fuel, &c.; and the abundance of vegetables, fruits, &c. renders the poor man's lot easier than in colder climates. In the hospitals there is no limit of rations to the sick patients; they have bread, meat, poultry, milk, &c. in abundance. The state of criminals in the prisons is however dreadful; they are not fed by government, and must die if not succoured by relatives, and the casual supply of bread sent them from the misericordia in cases of extreme need; this however is not obligatory on the part of the hospital. Criminals, after sentence to the galleys, are allowed a loaf of bread per day, but nothing more.

St. Michael's, 20 April 1834.

CANARY ISLANDS.

Mendicity; Vagrants; Destitute Able-bodied; Impotent through Age.

Mendicity does prevail to a great extent in the Canary Islands. There is no legal provision whatever for the relief or support of the poor included in the denominations stated above; casual charity is the only resource; but as the natives for the most part remain in the places where they were born, there are very few who have not some relations and acquaintance, from whom they receive occasional assistance. From the nature of the climate, the wants of the poor, when not suffering from sickness, are very limited; having food sufficient to satisfy their hunger, they are scarcely affected by the privations so sensibly felt by the poor in northern climates. "Goffro," (which is maize, barley or wheat, toasted and ground by the hand between two stones,) mixed with water or milk, potatoes and other vegetables, with sometimes a small piece of salt fish, constitute the general food of the peasantry throughout the islands. In the towns the artisans live better, obtaining bread, potatoes, salt fish, and sometimes butchers' meat.

Sick.

In Santa Cruz there is one hospital for the poor, but the accommodation is very limited, (24 beds), in no degree proportional to the wants of the population.

In the town of Laguna is one also, larger than Santa Cruz, and tolerably maintained. At Las Palmas, the capital of the island of Canary, is the largest and best hospital in the islands; near that town also is the hospital of St. Lazarus, exclusively for lepers, of which

PORTUGAL.

Canary Islands.

there are considerable numbers. This hospital is well kept up, and the building in a good state of repair, with a garden walled round. The unfortunate inmates are said to be comfortably provided for.

Children, Illegitimate ; Orphans, Foundlings, Deserted Children.

There are no legal regulations as to illegitimate children; their support therefore falls on the mother. There is a foundling hospital at Laguna in Teneriffe, and another at Las Palmas in Canary; in each a turning box, and a great number of children are by this means disposed of. In the hospital of Santa Cruz is also a turning-box; the infants left are understood to be sent to Laguna. Children placed in the box have usually some mark by which they may be recognised, and they are given up to parents when claimed. There is no other provision for children.

Cripples, Deaf, Dumb and Blind,

Live with their parents or relations, or subsist by casual charity. No provision.

Idiots and Lunatics.

No particular establishment; live with their relations. When violent, they are placed in the hospitals or gaols.

Almost all the land in the Canary Islands is cultivated by agreement between the owners of the land and a class of persons called "medianeros" (middlemen), intelligent husbandmen; the conditions are simple: that the medianero shall cultivate the land, and find half the seed, he retaining half the produce; the other half is delivered to the landlord in kind.

The peasantry are a robust and hardy race, laborious and frugal. There is a great deal of family affection among them. Considerable numbers emigrate to the Havannah and Puerto Rico ostensibly, but it is believed that they are taken to Caraccas and other American countries, once dependencies of the Spanish crown.

GREECE.

GREECE.

There are two sets of answers from Greece to the Commissioners' questions. One a general one, by the Secretary of State for the Interior, the other from Patras, by Mr. Crowe, His Majesty's consul. It will be seen from the following extracts from the Government report, (pp. 665, 666, 667,) that there are scarcely any charitable institutions.

Vagrants.

Before the Revolution, two classes of vagrants existed in Greece: of these, one class consisted of those individuals who, having no property of their own, and being averse to labour, lived by robbery; the other class consisted of those persons who were indeed destitute, but refusing to labour, did not at the same time resort to robbery: the latter existed by the charity of their relations, and of other benevolent individuals, and the former were constantly pursued by the Turkish police.

In two provinces only of the new Greek State, viz. Thravari in Acarnania, and Cloutzinas of Kalavryta, does systematic beggary exist; in these places, many persons mutilated their new-born children for the express purpose of exciting the compassion of the public; but neither before the Revolution, during the Revolution, nor even now, is there any public establishment for the relief of either of the two above classes of vagrants; and notwithstanding that during the Revolution the number of these vagrants increased, it is now certain that their numbers have sensibly diminished, and it is to be hoped that as soon as the municipalities are regularly established, all these individuals will be obliged to labour for their subsistence.

There exists no public institution or decree organizing the relief to be granted to the poor in Greece; neither did anything of the kind exist before the Revolution, although the country was formed into municipalities. It was feared that the Ottoman authorities would appropriate to themselves any resources which might be set apart for the poor. Charitable subscriptions were therefore the only means by which the poor, sick, &c. obtained relief.

Impotent through Age, and Sick.

No regulations ever existed on these heads. The aged who were destitute received, and still receive, assistance from the charitably disposed, and from the monasteries; but this assistance is voluntary, not obligatory.

With regard to hospitals, there are only two, one at Nauplia and one at Syra; the first is at present given up to the military service, and the second, belonging to the municipality of Syra, is maintained by a small duty levied on merchandize; the one at Nauplia was formerly supported in the same manner.

*Children.*GREECE.

The support of bastards falls upon their fathers. With regard to foundlings, who are generally left clandestinely at the church doors, the local authorities take charge of them, and entrust them to nurses, whose expenses are defrayed by the Government; benevolent individuals likewise frequently take charge of them, and bring them up at their own expense. The number of foundlings supported by the Government barely exceeds forty throughout the whole State, by which it appears that depravity of morals in Greece is not great.

For the support of destitute orphans, an establishment (the Orphanotropheion, exists at Ægina, where many are brought up at the expense of the Government, and are taught to read and write, and various trades. However, the nearest relations of the orphans generally consider it to be a religious duty to take care of them; so that in consequence of this praiseworthy feeling, they are seldom left entirely destitute, unless they have no relations, or unless the latter have no means of assistance at their disposal. Moreover, there are numerous benevolent persons who are in the habit of taking orphans into their houses, and bringing them up at their own expense.

Labour hitherto has not much increased in Greece; the labourers are industrious, frugal, and attached to their relations.

I may add, that in consequence of the vast extent of land in Greece in comparison with the number of its inhabitants, the latter apply themselves mostly to agriculture and the care of flocks, by which means they procure ample means of subsistence; and the few manufactures which exist in Greece being all made by hand, sufficient employment is to be procured by every individual. These are the reasons why the number of the poor is so limited notwithstanding that late events were so much opposed to the progress of arts and industry.

EUROPEAN TURKEY.

The only remaining portion of Europe which has furnished answers to the Commissioners' questions is European Turkey; with respect to which it may be enough to say, that the only charitable institutions mentioned in the return are religious establishments and khans, in which vagrants are allowed to remain a few days, and receive food; and schools attached to the mosques, in which children of every description receive gratuitous instruction in reading and writing.

EUROPEAN
TURKEY.

One of the most striking circumstances connected with the countries which we have last considered is the accuracy with which the population seems to be regulated with reference to the demand for labour. In the ill-administered parts of England there is in general no approach to any such regulation. That sort of population which, from our familiarity with it, has acquired the technical name of a surplus population, not only continues stagnant in places where its services are no longer required, but often springs up and increases without any increase of the means of profitable employment. The parochial returns, forming Part B. of this Appendix, are full of complaints of a want of labourers in one parish, and an oversupply in another; without any tendency of the redundancy to supply the deficiency. In time, of course the deficient parish is filled up by natural increase; but in the mean time the population of the redundant parish does not seem to diminish. In general, indeed, it goes on increasing with unchecked rapidity, until, in the worst administered portions of the kingdom, a state of things has arisen of which the cure is so difficult that nothing but the certainty of absolute and almost immediate ruin from its increase, or even from its continuance, would have induced the proprietors to encounter the dangers of the remedy. Nothing like this, indeed, exists in any of the countries affording compulsory relief, except Berne, which have given us returns. But they provide against its occurrence, as we have already observed, by subjecting the labouring classes, indeed all classes except the opulent, to strict regulation and control, by restraining their marriages, forcing them to take service, and prohibiting their change of abode unless they have the consent of the commune in which they wish to settle. By a vigilant exertion of these means the population of the north of Europe and Germany seems in general to be proportioned to the means of employment and subsistence; but in the countries which have escaped the compulsory system the same results are produced without interference or restriction. Complaints are often made in the different returns of the

General absence, in the countries not subject to compulsory relief, of a surplus population.

idleness, the drunkenness and the improvidence of the labouring classes, but never of their disproportionate number.

Another and a very interesting portion of the information which the intelligence and industry of His Majesty's foreign Ministers and Consuls have enabled us to submit to the public, consists of the answers to the questions respecting labourers. In order to facilitate a comparison between the state of the English and foreign populations, the questions proposed were in general the same as had been already answered in England, either by the population returns, or by the returns to the questions circulated in England by the Poor Law Commissioners.

The following questions, being 1, 3 & 7, correspond to the English questions 8, 10, 13 & 14, of the rural queries:—

1. (8 of English questions). What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month, or the year, with and without provisions, in summer and in winter?

3. (10 of English questions). What in the whole might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest work, and the whole of all his advantages and means of living?

7. (13 of English questions). What in the whole might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8 & 5 years respectively, (the eldest a boy), expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?

8. (14 of English questions). Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children; and if so, on what food?

The following is a digest of the answers from all the agricultural parishes in England which have replied to the corresponding Questions circulated by the Poor Law Commissioners:—

Agricultural wages
in England.

Q. 8. Weekly wages, with or without beer or cyder, in summer and winter?

254 parishes give an average in summer, with beer or cyder, of per week,
10 s. 4 $\frac{3}{4}$ d.

522 parishes give an average in summer, without beer or cyder, of per week,
10 s. 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.

200 parishes give an average in winter, with beer or cyder, of per week,
9 s. 2 $\frac{1}{4}$ d.

544 parishes give an average in winter, without beer or cyder, of per week,
9 s. 11 $\frac{3}{4}$ d.

Q. 10. What in the whole might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and piece-work, expect to earn in the year, including harvest work, and the value of all his other advantages and means of living, except parish relief?

Q. 13. What in the whole might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8 & 5 years respectively, (the eldest a boy), expect to earn in the year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?

856 parishes give for the man, an average of - - - £. 27 17 10

668 parishes give for the wife and children, an average of - - - 13 19 10

Average annual income of the family - - - £. 41 17 8

Q. 14. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children ; and if so, on what food ?

Subsistence of agricultural labourers in England.

	Number of Parishes answering Q. 14.	No. (simply.)	Yes. (simply.)	Barely, or without Meat.	With Meat.
Bedford - - -	15	1	3	-	11
Berks - - -	24	2	1	2	19
Bucks - - -	27	2	5	5	15
Cambridge - - -	33	2	11	3	17
Chester - - -	12	-	5	2	5
Cornwall - - -	24	-	1	2	21
Cumberland - - -	33	-	7	13	13
Derby - - -	7	-	2	-	5
Devon - - -	18	1	7	1	9
Dorset - - -	16	1	4	2	9
Durham - - -	30	-	6	4	20
Essex - - -	38	9	9	6	14
Gloucester - - -	19	-	7	5	7
Hereford - - -	16	2	1	5	8
Hertford - - -	16	-	2	6	8
Huntingdon - - -	9	2	-	1	6
Kent - - -	43	5	12	2	24
Lancaster - - -	14	-	8	1	5
Leicester - - -	14	-	6	3	5
Lincoln - - -	14	1	5	-	8
Middlesex - - -	2	-	-	-	2
Monmouth - - -	7	-	2	1	4
Norfolk - - -	27	2	8	-	17
Northampton - - -	14	-	2	1	11
Northumberland - - -	18	-	2	-	16
Nottingham - - -	19	-	7	1	11
Oxford - - -	21	-	8	3	10
Rutland - - -	4	-	3	-	1
Salop - - -	19	-	1	-	18
Somerset - - -	22	2	-	6	14
Southampton - - -	43	3	7	6	27
Stafford - - -	12	1	1	-	10
Suffolk - - -	26	4	9	3	10
Surrey - - -	20	-	5	2	13
Sussex - - -	68	21	18	7	22
Warwick - - -	31	1	4	4	22
Westmorland - - -	17	3	4	5	5
Wilts - - -	24	1	7	4	12
Worcester - - -	18	1	6	2	9
York - - -	65	4	16	17	28
(40)					
TOTAL - - -	899	71	212	125	491

We now add a digest of the foreign answers to the corresponding questions, and also to Question 6, "What can women, and children under 16, earn per week in summer, in winter, and in harvest, and how employed?" a question as to which the English answers do not admit of tabular statement.

Wages and subsistence of Foreign labourers.

We have arranged the answers under seven heads: 1. Wages of artizans; 2. of agricultural labourers; 3. of labourers whom the author of the return appears not to have included in either of the other two classes; 4. of women; 5. of children; 6. of the labourer's wife and four children; and 7. the food on which the supposed family could subsist, on their average annual earnings and means of living.

AMERICA:	ARTISANS, per day.	AGRICULTURISTS.	OTHER LABOURERS.	WOMEN.	CHILDREN.	WIFE and Four Children.	SUBSISTENCE.
MASSACHUSETTS, p. 683	-- First-rate, 2 to 3 dollars, others, 1½ dollars, 6s. 9d.; overseers, per year, 1,500 to 3,500 dollars.	-- Per day, in harvest, 1 to 1½ dollars; per month, with board and lodging, 14 to 18 dollars during summer and autumn (six months), some all the year; others during the other six months 10 to 12 dollars a month.	-- Per year, 250 to 300 dollars, i. e. 56 l. 5 s. to 67 l. 10 s.	-- At factories, per week, 2½ to 5 dollars.	- - - - -	- - - - -	-- There are very few who do not eat meat, poultry or fish twice or three times a day.
NEW YORK - p. 158	-- Dollar and a half; one-fourth less in winter and dull times.	-- Per month, 1 l. 10 s. to 2 l. 5 s., with board, washing and mending; per day, in harvest 4 s. 6 d. with board.	-- 3 s. 6 d. per day; 44 l. per year.	Per day, 1 s. 6 d. to 3 s. 6 d.	Early enfranchised - -	-- The children quit their parents and shift for themselves. The wife may earn 1 s. 6 d. to 3 s. 6 d. a day.	-- A family united could subsist well on their aggregate earnings, have tea, coffee and meat twice a day.
MEXICO - p. 690	-- Double the wages of the agriculturists.	1 s. to 1 s. 4 d. per day - -	- - - - -	Enough for their support -	Enough for their support -	- - - - -	-- Most certainly. The common food of working people in Mexico is maize or Indian corn, prepared either as porridge (atole), or in thin cakes (tortillas), and beans (frijoles), like the white beans so much in use in France, with the addition of chile, a species of hot pepper, of which they eat enormous quantities by way of seasoning. In the towns wheaten bread forms a part of the food of the lower classes, and meat occasionally.
CARTHAGENA DE CO- LUMBIA, p. 166.	- - - - -	- - - - -	-- Per day, town, 2 s., country, 1 s. to 1 s. 6 d.; in year, about 12 l.	-- As servants, about one-third a man's wages.	-- Under 16, as servants, about one-third a man's wages.	-- Per year, about 50 l. (supposed to include man's wages, but even then apparently excessive.)	-- Very comfortably; chiefly on animal food.
VENEZUELA - p. 163	- - - - -	-- Per day, 1 s. 6 d. with usual provisions,	- - - - -	1 s. 1½ d. to 1 s. 6 d. per day	-- Under 16, 1 s. 1½ d. to 1 s. 6 d. per day.	15 l. per year - - -	-- Maize cakes, with vegetables and fruit, form the chief aliments of the peon and his family; and they can with little difficulty subsist, if they choose to work, on their aggregate earnings.
MARANHAM - p. 693	Per day, 1 s. - - - -	-- Generally slaves; where hired they earn about 17 s. a month, and food.	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	-- The necessities of life are few, and easily obtained.
BAHIA - p. 731	2 s. per day; 25 l. per year	- - - - -	- - - - -	Women and children, nothing.	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
URUGUAY - p. 723	- - - - -	-- Herdsmen, slaves or guachos, 8 dollars a month, by the year.	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	-- A family may subsist on the labour of the husband alone, and have a meal with meat three times a day.
HAYTI - p. 168	-- Per day, from 2 s. 6 d. to 3 s.; per year, 38 l.	-- Per day, 7 d.; per year, 9 l. 10 s.	- - - - -	-- As servants, from 10 s. to 20 s. a month.	- - - - -	- - - - -	-- A family can easily subsist on the earnings of their parents. Their food consists of what are termed "ground provisions," i. e. plantains, sweet potatoes, and other vegetables and fruits, which if not raised by themselves are obtained at a cheap rate.

EUROPE:

NORWAY - - p. 698

P. L. (r.)

-- Per week, 5 s. 4 d. to 7 s. 2 d., with food and lodging and tools.	-- Per day, 3 d. to 5 ½ d., with food.	-- Per day, in or near Christiania, summer, 10 ½ d., winter, 8 ½ d.; per year, 11 l. 10 s. 9 d.	-- Per week, summer, and occasionally in winter, 3 s. 6 d.	-- Per week, above 14, and under 16, 17 d.	Per year, about 6 l. 4 s. 3 d.	-- Except in illness, it can subsist on its aggregate earnings. The labourers live on very simple food: salt herrings, oatmeal porridge, potatoes, coarse oatmeal bread, may-be twice a week a piece of bacon or salt beef, and along the coast, and the rivers and lakes, on fresh fish. Corn brandy is in general use.
-- Per day, during nine months, 1 s. 7 d.; winter, indoors, 1 s. 7 d. nearly outdoors, nothing.	-- Per day, skilled, 7 d. to 8 d., unskilled, 3 d. to 4 d.; average the year, about 11 l.	--	Per day, as agriculturists, in summer, 4 d.	--	-- Per year, as agriculturists: £. s. Wife - - - 5 - Boy of 14 - - 2 10 Children 11 & 8 1 - £. 8 10	-- It could subsist. The agriculturists in the southern provinces on potatoes and salt-fish, in the northern, on porridge and rye bread; the artisans on better food than the agriculturists, with coffee, and occasionally fresh meat.

SWEDEN:

Stockholm (Mr. Bloomfield's Return) p. 374

Count Forsell's Statement - - p. 380

-- The support of a cottager's household, consisting of husband, wife and three children, in the middle part of Sweden, costs yearly about 146 ½ r.d., according to the prices of last year; the husband being occupied during the whole year, and his wife having enough to do with the care of her children, so that neither she nor her husband can calculate on any additional earnings.

The labourer receives 2 ½ barrels of rye, or in money 16 r.d. 32 sk.; 1 barrel of corn, 5 r.d. 16 sk.; half barrel of pease, 3 r.d. 16 sk.; half ditto of malt, 2 r.d. 32 sk.; 2 ditto potatoes, 2 r.d.; 1 ½ lb. salt, 32 sk.; 4 lbs. herrings, 2 r.d. 16 sk.; 1 lb. of butter, 4 r.d. 16 sk.; 3 lbs. of hops, 1 r.d.; 1 ½ pint of sweet milk per day, 10 r.d. 16 sk.; 3 pints of sour milk during the summer, 4 r.d. 16 sk.; 9 gallons of bränvin (a kind of whisky), 5 r.d. 16 sk.; lodging and fuel. 16 r.d. 32 sk.; annual wages in money, 44 r.d.; earnest, 3 r.d. 16 sk.; contributions, 3 r.d. 16 sk.; sundries, 6 r.d. 34 sk.; total banco, 146 r.d. 32 sk. That is, on an average, 29 r.d. 16 sk. annually for every individual; and daily, 3 sk. 10 ½ rst.

On a gentleman's estate in the neighbourhood of Stockholm, the following was given last year: Annual pay in money, 33 r.d. 16 sk.; ½ barrel of wheat, 2 r.d. 32 sk.; 4 barrels of rye, 24 r.d.; 2 barrels of corn, 9 r.d. 16 sk.; 2 ditto potatoes, 2 r.d.; 10 heads of white cabbage, 32 sk.; ½ barrel of herrings, 4 r.d. 32 sk.; 1 lb. of salt, 21 sk.; 2 lbs. of meat, 2 r.d.; 1 lb. of bacon, 2 r.d. 32 sk.; 1 lb. of hops, 16 sk.; 2 pairs of shoes, 3 r.d. 16 sk.; sweet milk, 10 r.d.; sundry expenses, 5 r.d.; lodging, wood, earnest, taxes, 25 r.d.: equal to 123 r.d. 21 sk. Were that sum divided among five persons, 25 r.d. 29 sk. would accrue to each; and daily, 3 sk. 3 rst.

The household of a cottager belonging to this estate, about 10 English miles from Stockholm, was bound, according to a written contract, for 10 years to perform the following labour for the estate or landowner; namely,

208 days' work for a man	at 21 sk. 6 rst.	-	-	-	R.d. sk.
40 - ditto - for a woman,	at 10 sk. 8 rst.	-	-	-	93 8
14 journeys to Stockholm,	1 r.d.	-	-	-	8 42
To mow and get in 14 acres of meadow	-	-	-	-	14 -
To cut down and carry home 5 sawn timbers	-	-	-	-	10 32
Ditto - - ditto - 4 fathoms of firewood	-	-	-	-	2 32
Ditto - - ditto - 100 pairs of stakes	-	-	-	-	5 16
To put out fishing-lines	-	-	-	-	2 -
To keep in order a portion of the main road	-	-	-	-	3 -
Ditto - - ditto - - - bye-road	-	-	-	-	2 -
To spin for wages	-	-	-	-	6 -
To gather berries	-	-	-	-	2 -
Sundry accidental jobs	-	-	-	-	32 -
					3 -
Total R.d. banco	-	-	-	-	143 18

Bread, meal, salad, potatoes and other vegetables	-	-	-	R.d.
Meat, butter, cheese, herrings and other fish	-	-	-	120
Milk, beer, bränvin, (or whisky)	-	-	-	176
Candles, coals, wood	-	-	-	26
Clothes	-	-	-	24
Rent and furniture	-	-	-	60
Taxes, medicines and sundries	-	-	-	50
	-	-	-	24
Total	-	-	-	R.d. 546

Hence will be seen that the master of such a family must earn daily, during the whole year, nearly 2 r.d. banco, and consequently no masons, carpenters, smiths, &c. can be included in this class. If the husband, wife or children are sick for any length of time, the state of such a family is far more deplorable than that of the agricultural peasantry of Sweden.

Note.—146 ½ r.d.s. = 11 l. — 1 lb. = 20 lbs. English. — 1 dollar = 48 skillings. — 1 skilling = 1 ½ farthing. A dollar therefore is worth 72 farthings, or 1 s. 6 d.

(continued)

	ARTISANS, Per Day.	AGRICULTURISTS.	OTHER LABOURERS.	WOMEN.	CHILDREN.	WIFE and Four Children.	SUBSISTENCE.
EUROPE—continued.							
SWEDEN—continued. GOTTENBURGH (Consul's Return) - p. 386	Per day, 1 s. 6 d. to 2 s. -	- Per day, 6 d. to 9 d.; per year, 7 l. 13 s. (Few such labourers).	Per day, 10 d. to 1 s. -	- In towns, per week, summer, 6 s. to 9 s.; win- ter, 4 s. to 6 s. (This seems too large).	- Under 16, in harvest, per day, 2 d. to 3 d. -	Per year, about 3 l. -	- Yes; on the following food, viz. 11 bushels of rye, cost 1 l. 5 s.; 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ bushels of barley, 8 s.; 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ ditto of pease, 5 s.; 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ ditto of malt, 4 s.; 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ ditto of potatoes, 3 s. 2 d.; 19 lbs. of salt, 1 s.; 75 lbs. of herrings, 3 s. 6 d.; 19 lbs. of butter, 6 s. 6 d.; 3 lbs. of hops, 1 s.; 19 lbs. of stock- fish, 2 s. 3 d.; 19 lbs. of pork, 4 s. 6 d.; half a cow, 15 s.; about three pints of sweet milk daily, 15 s. 2 d., and six pints of sour milk, in summer, daily, 6 s. 6 d.; 42 bottles of potatoe brandy, 8 s. 3 d.; lodging and wood, 1 l. 5 s.; taxes, 5 s.; sun- dries, 10 s. Wages, about 3 l. 10 s., or in the whole, say, 10 l. 18 s. 10 d. The above statement applies to a small farmer; reduce it about one- third, and it may apply to a common (married) labourer in the country.
RUSSIA: General Return, p. 334	- (No distinction of classes given.) The pay of labourers varies in different parts of Russia. In Georgia, it is 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per day, which is the lowest; in St. Peters- burgh, it is 1 s. 3 d. per day, which is the highest.						- It would subsist. On rye bread, buck wheat and sour cabbage soup, well seasoned with salt, and occa- sionally a little lard.
ARCHANGEL Return, p. 338	- Summer, 10 d., winter, 8 d.; often doubled. Per Year: 18 l. to 30 l.	- Summer, 8 d., winter 6 d.; often doubled.				- Per year, 10 l. to 15 l. (This is supposed to be the meaning of the answers to queries 6 and 7.)	- Decidedly yes. Their food con- sists of fish, rye bread, gruel, kvas, occasionally meat and turnips. A great deal of tea is also drunk by the peasants of this neighbourhood.
COURLAND Return, p. 341	- Per day, skilled, 3 s. to 4 s.; unskilled, 1 s. 6 d. to 2 s.	- Paid by land for sub- sistence.	- Per day, summer, 1 s.; winter, few pence less.	- Per week, summer, 3 s. 6 d.; winter, 2 s. 6 d.	- Per week, under 16, summer, 3 s., winter, 2 s.	- Per year, 30 l. to 35 l., (supposed to include man's earnings).	- They can subsist on the aggregate earnings, in most cases, however, but needy; on bread, potatoes, salted fish, &c., seldom beef.
DENMARK: COPENHAGEN Return, p. 267	- One-third more than agriculturists.	- Per day, 6 d. to 8 d. (with, in harvest, provisions of poor quality); per year, 15 l. (Sunday nearly a day of work.)		Per day, 4 d., all the year -		- Man, wife and four chil- dren, working on the Sun- days, about 12 s. a week.	- It is frequently done. The food wholesome rye bread, bad milk, cheese, shocking butter, coffee, as it is called, profusion of tobacco and snuff, and too much spirits, which are unfortu- nately cheap and very bad.

ELSINORE Return, p. 296	-- No sub-division. Per day, summer, 9 d. to 10 d., or 6 d. to 7 d. with food; winter, 6 d. to 7 d., or 4 d. to 5 d. with food; per year, 12 l. to 15 l.	-- Summer, four months, 2 s. 6 d. to 3 s. per week; winter, eight months, 1 s. 6 d. to 2 s. a week.	--	--	Per year, about 6 l.	-- With prudence and economy, which, however, are no characteristics of the peasantry of this country, I doubt not it might be done. Their principal food consists of rye bread, groats, potatoes, coffee, butter, cheese and milk, in which articles a family consisting of man, wife and three children, would expend about 15 l. per annum in this neighbourhood; in other parts of the country they fare worse. Food is cheap.
Further Statement, by Consul Macgregor, p. 299	-- Per week, with food, 4 s. 6 d. to 6 s. 9 d.; without food, 11 s. to 11 s. 6 d. In manufactories, per week, male, 4 s. 6 d. to 5 s.; children above 14, 3 s. 6 d. to 4 s., or under 14, 1 s. 9 d. to 2 s. 3 d.; ropemakers, 1 s. 9 d. to 2 s. 3 d. per day.	-- Per year, with food and lodging, males, 4 l. to 5 l.; females, 3 l. 10 s. to 3 l. 15 s.; boys, 2 l. 10 s. to 3 l. 15 s.	-- Per day, in towns, 1 s. to 1 s. 6 d. Agriculture, males, 5 d. to 10 d.; females, 5 d. to 7 d.; with food, one-half less.	--	--	--
HANSEATIC TOWNS: BREMEN - p. 413	-- No sub-division. Per day, in the country, summer, 1 s., winter, 9 d.; per year, 17 l. 10 s. to 25 l.	-- Per day, country, summer, 6 d.; winter, 4 d. Town, 4 d.	-- Per week, from 12 to 16, in tobacco manufactories, 3 s. 6 d.	--	--	-- Can very well support itself. They can subsist upon potatoes, beans, buck wheat or grits, and rye bread, and twice a week meat or bacon.
LUBECK - p. 415	-- Per week, 7 s. to 14 s., or if constantly employed, and with board and lodging, 2 s. 4 d. to 4 s.; per year, 30 l.	-- Per day, summer, 9 d.; winter, 7 d.; harvest, 1 s. Per year, 12 l.	-- Town, 7 d. a day; country, in harvest, 7 d. a day.	--	--	-- Even comfortably, on the usual food of the poorer classes here, namely, coarse rye-bread, potatoes, bacon, fat or dripping, milk, porridge made of pease, groats or peeled barley, herings or other cheap fish, butter and lard, but very seldom meat. Greatest luxury a cup of coffee in the morning.
MECKLENBURG p. 422	-- Per week, in towns, 7 s. to 10 s. 6 d., and free boarding. In the country, about two-thirds.	-- Per week, in country, 3 s. 6 d., a dwelling, garden and pasture for a cow and two sheep in summer, and provender for them in winter.	--	--	--	-- Could subsist on good sound food, and occasionally meat.
DANTZIG - p. 465	-- Per day, summer, 13 ½ d.; winter, 23 d.	-- Per day, summer, 4 ½ d. to 7 d.; winter, 3 ½ d. to 4 ½ d., besides a dwelling either free of, or at a small rent, pasture for a cow in summer, and a small load of hay in winter, and fuel.	-- Per day, country, summer, 3 ½ d. to 4 ½ d.; winter, 2 ½ d. to 3 d. Towns, 4 ½ d. to 7 d.	-- Per day, from 12 to 16, country, 2 ½ d. to 3 d.; towns, about 2 ½ d.	-- Per year, country, woman, 3 l. 15 s.; boy, 12 to 16, 3 l. Towns, women, 4 l. 10 s.; boy, 12 to 16, 3 l.	-- Very well; living in the country on rye-bread, potatoes and other vegetables, fruit, food of wheat, flour, lard, milk, meat once or twice weekly, and fish; but chiefly on rye bread and potatoes.

(continued)

EUROPE <i>continued.</i>	ARTISANS, Per Day.	AGRICULTURISTS.	OTHER LABOURERS.	WOMEN.	CHILDREN.	WIFE and Four Children.	SUBSISTENCE.
SAXONY - p. 481	-- The average amount of wages is not more than 9 d. a day		--	-- A woman can earn on an average 3 d. daily, a child, 1 d.	--	--	-- Parents with four children, with management, abstemiousness and diligence, can earn their livelihood.
WURTEMBERG (Mr. Wellesley's Return) - p. 510	-- Per week, in towns, 1 to 2 ½ fl., fed and lodged. In villages, 20 kr. to 1 fl., fed and lodged. <i>Note.</i> —1 fl. is equal to 60 kr., or to 20 d. sterling.	-- Per year, with food and lodging, in towns, 50 to 60 fl.; in villages, 20 to 40 fl.; without food and lodging, 150 fl., but with food and wood under market price in winter.	--	-- Per week, 42 kr. to 1 fl. 30 kr.; in manufactures, 1 fl. 40 kr. to 2 fl. 30 kr.	-- Per week, 20 to 40 kr.; in manufactures, 1 fl. 12 kr. to 2 fl.	-- Per year, from 40 to 50 fl. The children too much in school to earn much (supposed to include man's wages).	-- They could. In the morning, soup and potatoes and bread; dinner, vegetables or pudding; between dinner and supper, bread; supper, potatoes and milk or soup; once or twice a week, meat.
Government Return, p. 525	-- A.) A grown-up female— a) By spinning and ordinary knitting can seldom gain more than 4, 6 or 8 kr. daily; by finer knitting, embroidery, lace-making and other such female work, which are paid by the piece, can seldom gain more than from 10 to 25 kr. one day with another. b) A sempstress receives, in the country, in small places, from 4 to 6 kr., in larger places and towns, from 12 to 15 kr.; in the capital, a draughtsman, an ironer, a plaiter, from 24, 36 to 48 kr. daily; besides board. c) A washerwoman or charwoman receives in the country only 8, 10, 12, 15 to 18 kr.; in the capital, 36 kr. daily, with board; or without board, from 1 fl. to 1 fl. 12 kr. d) A maid servant receives, in money and money's worth, annually, besides board, in the country only 16, 18, 20 to 24 fl.; in the capital, 24, 30, 36 to 40 fl.; to which, according to circumstances, vails are to be added, especially in the capital. B) A male adult receives, namely— a) A journeyman workman— aa) In the country, with the shoemakers and tailors, 20, 24 to 30 kr.; with the bakers, 48 kr. to 1 fl.; with the smiths, 48 kr. to 1 fl. 12 kr.; with calenders and tanners, 48 kr. to 2 fl. weekly, with board; a journeyman carpenter or bricklayer, from 30 to 36 kr. daily, with bread and something to drink. bb) In the capital, with board, from 1 fl. 12 kr. to 2 fl. 42 kr. weekly; without board, 36 kr. to 1 fl. daily; on Sunday, nothing. b) A man servant receives, in the country, 20, 30, 36 to 40 fl.; in the capital, 50 to 60 fl. and more per annum, with board. c) A farmer's labourer or other day labourer in the country, 12, 15, 18, 20 to 24 kr. daily, with board, or, instead of the latter, 10 or 12 kr. in money; in the capital, in winter, from 24 to 30 kr.; in summer, from 36 to 48 kr., for every thing. d) A wood-cleaver can gain daily in all only from 20 to 24, and at the most, 30 kr. All these rates of wages rise or fall according as the work requires more or less dexterity or exertion, as the individual workman is more or less distinguished by skill, strength or diligence, as the scarcity and the supply of workmen is greater or less, as the days are longer or shorter, &c.						
BAVARIA - p. 556	-- Good labourers, 8 d. per day; generally provisions at harvest time. There are very few day labourers in the country.	-- In towns, from 8 d. to 16 d. a day.	--	--	--	--	--
FRANKFORT - p. 567	-- Per day, summer, 1 s. 4 d. to 1 s. 6 d.; winter, 2 d. less; 2 d. a day extra for drink-money. Per year, 14 l. to 28 l.	--	Per day, 10 d. to 1 s.	Per day, 8 d. to 1 s. 4 d.	-- Per day, under 16, 2 d. to 4 d.	--	-- Yes. Meat twice a week; soup, vegetables, potatoes, bread, coffee and beer daily.
HOLLAND (General Return,) - p. 585	Not classified. From 150 to 225 florins, or from 12 l. 10 s. to 18 l. 15 s. a year	--	--	--	--	-- From 20 to 30 florins, (from 1 l. 13 s. 4 d. to 2 l. 10 s.)	-- They could subsist thereon, and live upon bread, principally rye, cheese, potatoes, vegetables, beans and pork, buttermilk, with buck wheat, meal, &c.

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EUROPE—continued.	ARTISANS, Per Day.	AGRICULTURISTS.	OTHER LABOURERS.	WOMEN.	CHILDREN.	WIFE and Four Children.	SUBSISTENCE.
FRANCE—continued. LA LOIRE INFÉRIEURE, p. 176	-- Per day, summer and winter, 1 s. 8 d. to 2 s. 6 d. Per year, 26 l. 10 s., in Nantes.	-- Per day, summer and winter, 7½ d. to 10 d. Per year, 12 l. to 12 l. 10 s. If lodged and boarded, from 5 l. to 8 l. 6 s. 8 d.	-- Per day, summer and winter, 1 s. -½ d. to 1 s. 3 d. Per year, 13 l. - s. 5 d. to 15 l. 12 s. 6 d. in Nantes.	-- Per day, summer and winter, 4 d. to 8 d. in the country, 6 d. to 10 d. in towns.	-- Per day, summer and winter, 3 d. to 6 d., under 16, in Nantes.	-- Per year, in Nantes, sometimes from 15 l. to 16 l. 13 s. 4 d.; in the country considerably less.	-- If the father obtains constant employment, and applies the whole of his earnings to the support of his family, and his wife and children are enabled to add 200 or 300 francs thereto, he may have in his power to buy a little bacon or other meat now and then, and maintain his family without assistance from the bureau de bienfaisance, but that allows only 70 francs to provide fuel and clothes for the whole family, after the hire of a room. The bread and vegetables had been paid for out of the father's wages.
BOURDEAUX - p. 235	-- Per day, 1 s. 7½ d. to 2 s. 5 d.	-- Daily labourer, 1 s. 4½ d. Yearly labourer : Money - - - £. 17 - Other advantages, 4 12 Annual income, £. 21 12	- - - - -	-- Per week, 3 s. 4½; in harvest, 4 s. 2½ d.; in the vine districts, except during harvest, 2 s. 10 d.	Per year, 12 l.	-	-- Certainly. The food varies in different districts. Throughout the district called Landes (heath) occupying alone one-third of this department, the food consists in rye bread, soup made of millet, cakes made of Indian corn, now and then some salt provision and vegetables, rarely if ever butchers' meat; their drink water, which for the most part is stagnant.
BAYONNE - p. 261	-- Per day, average workmen, 1 s. 3 d. to 1 s. 6 d.; best workmen, 2 s. 6 d. to 3 s.	-- Per day, town and country, 1 s. Very few in the country.	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	-	-- The food of the proprietor or working farmer chiefly consists of vegetable soups, potatoes, salt fish, pork, bacon, &c. &c., seldom or ever butchers' meat, and invariably Indian corn bread, home-baked.
MARSEILLES - p. 188	-- Labourers (of what description not stated) per day, 15 d. to 18 d.; by the year, 7 l. to 8 l., with board and lodging.	16 l. to 20 l. without board and lodging.	- - - - -	-- Per day, 7 d. to 9 d., all the year.	-- Per day, aged 11 and under 16, same as woman; under 11, nothing.	-	-- They could subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children. Their food is generally composed of vegetables, bread and farinaceous substances made into soup, &c.; and meat soup or bouillie probably once a week.
PIEDMONT, pp. 657, 658	-- From 1 s. 8 d. to 4 s. 2 d. The first sum forming the wages of a carpenter or mason, the second those of a clever goldsmith.	-- Per day, summer, 10 d. to 12 d.; winter, 6 d. to 7½ d.; intermediate seasons, 7½ d. to 10 d. Per year, 8 l. to 12 l. The piece labourer obtains about 20 or 30 per cent. more than the day labourer. Almost every family earns from 1 l. 13 s. 4 d. to 2 l. 8 s. 4 d. by breeding silk-worms.	-- Something more than those of the country.	-- During eight months, 2 s. 6 d. a week; other four months (winter) 1 s. 8 d. per week, at most.	-- Per day, 5 d., in silk-mills; little other employment.	-- Per year, inclusive of produce of silk-worms, rather less than 10 l. to 12 l.	-- I think it can, but on the simplest and coarsest food; no meat, little wine, and twice as much maize flour as wheat flour. And with all possible economy, if there has been a bad harvest, and consequently dear provisions, he must apply to the charity of his neighbours or of the inhabitants of his parish. If his character is good, he cannot fail of obtaining it.

GENOA - - - p. 660 P. L. (F.)	- - In fine manufactures, from 25 l. to 28 l. a year; in ordinary manufactures, from 16 l. to 20 l. a year.	- - - - -	- From 12 l. to 14 l. a year, without food.	A little.	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - Salt fish, vegetable soup with oil or lard, and bread made of maize.
SAVOY - - - p. 661	- - - - -	- - Per day, 15 d. in summer; 12 d. or 10 d. in winter, without food, or 6 d. with food, and a pint of wine.	- - - - -	- - One-third of a man's earnings.	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
PORTUGAL - - p. 642	- - - - -	- - In the cultivation of the vine and in the vintage, from 1 s. 6 d. to 2 s. 6 d. per day, with food.	- - - - -	- - In harvest, from 3 ½ d. to 6 d. per day, with coarse food.	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
THE AZORES - p. 645	- - Per day, skilful, 15 d. to 20 d.	- - Per day, 6 d. to 8 d.; or yearly, 6 l. to 8 l., with breakfast and dinner on certain occasions, such as harvest, vintage, hoeing corn, or cutting wood on the mountains.	- - - - -	- - Children under 16; field labour, 4 d. to 5 d. per day; boys from 10 to 14, 3 d. to 4 d. per day; boys from 7 to 10, 2 d. to 3 d. per day.	- - If employed for 250 days, 13 l. 10 s.	- - - - -	- - With the above earnings they may subsist pretty well, with sufficiency of Indian corn, bread, vegetables, potatoes and fruit; seldom any meat, but in the summer time fish, when abundant, such as mackerel, sardinas, smelts, bonitas, abacore and dolphin.
THE CANARY ISLANDS, p. 687	Per day, 3 s.	Per day, 14 d. to 18 d.	- - - - -	- - Per day, as sempstresses, at Santa Cruz, 6 d. with food; 10 d. without.	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - They are satisfied with the commonest food, and their other wants are very limited, from the nature of the climate.
GREECE - - - p. 666 (General Return.)	Labourers not distinguished.	Per day, 17 d., without food; per year, 18 l. 1 s. 2 d.	- - - - -	- - Children under 16, per week, 4 s. 9 ½ d.	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
PATRAS - - - p. 668	Per day, 1 s. 6 d. to 2 s. 3 d.	- Per day, summer, 1 s. 2 ½ d., winter, 11 d., without food; per year, 12 l.; with food and shoes, per month, 9 s. N.B. Only 248 working days.	- - - - -	- - Children under 16, per day, in harvest, 6 d.; something less in winter.	- - £. 23 (supposed to include the man's wages).	- - - - -	- - They do so, living temperately, as these persons almost all do, using both maize and wheaten bread, olives, pulse, vegetables, salt fish, and occasionally meat on great festivals. Their usual drink is water, but the men take wine also moderately.
EUROPEAN TURKEY, p. 671	- - Near Towns:—Skilled, per month, 1 l. with provisions; 1 l. 10 s. without provisions; unskilled, summer, per month, 9 s. with provisions; 1 l. without provisions; winter, one-third less. Distant from Towns, a little more than half. Common labourer, near towns, per year, about 18 l.; in other districts, about 8 l. Wages of artisans, about double those of common labourers.	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - Per week, spinners and weavers, and in the field, 2 s.	- - Wife, 4 l.; eldest child, 2 l.; together 6 l.; (the children under 14 being employed at home.	- - - - -	- - Such a family can subsist on their aggregate earnings. Their food principally consists of bread, rice, greens, dried beans and pease, olives and onions, and meat about once a week.

The answers to the following eight purely statistical questions may also be compared with the results respecting England and Wales, obtained by the Enumeration of 1831.

14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?
15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?
16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?
17. The average number of children to a marriage?
18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?
19. The proportion of children that die before the end of their 1st year?
20. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 10th year?
21. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 18th year?

The average annual proportion, since 1820, of births and deaths, to the whole population of England and Wales, is thus stated by Mr. Rickman:

Deaths	-	-	-	1 in 49 *
Births	-	-	-	1 in 28 †

Preface to Enumeration Abstract:

* p. xxv.

† p. xlv, xxv.

The average annual proportion during five years preceding 1831, of marriages, to the whole population of England and Wales, is stated by Mr. Rickman to be 1 to 128 ‡.

‡ p. xxxiv.

The average annual proportion in England and Wales, during ten years preceding 1831, of births to marriages, to be 441 to 100 §.

§ p. xlv.

The proportion in England and Wales, in the year 1830, of legitimate to illegitimate births, to be 19 to 1 ||.

|| p. xlv.

The proportion in England and Wales of deaths of persons under 1 year to the whole number of deaths during 18 years, ending in 1830, to be 778,803 out of 3,938,496, or 1 in $5\frac{1}{17}$, or more nearly 1 in $5\frac{2}{35}$.

The proportion of deaths under the age of 10 years to be 1,524,937 out of 3,938,496, or 1 in $2\frac{3}{5}$, or more nearly 1 in $2\frac{29}{50}$.

The proportion of deaths under the age of 18 years to be 1,703,941 out of 3,938,496, or 1 in $2\frac{1}{3}$, or more nearly 1 in $2\frac{53}{170}$ ¶.

¶ p. xxxvi.

The following is an Abstract of the Foreign Returns contained in this Appendix. Those marked thus (*) appear to have been derived from enumeration; the others to depend on estimation.

P. L. (F.)	P L A C E.	Proportion of Annual DEATHS to the whole Population.	Proportion of Annual BIRTHS to the whole Population.	Proportion of Annual MARRIAGES to the whole Population.	Average Number of CHILDREN to a Marriage.	Proportion of LEGITIMATE to ILLEGITIMATE Births.	P R O P O R T I O N OF CHILDREN that Die before they attain their		
							First Year.	Tenth Year.	Eighteenth Year.
AMERICA:									
	MASSACHUSETTS, p. 684	About 1 in 40	-- About $\frac{1}{3}$ per cent more than the deaths.	- - - - -	5.	-	-	-	
	BOSTON - p. 685	-- 1 in 41 $\frac{1}{2}$ *, ascertained by dividing the average population during 20 years, ending 1830, by the average deaths.	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	-	Nearly 1 in 5* - $\frac{1}{100}$ *.	-	
	NEW YORK - p. 159	1 in 30	- - - - -	- - - - -	5	-	27 per cent in the city*	49 per cent in the city* 53 per cent in the city*.	
	MEXICO - p. 691	-- Not known; but the Population increases very slowly, and the average duration of life is short.	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	CARTHAGENA DE COLOMBIA - p. 166	Probably 6 to 8 per cent	Probably 8 to 10 per cent	- - - - -	4 to 5	-	Say one-half.	-	
	HAYTI - p. 166	-- Not known, but supposed that births and deaths are about equal, and the Population stationary.	- - - - -	- - - - -	3 to 4	-	-- Comparatively large proportion.	-- Comparatively large proportion.	
	MARANHAM - p. 693	1 in 25	1 in 20	Comparatively small	5.	-	-	-	
EUROPE:									
	NORWAY - p. 699	1 in 54*	1 in 28*	1 in 119*	- - - - -	-	-- Under 5 years, rather more than 1 in 3*.	-- Under 10, nearly 1 in 2 $\frac{1}{4}$ *.	
	SWEDEN: GENERAL RETURN, p. 374	1 in 41 $\frac{1}{2}$ *	1 in 29*	1 in 117 $\frac{1}{2}$ *	3 $\frac{8}{10}$ to 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	-- 1st year, legitimate, 1 in 6 $\frac{1}{3}$; illegitimate, 1 in 3 $\frac{1}{4}$ *.	- - $\frac{1}{3}$ die before their 16th year*.	
	GOTTENBERG Return, p. 387.	- - Average of 5 years ending in 1830, 1 in 40	-- Average of 5 years, ending in 1830, 1 in 30.	-- Average of 5 years, ending in 1830, 1 in 131.	-- Average of 5 years, ending 1830, about 4 $\frac{1}{16}$.	-	- - Average of 5 years, ending in 1830, 1 in 5.	-- Average of 5 years, ending in 1830, 1 in 2 $\frac{3}{4}$.	
	RUSSIA: GENERAL RETURN, p. 334	-- In the year 1831, 1 in 25 $\frac{2}{100}$ *	-- In the year 1831, 1 in 23 $\frac{2}{100}$ *.	-- In the year 1831, 1 in 132*.	- - - - -	-	- - - - -	One-half*.	

PREFACE TO FOREIGN APPENDIX TO REPORT

P L A C E.	Proportion of Annual DEATHS to the whole Population.	Proportion of Annual BIRTHS to the whole Population.	Proportion of Annual MARRIAGES to the whole Population.	Average Number of CHILDREN to a Marriage.	Proportion of LEGITIMATE to ILLEGITIMATE Births.	P R O P O R T I O N O F C H I L D R E N that Die before they attain their		
						First Year.	Tenth Year.	Eighteenth Year.
EUROPE— <i>contd.</i> RUSSIA— <i>continued.</i> ARCHANGEL Return, p. 339	-- Annual average of 5 years, excluding 1831, (the cholera year), in which one-tenth of the population died, 1 in 45; average of 5 years, including the cholera year, 1 in 25*.	-- Average of 5 years, 1 in 24*.	-- Average of 5 years, 1 in 100*.	3 or 4	Nearly 34 to 1*	1 in 16 $\frac{2}{3}$ * - - - One-half*	- - - - - - 1 in 1 $\frac{83}{100}$ *.	- - - - - - 1 in 1 $\frac{83}{100}$ *.
COURLAND Return, p. 342	-- In healthy times, 1 in 28 $\frac{27}{100}$.	1 in 26 $\frac{3}{10}$	1 in 100	4	-- In town, 5 to 1; in country, above 20 to 1.	1 in 8.	—	—
DENMARK - p. 297	-- Average of 5 last years (3 unhealthy) 1 in 36*. Usual proportion, 1 in 40.	1 in 34*	1 in 123*	3 $\frac{2}{3}$ * - - -	9 $\frac{66}{100}$ to 1*	- - - 1 in 3 $\frac{281}{1000}$ *.	- - - 1 in 3 $\frac{281}{1000}$ *.	- - - 1 in 3 $\frac{281}{1000}$ *.
HAMBURGH - p. 394	-- Within a small fraction, 1 in 29*.	-- Within a small fraction, 1 in 27*.	1 in 75 $\frac{2}{3}$ * - - -	About 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ * - - -	4 $\frac{3}{4}$ to 1*	1 in 6 $\frac{2}{3}$ * - - -	Rather more than 1 in 3*	Rather less than 1 in 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ *.
BREMEN - p. 410	From 1 in 43 to 1 in 40.	From 1 in 37 to 1 in 33	About 1 in 124 $\frac{1}{2}$	About 4 - - -	About 11 to 1	About 1 in 4	About 1 in 3.	—
LUBECK - p. 419	About 1 in 56 - - -	About 1 in 53 $\frac{1}{2}$ - - -	1 in 177 - - -	-- 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ to whole number of marriages, but of legitimates 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ to each marriage.	Rather less than 6 to 1	About 1 in 7	About 1 in 3 $\frac{3}{4}$ - - -	About 1 in 3 $\frac{3}{4}$.
MECKLENBURG, p. 423	Nearly 1 in 46 $\frac{1}{2}$ * - - -	Nearly 1 in 27* - - -	1 in 124* - - -	4 - - -	9 to 1	- - - Before the 14th year, one-fourth.	- - -	- - -
DANTZIG - p. 466	-- Nearly 1 in 24 $\frac{1}{2}$ *, ascertained by dividing the population by the average deaths of 3 years, one of which was 1831, the cholera year.	Nearly 1 in 29* - - -	Nearly 1 in 134*	- - -	Nearly 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1*	Rather more than 1 in 5.	About 1 in 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ - - -	Under 20, about 1 in 2 $\frac{1}{2}$.
SAXONY - p. 479	1 in 34 $\frac{1}{2}$ - - -	1 in 24 $\frac{8}{10}$ - - -	1 in 131 $\frac{1}{10}$ - - -	- - -	7 to 1 - - -	- - - Rather more than one-half die under 14*.	- - -	- - -
WURTEMBERG, p. 507	1 in 31 $\frac{1}{4}$ * - - -	1 in 27 $\frac{1}{10}$ * - - -	1 in 147* - - -	4 $\frac{3}{10}$ * - - -	7 $\frac{1}{10}$ to 1*	34 $\frac{3}{4}$ in 100*	From 1 year to 7, 1 in 10*	From 7 to 14, 1 in 45*.
FRANKFORT - p. 564	1 in 43 $\frac{1}{2}$ - - -	1 in 48 $\frac{3}{10}$ - - -	1 in 188 $\frac{7}{10}$ - - -	5 to 6 - - -	6 $\frac{7}{10}$ to 1	1 in 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ * - - -	Under 6 years, 1 in 4 $\frac{97}{34}$ *.	Under 19, 1 in 3 $\frac{1}{10}$ *.
NORTH HOLLAND, p. 581	-- In 1832, 1 in 30 $\frac{6}{10}$ *. Nearly $\frac{1}{15}$ of the deaths were of cholera. In Amsterdam 1 in 29 $\frac{11}{100}$ *.	-- In 1832, 1 in 30 $\frac{7}{10}$ *	1 in 122 $\frac{2}{10}$ *	5 $\frac{1}{10}$ * - - -	15 to 1*	Nearly 1 in 7 $\frac{1}{11}$ * - - -	Nearly 1 in 4 $\frac{1}{10}$ * - - -	Nearly 1 in 2 $\frac{3}{4}$ *.

	1 in 28 $\frac{1}{10}$ *	1 in 36 *	1 in 95 $\frac{3}{10}$ *	-	-	21 to 1 *	1 in 5 *	1 in 4 *	1 in 2 $\frac{4}{10}$ *
BELGIUM: †									
BOOM - p. 635	1 in 35 $\frac{1}{10}$ *	1 in 31 *	1 in 146 $\frac{1}{10}$ *	4 $\frac{72}{100}$ *	About 3	9 to 1 *	1 in 5 $\frac{7}{10}$ *	1 in 2 $\frac{4}{10}$ *	1 in 2 $\frac{4}{10}$ *
OSTEND - p. 640	1 in 34	1 in 25	1 in 110	About 3	In the whole province, 3 *	About 9 to 1	About 1 in 6	About 1 in 3.	45 per cent. *
FRANCE: †									
HAVRE - p. 182	1 in 28 *	1 in 22 $\frac{14}{100}$ *	-	-	In the whole province, 3 *	8 $\frac{2}{10}$ to 1 *	Under 5 years, 1 in 2 $\frac{13}{10}$ *	Under 10 years, 1 in 2 *	- - Under 20 years, rather more than 1 in 2 *
BRITTANY, LAMBEZELLE (adjoining Brest; population 8,460) p. 727	1 in 43 *	1 in 35 *	-	3 *	-	-	Under 5 years, 1 in 2 $\frac{2}{10}$ *	-	Under 20 years, 1 in 2 $\frac{1}{10}$ *
PLOUSANE (inland, population 2,452).	1 in 44 $\frac{1}{10}$ *	1 in 30 *	-	3 *	-	-	Under 5 years, 1 in 9 $\frac{3}{10}$ *	-	Under 20 years, 1 in 7 $\frac{1}{10}$ *
CONQUEST (inland, population 1,294).	1 in 39 *	1 in 34 *	1 in 147 *	3 $\frac{3}{10}$ legitimate *	-	- - In Nantes, 8 to 1; in country, 12 to 1.	1 in 6 $\frac{12}{100}$ *	1 in 2 $\frac{3}{10}$ *	1 in 2 $\frac{5}{10}$ *
LA LOIRE INFÉRIEURE (in 1832) - p. 177	-	-	-	3	-	18 to 1	1 in 7	1 in 4	1 in 3.
BOURDEAUX - p. 236	1 in 50 $\frac{30}{100}$ *	1 in 38 $\frac{1}{10}$ *	1 in 105 $\frac{1}{10}$ *	-	-	14 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 *	Under 4 years, 1 in 2 $\frac{7}{10}$ *	-	Under 20 years, 1 in 1 $\frac{3}{10}$ *
BASSES PYRÉNÉES, p. 260	1 in 30 *, in 1831	1 in 34 *, in 1831	1 in 156 *, in 1831	4 $\frac{1}{2}$ *	-	- - Department, 9 to 1; Marseilles, 5 to 1 *	1 in 4 $\frac{1}{10}$ *	1 in 2 $\frac{1}{10}$ *	-
MARSEILLES - p. 189	1 in 48	1 in 19	-	3 to 4	-	About 7 to 1	Nearly one-half.	-	-
THE AZORES - p. 643	About 1 in 28 $\frac{1}{10}$	About 1 in 20	About 1 in 166	-	-	-	About 1 in 4	45 per cent.	- - 48 per cent. die before the age of 16.
GENOA - p. 660	- - General average 1 in 42; but in some marshy districts 1 in 28; in some mountainous districts 1 in 52.	1 in 29	-	4 $\frac{1}{2}$.	-	-	-	-	-
SAVOY - p. 662	Nothing ascertained, but that the deaths are far fewer than the births: average number of children to a marriage 4: very few illegitimate.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
GREECE - p. 666	- - In healthy years about 1 in 50 $\frac{1}{10}$.	About 1 in 31 $\frac{1}{10}$.	About 1 in 66 $\frac{1}{10}$.	4	-	- - Few illegitimate born, and few of those allowed to live.	About 1 in 5 $\frac{2}{10}$.	About 1 in 4.	About 1 in 3 $\frac{2}{10}$.
EUROPEAN TURKEY, p. 672									
† The following are the results of the official enumeration in 1830	1 in 43	1 in 30	1 in 144	4 $\frac{72}{100}$	-	-	1 in 4 $\frac{1}{100}$	-	4 $\frac{1}{10}$.
† The following are the results of the official enumeration of 1831	1 in 39 $\frac{6}{10}$	1 in 32 $\frac{1}{10}$	1 in 131 $\frac{6}{10}$	4 $\frac{7}{10}$; legitimate 3 $\frac{277}{1000}$	-	13 $\frac{184}{1000}$ to 1.	-	-	-

† The following are the results of the official enumeration in 1830 -

† The following are the results of the official enumeration of 1831 .

§ These numbers cannot be correct,

On comparing these statements respecting the wages, subsistence and mortality of those portions of Continental Europe which have furnished returns, with the corresponding statements respecting England, it will be found, that on every point England stands in the most favourable, or nearly the most favourable position. With respect to money wages, the superiority of the English agricultural labourer is very marked. It may fairly be said that his wages are nearly double the average of agricultural wages in the Continent. And as fuel is generally cheaper in England than in the Continent, and clothing is universally so, his relative advantage with respect to those important objects of consumption is still greater.

On the other hand, as food is dearer in England than in any other part of Europe, the English labourer, especially if he have a large family, necessarily loses on this part of his expenditure a part of the benefit of his higher wages, and, if the relative dearness of food were very great, might lose the whole. On comparing, however, the answers to the 14th English and 8th Foreign question, it appears probable, that even in this respect the English family has an advantage, though of course less than in any other. Of the 687 English parishes which have given an answer from which the diet of the family can be inferred, 491, or about five-sevenths, state, that it could obtain meat; and of the 196 which give answers implying that it could not get meat, 43 are comprised in Essex and Sussex, two of the most pauperised districts in the kingdom. But in the foreign answers, meat is the exception instead of the rule. In the north of Europe the usual food seems to be potatoes and oatmeal, or rye bread, accompanied frequently by fish, but only occasionally by meat.

In Germany and Holland the principal food appears to be rye bread, vegetables, the produce of the dairy, and meat once or twice a week.

In Belgium, potatoes, rye bread, milk, butter and cheese, and occasionally pork.

The French returns almost exclude fresh meat, and indicate a small proportion of salted meat. Thus we are told, that in Havre they live on bread and vegetables; never animal food, or very rarely. In Brittany, on buck wheat, barley bread, potatoes, cabbages, and about 6 lbs. of pork weekly. In the Gironde, on rye bread, soup made of millet, Indian corn, now and then some salt provision, and vegetables, rarely if ever butcher's meat. In the Basses Pyrenées, on vegetable soups, potatoes, salt fish, pork and bacon, seldom or ever butcher's meat. In the Bouches du Rhone, on vegetables, bread, and farinaceous substances made into soup, and bouillie about once a week. Their food in Piedmont is said to be the simplest and coarsest; no meat, and twice as much maize flour as wheat flour. In Portugal, salt fish, vegetable soup, with oil or lard, and maize bread.

Further evidence as to the relative state of the bulk of the population of England is afforded by the ratio of its mortality.

The only countries in which the mortality appears to be so small as in England, are, Norway, in which it is $\frac{1}{34}$, and the Basses Pyrenées, in which it is $\frac{1}{50}$.* In all the other countries which have given returns it exceeds the English proportion, sometimes by doubling it, and in the majority of instances by more than one fourth.

A portion of our apparent superiority arises from the rapidity with which our population is increasing; but though the proportion of our births exceeds the average proportion of Europe, the difference as to births is small when compared with the difference as to deaths, and in a great part of the north of Europe and Germany the proportion of births is greater than our own, and therefore the longevity of the population still more inferior to that of England than it appears to be.

Lincoln's-Inn, }
May 16, 1835. }

Nassau W. Senior.

* We exclude Lubeck, the Azores, and European Turkey, as the Returns from them appear to be mere guesses.

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<i>Ostend</i>	636	<i>Pennsylvania, U. S.</i>	135
<i>Berne, Canton de</i>	190	<i>Philadelphia</i>	146
<i>Bordeaux</i>	229	<i>Portugal</i>	642
<i>Bremen</i>	410	<i>The Azores</i>	643
<i>Brittany</i>	724	<i>Prussia</i>	425
		<i>Dantzic</i>	459
<i>Canary Islands</i>	686		
<i>Carolina, South, U. S.</i>	117	<i>Rouen</i>	183
<i>Carthagera de Colombia</i>	164	<i>Russia</i>	328
<i>Courland</i>	339	<i>Archangel</i>	337
		<i>Courland</i>	339
<i>Dantzic</i>	459		
<i>Denmark</i>	263	<i>Sardinian States</i>	648
		<i>Saxony</i>	479
<i>England and France</i>	21	<i>Sweden</i>	343
<i>Floridas and Alabama, U. S.</i>	113	<i>Gottenburg</i>	384
<i>France</i>	21. 34	<i>Switzerland: Canton de Vaud</i>	53
<i>La Loire Inférieure</i>	171	<i>Canton de Berne</i>	190
<i>Havre</i>	179		
<i>Rouen</i>	183	<i>Turkey, European</i>	669
<i>Marseilles</i>	186		
<i>Bordeaux</i>	229	<i>Uruguay</i>	722
<i>Bayonne</i>	260		
<i>Brittany</i>	724	<i>Vaud, Canton de</i>	53
<i>Frankfort-on-the-Main</i>	564	<i>Venezuela</i>	161
		<i>Venice</i>	663
<i>Gaesbeck</i>	1		
<i>Georgia, U. S.</i>	123	<i>Wurtemberg</i>	483 et seq.

Appendix (F.)

FOREIGN COMMUNICATIONS.

No. 1.

DOCUMENTS relatifs à l'état des Paysans de la Commune de *Gaesbeck*, dans la Province du *Brabant* en *Belgique*.

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.Count
Arrivabene.

LETTRE adressée à Mr. N. W. Senior, l'un des Commissaires désignés par S. M. le Roi d'Angleterre pour l'Enquête relative à l'administration des Lois sur les Pauvres; par M. le Comte *Arrivabene*.

MONSIEUR,

VOICI les renseignemens sur l'état des paysans de la commune de *Gaesbeck* que je vous ai promis.

Je regrette de n'avoir pas pu vous en procurer qui s'étendissent à une partie plus grande de la Belgique; mais dans ce cas, je n'aurais pu vous envoyer que des généralités; tandis que de la peinture, aussi exacte que possible, d'une commune vous pourrez, par induction, vous former une idée de l'état des paysans Belges en général. Car si le génie des habitans, la qualité du sol, le voisinage ou l'éloignement des grandes routes et des villes, &c. sont des causes de différence entre l'état des paysans, si non de commune à commune, au moins de province à province, il n'est pas moins vrai que l'administration et les lois, étant les mêmes pour tous, doivent nécessairement adoucir cette différence, en établissant entr'eux certains rapports de conformité.

Pour me procurer ces renseignemens j'ai préparé à l'avance plusieurs demandes écrites, avec lesquelles je me suis rendu chez différentes personnes de la commune, et à mesure qu'elles me repondaient j'écrivais leurs réponses et leur adressais de nouvelles demandes. J'ai conservé à cette espèce d'enquête sa forme originale, parceque j'ai pensé qu'elle aurait ainsi un caractère plus frappant de vérité, que si je m'étais borné à m'en servir pour tracer un tableau qui n'aurait peut-être pas offert le même intérêt. Seulement lorsque j'ai eu un doute sur le fait énoncé dans la réponse, je l'ai mentionné dans une note, et j'ai placé aussi dans des notes les explications que j'ai jugé nécessaires, et que j'étais à même de donner.

En conservant à mon enquête sa forme primitive, j'ai aussi consulté votre intérêt, parceque j'ai lieu d'espérer que cet exemple sera suivi par quelques Belges habitans d'autres parties du pays, avec plus de succès que je n'ai pu en obtenir, vu ma qualité d'étranger: ce sera le moyen de recueillir des notions aussi exactes que possible sur l'état du peuple des campagnes en Belgique.

Beaucoup de personnes desirent améliorer le sort des classes laborieuses; fort peu connaissent l'état et les besoins de ces classes; fort peu aussi savent où est le mal, et quels seraient les moyens à employer pour y remédier. Chez vous le gouvernement fait les enquêtes, et il se procure des renseignemens assez exacts; mais sur le continent les gouvernemens réussissent très-difficilement à obtenir de tels renseignemens: les classes laborieuses, et, surtout les paysans, se méfient des gouvernemens; ils croient que lorsque ceux-ci veulent savoir quelque chose qui les concerne, c'est toujours pour les gréver de quelque charge nouvelle. Cette défiance est partout le résultat de l'expérience acquise pendant les dernières guerres; et quoique je pense que le gouvernement actuel de la Belgique soit bien intentionné, il lui faudra beaucoup de temps avant de parvenir à gagner la confiance des classes laborieuses. Ce ne sont que les citoyens zélés, jouissant de la considération et de l'affection des habitans des localités où ils demeurent, qui puissent recueillir des données exactes sur l'état de ces classes, et indiquer les moyens d'en améliorer le sort.

Je ne sais si vous trouverez que je suis entré dans des détails par trop minutieux, ou qu'au contraire je n'en ai pas donné assez. Quant à moi, j'aurais désiré m'étendre encore plus que je ne l'ai fait: ce n'est qu'ainsi que l'on peut se former une idée juste de l'état du peuple. Quelle connaissance plus intime n'aurions nous pas des générations qui nous ont précédé, si les écrivains nous avaient laissé une description détaillée de la manière de vivre des classes laborieuses! Mais j'ai craint de franchir les bornes de la curiosité de toucher à des matières trop délicates, de faire des demandes par trop inquisitoriales, et je me suis arrêté.

La principale raison qui vous a fait chercher à obtenir ces renseignemens, c'est le desir de comparer l'état des journaliers Belges avec celui des journaliers Anglais, et de tirer de cette comparaison des lumières pour l'œuvre d'humanité à laquelle vous vous êtes consacré.

P. L. (F.)

A

Si

Appendix (F.)
 Foreign
 Communications.
 —
 Count
 Arrivabene.

Si j'étais appelé à faire cette comparaison, en me prévalant du peu de connaissance de l'état des paysans Anglais et des paysans Belges, acquise pendant un séjour de quatre ans en Angleterre et de sept en Belgique, passés en grande partie à la campagne, je dirais ; qu'en Angleterre, là où il ne s'est pas introduit de grands abus dans l'administration des lois sur les pauvres, la somme des jouissances matérielles et intellectuelles des journaliers, est plus élevée qu'en Belgique, et que la moralité est à peu-près la même dans les deux pays ; mais que là où l'administration des lois sur les pauvres est abusive, là où tous les journaliers sont inscrits au nombre des individus qui participent à la taxe, bien que la somme des jouissances matérielles de ceux-ci soit supérieure encore à celle des journaliers Belges, bien qu'ils soient mieux logés, mieux nourris, mieux habillés que les derniers, leur moralité néanmoins est inférieure ; ils sont toujours mécontents de leur sort, tandis que les journaliers Belges ne s'en plaignent presque jamais. Il est vrai qu'un plus grand nombre de journaliers Belges que de journaliers Anglais possède une maison et un jardin, et loue un champ ; et l'on sait que la possession même de la moindre parcelle de terre, que l'avantage d'avoir quelque chose au soleil qui croit pour vous, pour votre propre compte, ouvrent une source de jouissances qui ne peut pas être évaluée en sous et deniers, et constituent en même temps un grand élément d'ordre dans la société. L'état des journaliers Belges est, en général, le résultat du cours naturel des choses, dans l'absence d'une cause perturbatrice telle que les lois sur les pauvres, et, pour chaque individu, c'est le résultat de sa propre conduite, et des circonstances au milieu desquelles il vit. En Belgique, point de salaire selon que l'homme est marié ou célibataire, selon qu'il a une famille nombreuse, ou peu ou point d'enfants ; l'homme laborieux est plus à son aise que le fainéant ; celui qui est surchargé de famille est plus pauvre que celui qui a peu d'enfants ; celui qui se conduit mal souffre plus de privations que celui qui a une bonne conduite ; le bonheur et le malheur planent sur la tête de tous, et la charité volontaire, libre, tend à redresser autant que possible les torts de la fortune.

Mais à quelles causes faut-il attribuer que la somme des jouissances matérielles et intellectuelles des journaliers Anglais soit supérieure à celle des journaliers Belges ? Vous, Monsieur, vous sauriez les découvrir mieux que moi. Il y en a sans doute plusieurs, qui s'enchainent, et dont il ne m'est pas donné de mesurer la profondeur. Voici toutefois le raisonnement que je fais.

La production générale, en proportion du nombre des habitans, est plus grande en Angleterre qu'en Belgique, et par conséquent la part des produits qui échoit à chaque individu est plus grande aussi. Cette supériorité de production en Angleterre est due à la perfection des machines et des instrumens, au mode de culture et de fabrication, et à un travail plus constant et mieux entendu : on a en Angleterre une opinion, exagérée sans doute, de la supériorité des ouvriers Anglais sur les ouvriers étrangers, mais il n'est pas moins vrai que l'ouvrier Anglais est le travailleur par excellence. Et finalement, la perfection des machines, et la supériorité du travail, sont le résultat du génie des habitans, et d'institutions libres, qui datent de long-temps.

Je pense toutefois que les procédés pour la fabrication en Belgique ne sont et ne peuvent pas être beaucoup inférieurs aux procédés Anglais ; car les fabricans sont forcés de les améliorer incessamment, s'ils ne veulent pas que la consommation de leurs produits soit remplacée par celle des produits étrangers ; et l'industrie manufacturière est de sa nature progressive. Et je pense au contraire, que la culture en Belgique, sous le rapport au moins des instrumens et du travail, est inférieure à la culture Anglaise. Les cultivateurs en général, par la difficulté que les consommateurs éprouvent à se procurer les denrées alimentaires à l'étranger, exercent un monopole qui les soustrait à la nécessité d'améliorer leur culture, il s'ensuit que l'agriculture est naturellement lente dans ses progrès. Il s'ensuit aussi, qu'en Belgique un plus grand nombre d'habitans est occupé aux travaux de l'agriculture qu'il ne serait nécessaire pour obtenir la quantité actuelle de produits agricoles ; et que par contre le nombre des ouvriers occupés dans les fabriques est moins considérable qu'il ne le serait avec une industrie manufacturière plus développée : de là une prépondérance de l'intérêt agricole sur l'intérêt manufacturier ; de là la lenteur dans les améliorations que l'on remarque dans tout le pays. Le contraire a lieu en Angleterre : la prépondérance de l'intérêt manufacturier y est en même-temps effet et cause de la prospérité générale. L'industrie manufacturière a besoin de voies de communications promptes et disséminées sur toute la surface du pays ; car elle produit sur un point des masses de produits, que doivent être consommés dans le reste du pays ; tandis que les produits agricoles, au moins les plus importants, tels que les denrées alimentaires, sont cultivés par tout, et n'ont besoin d'être transportés qu'à des petites distances. La route en fer entre Liverpool et Manchester n'aurait jamais été conçue ni exécutée dans un pays où l'intérêt manufacturier n'eût pas été prédominant. Mais si cette route fournit les moyens de transporter avec une rapidité étonnante le coton de Liverpool à Manchester, et facilite la production des étoffes de coton, elle profite aussi au fermier Irlandais, qui fait arriver avec la même rapidité et une grande économie ses vaches et ses porcs sur le marché de Manchester, et aux consommateurs qui obtiennent ainsi la viande à meilleur marché qu'auparavant.

Et les moyens prompts et multipliés de communication, résultat de la prépondérance de l'intérêt manufacturier, ont encore, sous d'autres rapports, une influence non moins bienfaisante. Ils excitent et facilitent le développement de la prospérité matérielle aussi-bien que celui de l'intelligence ; ils accélèrent le transport des marchandises aussi-bien que l'échange des idées et des connaissances utiles, et ces idées et ces connaissances se transforment bientôt en produits matériels. Sans ces communications promptes et multipliées aurait-on en Angleterre des villages si propres, des maisonnettes de paysans si bien bâties, avec ces fleurs qui en décorent l'entrée, luxe des campagnes, et qui semble dire

dire que le nécessaire ne manque pas à ceux qui les habitent? Les écoles, et les cabinets de lecture seraient-ils si nombreux? Y aurait-il dans les caisses d'épargne, en dépit de la manière dont on administre les lois sur les pauvres, et de la peine que ces lois accordent à l'imprévoyance, 15 millions de livres sterling? En Belgique aussi, si vous suivez les grandes routes, vous trouvez plusieurs de ces bonnes choses, mais aussitôt que vous vous enfoncez dans les chemins de terre, véritables barrières élevées contre la civilisation, tout change d'aspect et de nature. Le voisinage d'une chaussée permet de se procurer de bons matériaux à bon marché; par suite les maisons sont bien bâties, et on les assure; il facilite l'arrivage de la houille, et offre un débouché aux produits agricoles; il offre souvent aussi le moyen d'envoyer les enfans à l'école, et d'échanger les idées et les connaissances; tandis que les chemins de terre condamnent les paysans à avoir des maisons de bois couvertes de paille, à se mal chauffer, à se passer des choses les plus utiles, et à croupir dans une ignorance, à laquelle ne remédie qu'imparfaitement la parole des ministres de la religion.

L'idée de donner à l'intérêt manufacturier une prépondérance sur l'intérêt agricole effraie beaucoup de monde, à cause des vicissitudes auxquelles l'industrie des fabriques a été souvent exposée. Certes, un pays, ayant un sol fertile, ferait une folie s'il en laissait une partie en friche, pour avantager l'intérêt manufacturier aux dépenses de l'intérêt agricole. Mais ne serait-il pas également absurde de s'obstiner à se servir pour la culture d'instrumens imparfaits, et d'y employer une plus grande somme de travail qu'elle ne l'exige, afin de pouvoir se dire plutôt pays agricole que pays manufacturier? Une population agricole, qui produit toutes les denrées nécessaires à l'alimentation de la totalité de la population du pays, est dans tous les cas obligée d'échanger les produits qu'elle ne consomme pas contre les produits des manufactures; et la base qui sert de fondement à l'industrie manufacturière est, sous ce rapport, toute aussi solide que celle de l'agriculture même.

L'enchaînement des causes qui a amené la supériorité de la production Anglaise sur la production Belge est en train de se développer aussi en Belgique, et il n'y a pas de doute que l'état des paysans Belges, et des classes laborieuses en général ne s'améliorera encore.

J'ai l'honneur de me dire,

Votres très-humble serviteur,

J. Arrivabene.

Bruxelles, le 13 Décembre 1833.

DOCUMENTS relatifs à l'état des Paysans de la Commune de *Gaesbeck*, dans la Province du *Brabant* en *Belgique*.

1. COMBIEN de bonniers y a-t-il dans la commune?—La commune contient 357 bonniers*; deux tiers sont des terres labourables, l'autre tiers des bois et des pâturages. Les habitans de Gaesbeck en cultivent en outre presque autant hors de la commune.

2. Y a-t-il des habitans d'autres communes qui cultivent des terres dans celle-ci?—Il n'y a qu'un fermier d'une autre commune que laboure quelques bonniers dans celle-ci.

3. Quel est le nombre des fermes, quelle en est l'étendue en prenant une moyenne proportionnelle?—Il y a 13 fermes de 12 jusqu'à 60 bonniers, et qui sont labourées avec 2 jusqu'à 9 chevaux.

4. Quel est le nombre actuel d'habitans divisé par sexe et par profession?—Le nombre d'habitans est de 364, savoir, 189 du sexe masculin et 175 du sexe féminin, répartis en 60 ménages, de la manière suivante: 13 familles de fermiers occupant les 13 fermes susmentionnées; 18 familles de petits propriétaires et de petits fermiers; 21 familles de journaliers, et 8 familles d'artisans.

5. Quelles professions les 8 artisans exercent-ils?—Il y a un maréchal, 2 maçons, 1 menuisier, 1 charpentier, 1 couvreur, 1 tonnelier, et 1 tailleur; presque tous ces artisans possèdent ou louent un champ, et l'été travaillent à la moisson.

6. Les 60 ménages ont-ils chacun une maison?—Autant de ménages autant de maisons.

7. Quel était le nombre d'habitans il y a 20 ans?—La différence entre le nombre actuel des habitans et celui d'il y a 20 ans est très-petite; je ne saurais pas cependant la préciser.

8. Mais, selon le tableau que voici, le nombre de naissances depuis 1810 jusqu'à 1832 a été de beaucoup supérieur au nombre de décès. De 1830 à 1832 seulement il y a eu 34 naissances et 20 décès. Il devrait y avoir par conséquent une augmentation de population assez sensible?—Cela est vrai.

* Un bonnier des Pays-Bas répond à 1 hectare, ou à peu-pres 2⁴⁵/₁₀₀ acres Anglais.

TABLEAU des NAISSANCES, MARIAGES et DÉCÈS dans la Commune de *Gaesbeck* depuis 1810 jusqu' à 1832, avec l'Age auquel les Mariages ont été contractés, et celui des Individus Morts.

ANNÉES.	NAISS.	MARIAGES.	DÉCÈS.											AGES DES MARIAGES.							
			De 0 à 5.	5 à 20.	20 à 30.	30 à 40.	40 à 50.	50 à 60.	60 à 70.	70 à 80.	80 à 90.	90 à 100.	TOTAL.								
1810	10	4	4	-	1	1	-	1	1	2	-	-	10	28	22	26	40	-	-	des hommes.	
														20	27	31	33	-	-	des femmes.	
1811	8	4	5	-	1	1	1	1	1	-	-	-	10	28	23	33	24	-	-	des hommes.	
														21	26	31	38	-	-	des femmes.	
1812	18	2	3	-	1	-	-	-	2	1	1	-	8	19	30	-	-	-	-	des hommes.	
														21	26	-	-	-	-	des femmes.	
1813	8	1	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	3	22	-	-	-	-	-	des hommes.	
														33	-	-	-	-	-	des femmes.	
1814	9	2	2	2	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	5	23	27	-	-	-	-	des hommes.	
														32	22	-	-	-	-	des femmes.	
1815	9	3	1	1	1	2	2	1	1	-	2	-	11	25	38	20	-	-	-	des hommes.	
														23	25	24	-	-	-	des femmes.	
1816	7	1	1	-	-	1	-	2	-	-	-	1	5	27	-	-	-	-	-	des hommes.	
														32	-	-	-	-	-	des femmes.	
1817	8	1	2	-	1	-	1	2	-	1	-	-	7	22	-	-	-	-	-	des hommes.	
														23	-	-	-	-	-	des femmes.	
1818	7	6	3	2	-	-	2	2	-	1	1	-	11	28	27	41	36	21	29	des hommes.	
														27	23	39	27	22	27	des femmes.	
1819	12	3	4	3	-	-	2	-	2	2	1	-	14	27	24	27	-	-	-	des hommes.	
														29	23	24	-	-	-	des femmes.	
1820	7	5	2	1	-	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	5	24	21	30	27	-	-	des hommes.	
														23	20	23	24	-	-	des femmes.	
1821	8	1	1	-	1	-	1	2	1	-	1	-	7	24	-	-	-	-	-	des hommes.	
														21	-	-	-	-	-	des femmes.	
1822	7	4	3	2	-	-	2	1	1	1	1	-	11	40	27	26	31	-	-	des hommes.	
														26	31	36	31	-	-	des femmes.	
1823	9	4	3	1	-	-	1	1	-	3	1	-	10	42	28	23	-	-	-	des hommes.	
														46	22	21	-	-	-	des femmes.	
1824	11	3	5	2	-	1	2	-	1	1	1	-	13	23	40	36	-	-	-	des hommes.	
														29	23	33	-	-	-	des femmes.	
1825	11	1	2	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	1	1	6	23	-	-	-	-	-	des hommes.	
														31	-	-	-	-	-	des femmes.	
1826	15	4	4	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	5	23	24	23	27	-	-	des hommes.	
														27	28	24	23	-	-	des femmes.	
1827	9	5	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	20	23	28	37	20	-	des hommes.	
														23	29	25	19	19	-	des femmes.	
1828	8	4	1	2	-	1	-	1	2	-	1	-	8	30	38	26	24	-	-	des hommes.	
														28	37	21	27	-	-	des femmes.	
1829	14	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	2	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1830	9	2	4	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	2	-	7	34	23	-	-	-	-	des hommes.	
														23	31	-	-	-	-	des femmes.	
1831	11	4	3	-	4	-	1	1	1	-	-	-	10	37	21	21	35	-	-	des hommes.	
														34	26	22	22	-	-	des femmes.	
1832	14	1	1	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	3	26	-	-	-	-	-	des hommes.	
														27	-	-	-	-	-	des femmes.	
Total	229	65	55	17	11	9	18	18	14	14	12	3	172								

9. A quoi attribuez-vous cet état presque stationnaire dans la population ?—A la loi sur la milice qui enlève beaucoup de jeunes gens, et à la difficulté que les paysans éprouvent à se procurer des maisons et les moyens de s'établir.

10. Cet état stationnaire ne pourrait-il par être attribué à ce que plusieurs individus de la commune sont allés s'établir dans d'autres communes, où ils avaient l'espoir de trouver plus facilement des maisons et des moyens de s'établir ?—C'est bien possible.

11. Le chiffre de la population résulte-t-il d'un recensement ancien ou d'un nouveau ?—Le chiffre résulte du recensement de 1830.

12. S'il y a eu si peu de variation dans le nombre d'habitans il y aura eu aussi très-peu de nouvelles maisons bâties; en avez-vous vu bâtir ?—Je n'ai jamais vu bâtir de nouvelles maisons dans la commune, mais j'en ai vu réparer et améliorer plusieurs.

13. Vous semble-t-il qu'il y ait augmentation d'habitans dans les communes voisines ?—Il me semble qu'oui.

14. Y avez-vous vu bâtir de nouvelles maisons ?—Oui.

15. Y a-t-il beaucoup de propriétaires qui demeurent dans la commune ?—Les petits propriétaires demeurent presque tous dans la commune; parmi les grands il n'y a que le marquis d'Arconati qui passe une partie de l'année à son château.

16. De

16. De quelle manière les petits propriétaires et les petits fermiers labourent-ils leurs terres ?—Les petits propriétaires et les petits fermiers font labourer leurs terres par la charrue des grands fermiers, et les labourent eux-mêmes avec leurs familles à la bêche.

17. Travaillent-ils jamais chez les grands fermiers ?—Jamais.

18. Les grands fermiers sont-ils en même-temps propriétaires ?—Plusieurs d'entre eux possèdent quelques bonniers de terre.

19. Comment vivent les petits propriétaires et les petits fermiers ; leur état est-il beaucoup meilleur que celui des journaliers ?—Il est tant soit peu meilleur que celui des journaliers ; sous certains rapports il est meilleur que celui des grands fermiers, parcequ'ils ont moins de soucis.

20. Les produits de leurs terres sont-ils proportionnellement plus abondans et plus beaux que ceux des terres des grands fermiers ?—Les produits des terres des petits propriétaires et des petits fermiers sont un peu moins abondans et moins beaux que ceux des terres des grands fermiers ; la raison en est simple ; ils ne peuvent faire labourer leurs terres par la charrue qu'après que les fermiers ont achevé leurs travaux, et souvent c'est hors de saison ; s'ils les labourent à la bêche le travail est grand, ils ne le font que superficiellement, et ne détruisent pas les mauvaises herbes ; outre cela ils manquent de fumier et n'achètent pas de la chaux.

21. A combien peut-on évaluer le capital que les fermiers emploient dans l'exploitation d'une ferme, en raison du nombre de bonniers qu'elle contient ?—Si l'on tient compte des chevaux, des vaches, des charriots, de l'argent destiné aux salaires et de tant d'autres choses nécessaires à l'exploitation d'une ferme, je pense que l'on peut évaluer le capital d'un fermier approximativement de 160 à 200 francs par bonnier.

22. Les fermiers ont-ils des domestiques non mariés qui vivent avec eux ; quels arrangements font-ils avec eux ?—Ils ont des domestiques hommes aussi bien que des domestiques femmes, et des enfans pour garder les vaches. Les domestiques ont de 100 jusqu'à 140 francs par an, selon les travaux auxquels ils doivent se livrer ; celui qui conduit la charrue est généralement plus payé que les autres ; les servantes ont 70 francs. En outre les uns et les autres sont nourris et logés, non pas à l'égal des fermiers, mais cependant un peu mieux que les journaliers ne le sont chez eux. Les enfans ont 20 francs par an, et sont pareillement nourris et logés.

23. Outre les gages qu'ils leur paient, les fermiers font-ils parfois quelques cadeaux d'usage à leurs domestiques, dans certaines occasions solennelles ?—Lorsque les fermiers vendent un cheval les domestiques reçoivent 6 francs, et lorsque ceux-ci font des voyages avec les chevaux et les charriots, ils ont un franc par jour.

24. Les maisons qu'habitent les journaliers sont-elles en général leur propriété ainsi que les petits jardins y attenant, ou louent-ils les unes et les autres ?—Les maisons et les jardins leur appartiennent généralement.

25. Quel est le prix du loyer d'une maison de journalier et d'un jardin ?—Le loyer d'une petite maison et d'un très-petit jardin est de 30 francs par an.

26. Quels impôts paye un journalier pour une maison et pour son jardin ?—L'impôt direct et celui des portes et fenêtres.

27. A quoi cela monte-t-il ?—Le plus petit ménage paye à peu-près 12 francs par an.

28. Toutes les maisons quelque misérables qu'elles soient payent-elles l'impôt des portes et fenêtres ?—Il y en a 11 qui en sont exemptées.

29. Avec quels matériaux les maisons sont-elles bâties, et comment sont-elles distribuées intérieurement ?—Les maisons sont faites de bois avec un peu de fer, d'argile et couvertes de paille. Elle n'ont qu'un seul étage, composé d'une cuisine et d'une ou deux chambres ; une grange, une écurie et un four sont annexés à chaque maison.

30. Les journaliers assurent-ils leurs habitations contre l'incendie, ou trouvent-ils d'une autre manière un dédomagement pour ce cas ?—Ils ne les assurent pas ; il y a même très-peu de fermes assurées dans la commune. Lorsqu'une maison de journalier est la proie de l'incendie, son propriétaire reçoit un certificat du bourguemestre qui constate le fait ; le cure et les principaux fermiers signent aussi le certificat. Muni de cette pièce authentique il parcourt le pays, pendant deux ou trois mois ; il se présente aux personnes aisées et il en reçoit des aumônes. Dans une commune comme celle-ci un homme qui aurait eu sa maison brûlée pourrait recueillir une vingtaine de francs. Toute la tournée pourrait lui rapporter à peu-près 400 francs.

31. Les incendies sont-ils fréquens dans la commune ?—Ils sont très-rares.

32. Que recueillent les journaliers dans leurs jardins ?—Différentes sortes de légumes, du tabac, et du houblon.

33. Quel usage font-ils du tabac ?—Ils le consomment eux-mêmes.

34. Et du houblon ?—Ils le vendent en grande partie.

35. Qu'en tirent-ils année courante ?—De 20 à 30 francs.

36. De combien d'individus est généralement composée une famille ?—De 5 à 6.

37. Lorsqu'une famille est composée de plusieurs individus d'âge et de sexe différens, couchent-ils tous dans la même chambre ?—Les familles plus pauvres ont une très-petite maison qui n'a qu'une cuisine et une chambre ; et alors tous les individus qui la composent couchent dans la même chambre.

38. Les familles des journaliers déménagent-elles souvent ?—Bien rarement.

39. Tout étranger peut-il venir s'établir librement dans la commune, et tout habitant aller s'établir ailleurs ?—Il le peut ; il est obligé seulement d'avoir un passeport délivré dans la commune qu'il a quittée, et d'être muni d'un certificat de bonne conduite.

40. Cela a-t-il lieu souvent ?—Cela arrive souvent, à la mi-juillet, époque à laquelle on change les domestiques.

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41. Combien compte-t-on d'habitans de la commune dans l'armée?—Dans ce moment, un certain nombre de miliciens ayant été congédié, il n'y en a que 7.

42. Lorsque les soldats rentrent dans leurs foyers, quelle est leur conduite sous le rapport du travail, et des mœurs?—Leur conduite est très-bonne; je crois qu'ils sont les meilleurs travailleurs; l'état militaire les dégourdit.

43. A quel âge les enfans se séparent-ils ordinairement de leurs parens?—De 14 à 18 ans pour se placer en qualité de domestiques et de servantes chez les fermiers.

44. Les filles vont-elles comme servantes dans les villes voisines?—Très-rarement.

45. A quel âge se marie-t-on généralement?—De 20 à 30 ans.

46. Comment se forme l'établissement d'une nouvelle famille?—Les garçons font des épargnes pendant le temps qu'ils restent chez les fermiers. S'ils n'ont pas hérité de maison de leurs parens, et n'en trouvent pas à louer, ils achètent en louent un petit champ pour y bâtir une maison, qu'ils entourent d'un jardin.

47. Pensez-vous que si les jeunes gens ne trouvaient pas un obstacle au mariage dans leur pauvreté, et si la commune leur donnait les moyens de s'établir, ils ne se marieraient pas plutôt qu'ils ne font, sans songer à l'avenir?—Il n'y a pas le moindre doute qu'ils se marieraient plus-tôt.

48. Et si la commune était obligée de leur procurer du travail lorsqu'ils en manquent, que ce soit par leur faute ou non, de leur donner un supplément de salaire lorsque celui qu'ils gagnent est jugé insuffisant, et d'en donner un plus élevé aux mariés qu'aux célibataires, et en proportion du nombre de leurs enfans, ne pensez-vous pas qu'alors les paysans se marieraient plus facilement encore, et qu'ils deviendraient plus exigeans et moins rangés?—A présent lorsqu'un journalier manque de travail il en cherche avec beaucoup d'empressement; dans le cas supposé il ne le ferait pas. Il n'y a pas de doute que si la commune venait ainsi à l'aide des paysans, ceux-ci ne se mariassent plus facilement encore, et ne devissent plus exigeans et moins rangés.

49. Combien de terre un paysan qui veut s'établir achète-t-il généralement et à quel prix?—Il achète de 50 à 100 verges qu'il paye à raison de 6 à 20 francs la verge, selon la position et la qualité du terrain*.

50. Dans le cas où il loue la terre, combien en loue-t-il, et à quelles conditions?—Il en loue de 50 à 100 verges pour 49 ans, et en paye le loyer à raison de 40 à 120 francs le bonnier.

51. Le terme de 49 ans expiré à qui reste la maison?—La maison est évaluée, et le propriétaire en rembourse le prix au locataire.

52. Lorsque le père meurt et qu'il laisse plusieurs enfans, comment ceux-ci s'arrangent-ils pour partager le petit héritage?—Dans ce cas ils vendent la petite propriété, et en partagent le prix, ou bien un des héritiers la garde et paye peu-à-peu aux autres leur part.

53. Ne vous semble-t-il pas que d'une part on bâtit mieux maintenant les maisons qu'autrefois, et que de l'autre les jardins qui entourent les maisons deviennent plus petits?—On bâtit mieux sans doute et dans des endroits plus sains et plus élevés; anciennement on plaçait les maisons dans les fonds, parceque l'on ne savait pas se procurer l'eau sur les hauteurs; les jardins sont plus petits parceque le terrain est plus cher.

54. Les filles font-elles aussi des épargnes, et aident-elles leurs maris en s'établissant?—En proportion du salaire qu'elles reçoivent elles font plus d'épargnes que les garçons, parcequ'elles blanchissent et font d'autres ouvrages pour elles-mêmes; elles mettent ordinairement leurs épargnes en commun avec leurs maris futurs pour l'établissement du nouveau ménage.

55. Les paysans connaissent-ils l'existence des caisses d'épargnes à Bruxelles? ont-ils confiance en elles, y placent-ils leurs épargnes?—Ils ne connaissent pas l'existence des caisses d'épargnes; ils n'y auraient pas confiance; ils sont très-soigneux de leurs épargnes qu'ils gardent aux-mêmes.

56. Y a-t-il des journaliers mariés qui fassent des épargnes?—Il y a bien peu de journaliers qui fassent des épargnes, parcequ'ils sont la plupart surchargés de famille.

57. Combien coûte une maison à bâtir?—De 500 à 600 francs.

58. Les journaliers ont-ils généralement une vache et un cochon?—En général ils ont une vache, un cochon et des poules.

59. Combien coûte une vache?—De 140 à 160 francs.

60. Consomment-ils dans leur ménage tout le produit de la vache, ou en vendent-ils une partie ou le tout?—Ils vendent le veau et le beurre, consomment le lait, et font du fromage pour leur propre usage.

61. Vendent-ils le cochon lorsqu'il est gras ou le consomment-ils eux-mêmes?—Il achètent un jeune cochon pour 8 ou 10 francs, l'engraissent, en vendent la moitié pour 40 ou 50 francs; salent l'autre moitié et la consomment dans leur ménage; ils en ont pour six mois.

62. Les journaliers louent-ils un champ?—Sur 29 ménages de journaliers et artisans il y en a 18 qui louent un champ.

63. Quelle est la cause pour laquelle 11 ménages ne louent pas de terre?—La cause principale est leur pauvreté, et la cause de leur pauvreté est généralement leur inconduite. Outre cela ils n'ont pas d'énergie, et ils n'inspirent pas de confiance à ceux qui ont des terres à louer. N'ayant pas de terre ils n'ont souvent ni vaches ni cochons.

64. Les journaliers louent-ils les champs directement du propriétaire ou du fermier?—Directement du propriétaire. Les propriétaires ont un receveur; celui-ci lorsqu'il a à louer un

* Un verge est la 400^e partie d'un bonnier.

un champ le fait afficher et le loue au plus offrant, si toutefois c'est une personne qui lui convienne.

65. Y a-t-il une grande concurrence entre les journaliers pour louer ces champs, et par suite le propriétaire réussit-il à les louer plus cher qu'aux fermiers?—La concurrence est grande. Les propriétaires aiment à louer leurs terres en petits lots parcequ'ils les louent ainsi plus cher.

66. De quelle étendue sont ces champs?—Les propriétaires louent rarement aux journaliers un champ qui outre passe en étendue un bonnier. Les premiers n'auraient pas assez de confiance dans la solvabilité des second, pour leur louer une plus grande étendue de terrain.

67. Remarque-t-on que les champs soient d'une étendue telle que les journaliers puissent les cultiver sans nuire à leur propre intérêt, comme journaliers?—Je crois que dans cette commune un journalier aidé de sa famille peut cultiver avec avantage un bonnier, parceque la terre est très-facile à travailler; il a assez d'engrais chez lui pour fumer convenablement son champ*.

68. A quelles conditions ont-ils un champ?—Les journaliers payent généralement de 60 à 80 francs par an pour un bonnier, et l'ont pour 9 ans.

69. Les journaliers tiennent-ils beaucoup à louer un champ?—Beaucoup. Ceux qui ne louent pas de terre sont considérés comme bien pauvres, et ils le sont en réalité; lorsqu'on veut dire qu'une famille est très-pauvre, on dit, qu'elle n'a pas de terre.

70. Les fermiers sont-ils contraires à ce que les journaliers louent des champs?—Les fermiers n'aiment pas beaucoup que les journaliers louent des champs, parceque ceux-ci se refusent dans certains momens, à cause des travaux qu'ils ont à exécuter sur leurs propres champs, à travailler chez les fermiers, et parcequ'ils craignent que les journaliers ne leur enlèvent des denrées en les faisant passer pour celles qu'ils ont récoltées eux-mêmes.

71. Les fermiers labourent-ils avec leurs charrues les champs des journaliers, et à quelles conditions?—Quelquefois. La journée de deux chevaux, d'une charrue et d'un domestique, est à peu-près de 8 francs; mais si un fermier donne pour une journée, ou une demi-journée, sa charrue à un journalier qui travaille ordinairement dans sa ferme, il ne lui fait payer que moitié prix.

72. Les journaliers que sèment-ils dans leurs champs?—Un peu de lin, et quelquefois un peu de tabac; mais le tabac est planté d'ordinaire dans le jardin; du froment, du seigle, de l'avoine, des pommes de terre, et des trèfles. Les fermiers plantent des colzas, les journaliers jamais.

73. Ces produits sont-ils proportionnellement plus abondans et plus beaux que ceux des fermes, ou est-ce le contraire?—Ils sont tant soit peu moins abondans et moins beaux pour les mêmes raisons que j'ai données plus haut.

74. Comment les journaliers disposent-ils des produits de leurs champs?—Ils en consomment la plus grande partie eux-mêmes; ils vendent le froment et achètent du seigle pour en faire du pain, parcequ'ils ne mangent que du pain de seigle.

75. Qui paye l'impôt foncier?—Toujours le fermier, soit grand, soit petit, soit journalier.

76. Les journaliers payent-ils aisément et régulièrement leurs loyers?—Selon la qualité du terrain et le prix du loyer, et selon qu'ils sont surchargés ou non de famille.

77. Quel est le taux des salaires?—Douze sous de France par jour; outre cela quelques fermiers donnent du café et du pain et du beurre le matin, et tous de la bière dans la journée: de manière que tout compris on peut porter la journée du journalier à 14 sous. Ceux qui font travailler des hommes qu'ils n'emploient pas ordinairement chez eux, et ne leur font pas faire la moisson, payent 2 sous de plus.

78. Y a-t-il une variation dans les salaires en hausse ou en baisse depuis quelques années, ou leur taux est-il le même depuis long-temps?—Depuis un temps immémorial ce taux n'a pas varié: mais lorsqu'il y a beaucoup de jeunes gens à l'armée, comme c'était le cas l'année dernière, les fermiers, manquant de domestiques, emploient en place de ceux-ci des journaliers, et ils leur donnent 8 sous par jour et la nourriture; ce qui fait monter le salaire de 14 sous à 18 ou 20, la nourriture ne pouvant pas être calculée à moins de 10 ou 12 sous.

79. Y a-t-il quelque différence dans le prix des salaires dans les diverses saisons de l'année?—Il n'y en a aucune.

80. De combien d'heures se compose la journée de travail l'été, et de combien l'hiver?—L'été la journée commence à 6 heures du matin et finit à 6 heures du soir; l'hiver elle commence à 7 heures du matin et finit à 5 heures du soir; il y a 2 heures et $\frac{1}{2}$ de repos dans la journée l'été, et 2 heures l'hiver.

81. De quelle manière les fermiers payent-ils les salaires, chaque jour ou chaque semaine; en nature ou en argent?—En argent le plus souvent. Quelquefois le fermier donne en paiement aux journaliers du seigle ou quelque autre denrée. Les salaires se payent chaque semaine.

82. Les

* Les champs que louent les journaliers sont ordinairement assez éloignés de leurs habitations. Comme les journaliers n'ont pas de chevaux, ils perdent beaucoup de temps à transporter chez eux les récoltes et à porter les engrais sur leurs champs; ce qui est encore plus pénible, ils s'attachent eux-mêmes à la herse avec leurs femmes et leurs enfans. Mais dans l'état actuel des choses il serait encore pire que les journaliers ne louassent pas des terres. Ce n'est qu'avec l'augmentation des capitaux et de l'industrie du pays, l'élévation du taux des salaires, la diffusion de l'instruction, que l'on pourra espérer de voir s'améliorer l'économie de l'exploitation des champs des journaliers, et de voir cesser un travail aussi dégradant pour des êtres humains.

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82. Les fermiers ne donnent-ils jamais de l'ouvrage à la tâche aux journaliers ? Remarque-t-on que dans ce cas les journaliers travaillent d'avantage et gagnent plus que lorsqu'ils travaillent à la journée ?—Il n'y a que la moisson qui se fasse toujours à la tâche, et quelquefois la coupe du foin. A cette occasion le paysan travaille plus qu'à l'ordinaire et gagne d'avantage.

83. Lorsqu'un journalier fait la moisson chez un fermier, reçoit-il une partie de la moisson en paiement de son travail ? En ce cas, dans quelle proportion se partage la moisson ?—Il reçoit en paiement une partie de la moisson. A chaque 25 gerbes, 24 sont pour le fermier, et une pour l'homme qui fait la moisson ; celui-ci a en outre le droit de glaner avec sa famille*.

84. Et lorsqu'il coupe le foin, comment est-il payé ?—Il reçoit de 45 à 50 sous le bonnier, et de la bière.

85. Le fermier en prenant un journalier, préfère-t-il l'homme marié ou le célibataire ?—Le fermier préfère l'homme qui travaille le plus et le mieux.

86. A mérite égal a-t-il l'habitude de donner un salaire plus élevé à l'homme marié ?—A mérite égal le fermier donne le même salaire à l'homme marié qu'au célibataire ; il ne pourrait pas faire autrement, car le célibataire ne voudrait pas travailler pour un moindre prix.

87. Quel est le salaire d'une femme, quel est celui d'un enfant ?—Une femme a 12 sous l'été et 10 l'hiver ; un enfant de même, mais ils n'ont ni café ni bière.

88. Combien de journées fait ordinairement un homme dans une année chez un fermier ?—Si on décompte les fêtes, et les 20 ou 30 jours que le journalier consacre à son champ, le reste du temps il travaille chez le fermier. Il donne en outre à son champ et son jardin quelques instants le matin et le soir de chaque jour.

89. Quel est le nombre de jours dans l'année que les paysans ont l'habitude de fêter ?—

Dimanches - - - - -	-	-	-	-	52
Fêtes obligées outre les dimanches	-	-	-	-	4
Fêtes non obligées, mais observées	-	-	-	-	11
Total - - -					67

Outre cela les paysans ne travaillent pas le lundi et une partie du mardi qui suivent le jour de la *Kermesse*, ou fête du village ; dans cette commune il n'y a qu'une *Kermesse* par an, mais dans d'autres il y en a deux*.

90. Combien de journées fait une femme dans une année, combien un enfant ?—Les femmes et les enfans en font à peu-près 50 ou 60 dans l'année.

91. Les journaliers s'engagent-ils chez les fermiers pour un temps déterminé, semaine, mois, année ?—Les journaliers s'engagent chez un fermier pour un an.

92. Les fermiers gardent-ils pendant long-temps les mêmes individus, ou les changent-ils souvent ?—Les bons fermiers et les bons journaliers restent ensemble bien long-temps.

93. Y a-t-il dans la commune plus de laboureurs que n'exige la bonne exploitation des fermes, ou y en a-t-il moins ?—Il y a le nombre justement suffisant.

94. Les journaliers ordinaires habitant dans la commune, suffisent-ils au temps de la moisson ?—Ils suffisent, y compris le peu d'artisans.

95. Cela tient-il à la variété des produits dont la récolte se fait à différentes époques ?—Oui.

96. Combien de laboureurs pense-t-on qu'il faille pour la bonne culture d'une ferme, en raison des bonniers dont elle se compose ?—C'est difficile à préciser. Je pense cependant que l'on peut calculer que l'on emploie réellement un laboureur pour 5 bonniers ; et ce nombre est ce qu'il faut, en considérant la nature des fermes que les habitans de la commune cultivent.

97. Bruxelles n'est qu'à 3 lieues de Gaesbeck, et c'est une ville où l'on bâtit beaucoup, et où il y a des manufactures : voit-on que des journaliers de la commune soient attirés en ville par le prix plus élevé des salaires, et que, de journaliers, ils deviennent manœuvres, ou ouvriers dans les manufactures ?—Cela n'arrive pas souvent, parceque les habitans de cette commune n'ont pas les dispositions naturelles et nécessaires à ce changement d'état. Je connais toutefois des journaliers qui sont allés en ville tenir cabaret, qui ont fait fortune et sont devenus brasseurs.

98. A ressources égales, existe-t-il une grande différence entre le bien être d'une famille et celui d'une autre, et cette différence ne doit-on pas l'attribuer surtout à la bonne ou mauvaise conduite du chef de la famille ?—A la conduite du mari et de la femme.

99. Y a-t-il beaucoup de familles en mauvais état à cause de leur mauvaise conduite, d'excès dans la boisson, paresse, &c. ?—Il y en a plusieurs.

100. De quoi se compose le mobilier d'une famille de journaliers ?—De lits en proportion du nombre des individus qui composent la famille, quelques chaises, tables, de la poterie, &c.

101. De

* Dans l'état stationnaire du taux des salaires des journaliers, il est très-avantageux pour eux de recevoir en payement de leur travail une partie de la moisson, parceque de la sorte le salaire augmente naturellement avec l'augmentation du prix des grains.

† La *Kermesse* est la fête du patron de l'église de la commune.

101. De quoi est fait le lit ?—Le lit est en bois ; le mari et la femme ont un matelas en laine, ou bourré de plumes ; les enfans n'ont que des paillasses ; les draps sont de grosse toile de lin, et les couvertures de laine.

102. A combien peut-on évaluer le mobilier d'une famille de journaliers ?—Le mobilier d'une famille de journaliers, en des circonstances ordinaires, peut être évalué à 200 francs.

103. De quoi se compose la nourriture ?—Le matin de bonne heure du café au lait avec très-peu ou point de sucre, et du pain (de seigle) ; à 9 heures, du pain avec du beurre, ou du fromage, ou de la graisse ; à midi, du lard et des pommes de terre, ou des carottes, &c. ; et le soir, de la salade et du pain.

104. De quelle boisson fait-on usage ?—D'une très-petite bière que les paysans brassent eux-mêmes ; ceux qui ont plus de moyens en achètent aussi chez les brasseurs ; ils la payent de 8 à 16 francs le tonneau de 220 litres.

105. Y a-t-il quelque différence dans la manière de se nourrir des paysans entre le présent et le passé ?—Il y a évidemment de la différence en mieux ; leur table est aussi servie avec plus de propreté ; je me rappelle d'avoir vu des familles manger sans fourchettes ; cela n'a pas lieu à présent, pas même chez les plus pauvres.

106. Comment se chauffe-t-on ? achete-t-on du bois, de la houille, ou alimente-t-on le feu avec le bois sec recueilli dans les bois et les champs d'autrui ?—Les paysans les plus aisés font usage d'un poêle ; ils achètent la coupe de bois des propriétaires, et la payent soit en argent, soit en travail en coupant le bois et abattant les arbres ; ils achètent aussi un peu de houille que les fermiers leur portent en même temps qu'ils vont chercher la leur ; les plus pauvres ramassent le bois chez les autres*.

107. Que brûle-t-on pour avoir de la lumière ?—De l'huile de colza, ou de graine de lin.

108. Quels sont les vêtemens des paysans ? Que dependent-ils chaque année en vêtemens ?—Voici quels sont les vêtemens qu'un journalier use à peu-près en une année, et leur prix :

1 Sarrau en toile bleue	-	-	-	-	-	6 fr.
2 Chemises de grosse toile de lin	-	-	.	-	-	12
1 Pantalon de futaine ou de drap	-	-	-	-	-	7
1 Gillet	-	-	-	-	-	3
1 Veste en futaine ou en drap	-	-	-	-	-	7
1 Paire de souliers	-	-	-	-	-	5
5 Idem de sabots	-	-	-	-	-	2
2 Idem de bas de laine	-	-	-	-	-	3
1 Casquette	-	-	-	-	-	3
2 Paires de chaussons	-	-	-	-	-	1, 10
1 Cravate	-	-	-	-	-	1
2 Mouchoirs pour les jours de fêtes	-	-	-	-	-	2
Total, francs						52, 10

Si l'on considère toutefois qu'après une année une partie de ces vêtemens peut servir aux enfans, on peut porter la dépense annuelle d'un laboureur en vêtemens à 35 francs. Les femmes portent tous les jours des robes de laine, et des robes de coton le dimanche, un bonnet de couleur tous les jours, et un bonnet blanc le dimanche avec un mouchoir de coton sur la tête, ou un mantelet d'étoffe de coton. On peut évaluer la dépense de l'habillement des femmes et de celui des enfans à la moitié de celui des hommes. Les hommes ont toujours du linge propre le dimanche. Hommes, femmes et enfans portent également des souliers les jours de fête, et ne vont jamais à l'église en sabots.

109. Y a-t-il de la différence dans la manière de s'habiller des paysans entre le présent et le passé ?—Les paysans sont mieux habillés maintenant qu'ils ne l'étaient autrefois ; les étoffes sont à meilleur marché.

110. Les familles fabriquent-elles la toile ou d'autres étoffes elles-mêmes ?—Elles filent le lin qu'elles recueillent sur leur champ, et font faire de la toile à des tisserands hors de la commune ; c'est avec cette toile qu'elles se fournissent le linge†.

111. La

* L'habitude que les paysans ont de recueillir du bois sur les propriétés d'autrui est si invétérée, que les propriétaires ne pourraient par les en empêcher. Le dégât que les paysans font aux propriétés est supérieur à la valeur du bois qu'ils recueillent ; le temps qu'ils perdent ainsi est grand, mais leurs besoins sont si pressans, qu'ils ne pourraient pas faire autrement ; et quant au temps, dans la distribution actuelle du travail dans le pays, ce n'est pas chose bien précieuse à la campagne.

† J'ai voulu vous mettre sous les yeux le budget de la recette et de la dépense de la famille d'un journalier, mais je n'ai pu me procurer que le budget suivant qui est très-incomplet.

Pour une famille de 6 individus ; le père, la mère, une fille de 18 ans, deux garçons, un de 17 et l'autre de 13 ans, et un enfant de 6 ans :

Recette.					
					fr.
Tout ce qu'elle gagne en travaillant chez autrui	-	-	-	-	350
Tout ce qu'elle vend, produit du jardin, du champ, &c.	-	-	-	-	290
Total, francs					640

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111. La commune a-t-elle des fonds pour les pauvres ? De quelle somme peut-elle disposer en aumône chaque année, et comment et par qui la somme est-elle dépensée ?— La commune a des terres et des capitaux exclusivement destinés au soulagement des pauvres. Ces terres et ces capitaux rapportent 566 francs par an.* Il y a un bureau de bienfaisance composé de 5 membres, proposés par le conseil communal, et approuvés par le gouverneur de la province. Le curé est toujours du nombre, et c'est lui qui ordinairement distribue les aumônes, et rend compte à ses collègues de sa gestion. Voici un tableau qui montre le nombre des pauvres qui ont été secourus dans l'année 1832, la manière dont ils l'ont été, et la qualité du secours que chacun a reçu.

LISTE des pauvres Habitans qui ont été secourus par le Bureau de Bienfaisance de la Commune de *Gaesbeck*, classés selon leurs besoins et selon la faculté du même Bureau.

Première Classe. Individus considérés comme les plus Pauvres.	Seconde Classe. Idem pour ceux moins Pauvres.	Troisième Classe. Pour ceux qui ont besoin de Secours en cas de Maladies et Malheurs.
1° J. B. Van Laer.	1° Ch. Spettens, sa femme et 4 enfants.	1° J. Segers, et sa femme et 2 enfants.
2° Joseph Coyns.	2° Louis Contry, v ^e avec 4 en- fans.	2° J. B. Lichlers, sa femme et 3 enfants.
3° G. Heurvaert.	3° Jos. Decorte, sa femme, 4 enfants.	3° Arn. de Gréef, sa femme et 4 enfants.
4° V ^{ve} Herguel avec 2 enfans.	4° La V ^{ve} Huggh.	4° L. Maonens, sa femme et 4 enfants.
5° Jean Bellaert, sa femme et 6 enfans.		5° L. Demaegts et sa femme.
6° Henri de Gréef, sa femme et 3 enfans.		6° L. Cooters, sa femme et 4 enfants.
7° Fr. de Knop, sa femme et 5 enfans.		7° J. Bertrand, sa femme et 2 enfants.
8° G. Van Horebeek, sa femme et 5 enfans.		8° G. Contrens et sa femme.
9° J. B. Coyns, sa femme et 4 enfans.		9° V ^{ve} Engellens.
10° C. H. Maonens, sa femme et 4 enfans.		10° Jos. Jacquemyns et sa femme.
11° Fr. Serman, sa femme et 4 enfans.		11° J. Sheys, sa femme et 5 enfants.

Dépense.

	fr.
Seigle pour faire le pain, à raison de 3 raissières par mois (une rassière équivant à peu-près à un bushel)	295
Habillement	190
Impôts	32
Caffé, sel, savon, et autres denrées	31
Bois	62
Houille	8
Loyer de la maison, du jardin et d'un champ de $\frac{3}{4}$ de bonnier	80
Total, francs	698

On n'y a pas compris les pommes de terres récoltés sur le champ, ni la moitié d'un porc, ni le lait, ni les produits du jardin, &c. En évaluant tout cela à 200 fr., et en ajoutant cette somme à la recette, et en portant une somme égale à la dépense, la recette totale de la famille monterait à 840 fr.; la dépense à 898. Mais tout cela est très-inexact, et je n'ai donné cette esquisse de budget que faute de mieux. J'aurais désiré aussi offrir un aperçu de ce que coûte à un journalier le champ qu'il loue, et de ce qu'il en retire, pour voir quel est le profit net, mais le malheureux essai du budget m'a découragé.

* Cette somme doit vous paraître bien modique; 566 francs pour 366 habitans! Il y a surement des paroisses chez vous qui dépensent autant de guinées qu'elles ont d'habitans. Mais dans ce pays-ci cette commune passe pour bien dotée en fonds pour les pauvres. Le curé d'une commune voisine écrivit dernièrement à M. d'Arconati, qu'un journalier avait perdu sa vache; que la commune n'avait que 250 francs pour les pauvres; et que pour fournir au journalier les moyens d'acheter une vache, sans laquelle lui et sa famille auraient été dans la plus grande détresse, il avait prêté 73 francs au pauvre homme, et que cette somme il l'avait prise sur des fonds destinés à l'entretien de l'église; il demandait à M. d'Arconati un secours pour en opérer le remboursement. Voilà comment les affaires des pauvres se traitent dans ce pays-ci.

DISTRIBUTION PENDANT 1832.

	Janvier.	Fevr.	Mars.	Avril.	Mai.	Juin.	Juillet.	Août.	7bre.	8bre.	9bre.	10bre.	TOTAL.
1 ^{re} Classe.	Fr. Cts.	Fr. Cts.	Fr. Cts.	Fr. Cts.	Frs. Cts.	Frs. Cts.	Frs. Cts.	Frs. Cts.	Frs. Cts.	Frs. Cts.	Frs. Cts.	Frs. Cts.	Frs. Cts.
1. J. B. Van Laer	6 -	6 -	6 -	6 -	6 -	6 -	6 -	6 -	6 -	6 -	6 -	6 -	72 -
2. Jos. Coyns	3 50	3 50	3 50	3 50	3 50	3 50	3 50	3 50	3 50	2 -	3 -	3 -	39 50
3. G. Heurvaert	3 50	3 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	38 50
4. V ^{ve} Hergul	3 50	3 50	3 50	3 50	3 50	3 50	3 50	3 -	2 -	2 -	2 -	2 -	35 50
5. J. Bellaert	3 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	-	-	-	3 -	27 -
6. H. De Gréef	5 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	-	-	-	3 -	29 -
7. Fr. De Knop	3 -	3 -	3 -	8 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	-	-	-	3 -	32 -
8. G. Van Horbéke	3 -	3 -	7 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	-	-	-	3 -	31 -
9. J. B. Coyns	3 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	6 -	3 -	3 -	-	-	-	3 -	30 -
10. C. H. Maonens	3 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	-	-	-	3 -	27 -
11. Fr. Serman	3 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	3 -	-	-	-	3 -	27 -
2 ^{me} Classe.	39 50	37 -	41 -	42 -	37 -	40 -	37 -	36 50	14 50	13 -	14 -	35 -	386 50
1. Ch. Spettens	2 -	2 -	2 -	3 -	2 -	-	3 -	-	-	-	-	-	14 -
2. Louis Contry	5 -	-	-	-	4 -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9 -
3. Jos. Decorte	-	5 -	-	3 -	-	3 -	-	-	-	-	-	-	11 -
4. La V ^{ue} Hugg	3 -	2 -	-	6 -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	11 -
3 ^{ne} Classe.	49 50	46 -	43 -	54 -	43 -	43 -	40 -	36 50	14 50	13 -	14 -	35 -	431 50
1. J. Segers, pour sa fille malade	-	5 -	5 -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10 -
2. Arn. De Gréef	5 -	-	-	5 -	5 -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	11 -
3. L. Maonens, pour malheur	-	-	25 -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	25 -
4. L. Demeught, pour maladie	-	-	-	-	-	4 -	10 -	-	-	-	-	-	14 -
5. Pour loyer d'une maisonnette	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	27 -
6. Honoraire du maitre d'école, pour les enfans des pauvres	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	45 -
7. Pour habillement pour les enfans de la première communion	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	60 -
TOTAL - - -	54 50	51 -	73 -	59 -	48 -	47 -	50 -	36 50	14 50	13 -	14 -	35 -	627 50

112. Les aumônes que l'on recueille dans l'église sont-elles destinées en partie au soulagement des pauvres?—Les aumônes que l'on recueille dans l'église sont ordinairement destinées à l'entretien de l'église. Toutefois si l'état des pauvres l'exigeait le curé ferait une quête dans l'église pour eux. Ici cela ne se pratique pas, parcequ'on n'en éprouve pas le besoin. L'on fait quelquefois des quêtes pour des malheurs arrivés dans d'autres communes, comme incendies, inondations, &c. Cela a eu lieu l'année passée dans toutes les communes du royaume à cause de l'inondation des polders ; mais il faut pour ce genre de quêtes l'autorisation de M. l'Archevêque de Malines.

113. Lorsque la commune a épuisé tous les fonds qu'elle avait pour les pauvres, et qu'il reste des individus dans une grande misère, la charité privée vient-elle suffisamment à leur secours?—En proportion de la population de la commune la somme à dépenser en secours aux pauvres est assez forte. Après cela le bureau de bienfaisance a toujours à peu-près une année de rente en réserve, et si les circonstances l'exigeaient, il pourrait obtenir de son receveur quelques avances. Si toutes ces ressources n'étaient pas suffisantes, les fermiers, et les propriétaires demeurans dans la commune, se cotiseraient volontairement pour empêcher tout désordre, et garantir leurs propriétés. Il y a bien des communes qui n'ont pas de fonds pour les pauvres, et où l'on s'arrange de cette manière ; l'autorité supérieure les engage à cela, mais ne les y force pas.

114. Les propriétaires qui ne demeurent pas dans la commune concourent-ils de quelque manière au maintien des pauvres?—Ils n'y concourent d'aucune manière.

115. Voit-on des journaliers dans des circonstances relativement aisées venir au secours de ceux qui sont dans la détresse?—Les journaliers savent que la commune a des fonds pour les pauvres, et ils pensent que c'est à elle et aux riches qu'il appartient de secourir les pauvres : je crois cependant qu'il arrive quelquefois que les journaliers dans une situation relativement bonne donnent quelques secours à ceux qui sont dans la détresse.

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116. Y a-t-il jamais eu des cas d'individus morts d'inanition?—Jamais un cas semblable n'est arrivé, et ce serait chose impossible. Si l'on savait qu'il y eut un individu prêt à mourir d'inanition tout le monde irait à son secours.

117. Arrive-t-il que des pauvres viennent s'établir dans cette commune à cause des fonds dont elle dispose pour leur soulagement?—Cela n'arrive pas, parceque le bureau de bienfaisance ne donne généralement des secours qu'aux familles établies dans la commune depuis 5 ans : avant ce temps elles les reçoivent de la commune qu'elles ont quittée.

118. Les pauvres ont-ils un droit, croient-ils avoir un droit à être secourus? reçoivent-ils les secours avec reconnaissance?—Comme les fonds pour les pauvres ont été legués à la commune pour les pauvres, il s'en suit que ceux-ci ont un droit à les recevoir. Je ne sais pas ce que les pauvres pensent, mais ils reçoivent les secours que le bureau croit convenable de leur donner, avec reconnaissance.

119. Ne pensez-vous pas que s'il y avait plus de fonds pour les pauvres il y aurait plus de pauvres qui demanderaient des secours?—Je pense que les postulans ne manqueraient pas.

120. La mendicité est-elle tolérée dans la commune?—La mendicité est défendue par la loi. La surveillance de l'autorité cependant se ralentit quelquefois, et alors quelques individus mendient; puis la surveillance devient plus active, et la mendicité cesse. Dans une petite commune comme celle-ci, où tous se connaissent et savent qu'il y a des fonds pour les pauvres, on ne peut pas mendier beaucoup; ce ne sont que des gens n'appartenant point à la commune qui osent demander l'aumône*.

121. Y a-t-il des mendiants établis dans la commune?—Il n'y en a pas.

122. Lorsqu'un membre de la famille d'un laboureur tombe malade comment lui procure-t-on les secours du médecin et du chirurgien, et les médicamens?—M. le Marquis d'Arconati paye un médecin et les médicamens pour les pauvres de la commune. S'il ne subvenait pas à cette dépense ce serait le bureau de bienfaisance qui s'en chargerait; il donnerait au médecin de 60 à 70 francs. Ceux qui ne sont pas sur la liste des pauvres payent eux-mêmes le médecin et les médicamens.

123. Y a-t-il dans la commune un chirurgien, un apothicaire, une sage-femme?—Aucun individu exerçant ces professions n'est établi dans la commune.

124. Que fait-on des personnes pauvres atteintes de maladies chroniques?—Si elles n'ont pas de parens, le bureau de bienfaisance les placent dans une famille; si elles ont des parens il donne des secours à ceux-ci. Actuellement il ne se trouve pas dans la commune d'individus en cet état. Le bureau de bienfaisance a payé dans le temps 80 francs par an de pension pour un pauvre atteint d'une maladie chronique.

125. S'il y a quelqu'aliéné dans la commune qu'en fait-on?—Il y a actuellement 2 aliénés dans la commune, mais il appartiennent à des familles assez aisées, et elles en ont soin. S'il y en avait appartenant à une famille pauvre, ils seraient placés par la commune dans une maison de fous, et entretenus aux frais de la commune.

126. A combien s'élève la dépense d'un baptême, d'un mariage à l'église, d'un enterrement?—Il y a un tarif, publié par M. l'Archevêque de Malines, du casuel et droit d'étole dans les églises paroissiales et succursales du diocèse de Malines, qui établit des classes selon l'étendue des communes, et sert de règle aux curés. Dans cette commune, qui est de dernière classe, un baptême peut coûter 2 francs; une bénédiction nuptiale de 7 à 8 francs; un enterrement suivi d'un service de 40 à 45 francs.

127. Ces dépenses sont-elles à la charge des journaliers? Ceux-ci n'en sont-ils jamais dispensés à cause de leur pauvreté?—Les journaliers dans des circonstances ordinaires payent ces dépenses, les pauvres en sont exemptés. Dans les communes où il y a beaucoup de pauvres, et passablement de fonds pour les secourir, le bureau de bienfaisance supplée aux dépenses des enterremens des pauvres; mais cela est bien rare.

128. Le cas d'enfans illégitimes est-il fréquent dans la commune?—Le cas est très-rare; depuis 5 ans il n'y en a eu qu'un seul.

129. Quelle mesure prendrait-on à leur égard?—La mère garderait l'enfant, le père en aurait soin, le mariage probablement s'en suivrait.

130. Les vieillards sont-ils entretenus par leurs enfans, et remarque-t-on que ceux-ci en aient soin?—Les enfans, lorsqu'ils en ont les moyens, entretiennent leurs vieux parens; si les enfans sont très-pauvres le bureau de bienfaisance vient à leur aide.

131. Quelles sont les ressources des vieillards pauvres sans famille?—Les vieillards délaissés sont placés par le bureau de bienfaisance dans une famille. Dans ce moment le bureau de bienfaisance entretient de cette manière un vieillard, et paye pour lui une pension de 72 francs par an. Outre cela il l'habille, et en cas de maladie il aurait à payer un supplément de dépense. Si le vieillard pouvait tant soit peu travailler, la pension serait moins forte.

132. Si

* Dans l'année 1830 beaucoup de pauvres venaient tous les jours à la poste du château de Gaesbeck demander l'aumône. Ou la faisait à tous, vu les circonstances. L'année suivante c'était la même chose; on fixa alors un jour de la semaine pour la distribution des aumônes: on donnait 2 sous par individu. Le premier jour il se présenta une cinquantaine de pauvres, le second 60, et à la fin de la saison, quoiqu'on eut réduit l'aumône à un sou pour les hommes et un demi-sou pour les enfans, il en venait 300 à 400; ils arrivaient de 10 à 12 milles à la ronde. L'année suivante on prit la détermination de ne plus rien donner à jour fixe, et de prendre le nom des pauvres pour se procurer des renseignemens sur leur compte. Cette mesure, jointe à une amélioration dans l'état du pays, a rendu le nombre des pauvres insignifiant, et l'on a été à même de donner de véritables secours aux véritables malheureux.

132. Si le pauvre vieillard que le bureau de bienfaisance entretient avec une dépense de 72 francs par an, était privé tout-à-coup de ce secours, et s'adonnant à la mendicité était arrêté par la force publique et transporté au dépôt de mendicité ou aux colonies, mais à la charge de la commune, combien coûterait-il par an à la commune? Croyez-vous qu'il serait plus malheureux ou moins malheureux qu'il n'est à présent?—Le vieillard, soit au dépôt de mendicité, soit aux colonies, coûterait à la commune au-delà de 130 francs par an, et il serait sûrement plus malheureux. Il y a eu dans la commune des cas d'individus transportés dans ces lieux. Ils y sont allés avec chagrin, et ils ont toujours tâché de revenir dans leur village. Les paysans aiment à vivre là où ils sont nés, parmi ceux avec lesquels ils ont été élevés, et en conservant leurs habitudes*.

133. Qui est-ce qui se charge des orphelins? arrive-t-il souvent que leurs proches parens s'en chargent?—Si les orphelins ont quelque bien on leur donne un tuteur. Le tuteur est ordinairement un parent qui jouit du petit revenu de l'enfant et profite de son travail, et en retour il l'entretient. S'ils n'ont absolument rien, mais s'ils ont des parens en état de fournir à leur subsistance, ceux-ci s'en chargent; s'ils n'ont ni bien, ni parens assez aisés, le bureau de bienfaisance les place dans une famille.

134. A combien monte la pension d'un orphelin?—Il n'y a pas actuellement d'orphelins à la charge du bureau de bienfaisance; dans le temps le bureau a payé 40 francs par an pour la pension d'un orphelin.

135. Y a-t-il une école dans la commune?—Il n'y a pas d'école à présent dans la commune, mais on se prépare à en ouvrir une par souscription. A présent les enfans vont à l'école dans les communes voisines.

136. Combien d'enfans y a-t-il dans la commune en âge d'aller à l'école, et combien y en a-t-il qui y vont?—Il y a 30 ou 60 enfans qui sont en âge d'aller à l'école, mais comme il n'y a pas d'école dans la commune, les plus jeunes n'y vont pas.

137. Combien d'heures par jour les enfans restent-ils à l'école?—4 heures; 2 le matin et 2 l'après diner.

138. Combien paye chaque enfant?—De 10 sous à 1 franc par mois, selon qu'ils apprennent à écrire ou non.

139. Qui paye pour les enfans pauvres?—Le bureau de bienfaisance.

140. Les filles vont-elles à l'école aussi-bien que les garçons?—Elles y vont aussi.

141. Qu'apprend-t-on aux uns et aux autres?—On ne leur apprend qu'à lire, écrire et l'arithmétique.

142. Je suppose que tous les enfans reçoivent du curé l'enseignement religieux. A quel âge commence cet enseignement, et combien d'années dure-t-il? Combien d'heures par jour, et combien de jours dans l'année cet enseignement occupe-t-il les enfans?—Le curé instruit les enfans dans la religion tous les dimanches à l'église pendant une heure. Les enfans commencent à recevoir cette instruction à 7 ans et continuent jusqu'à 14. Ceux qui se préparent à faire leur première communion sont en outre instruits par le curé pendant le carême deux ans avant la communion.

143. Les paysans savent-ils généralement lire et écrire?—Parmi les hommes au-dessus de l'âge de 50 ans il y en a plusieurs qui ne savent ni lire ni écrire, mais ceux au-dessous savent au moins lire presque tous.

144. Possèdent-ils quelque livre, et le lisent-ils?—Ils ne possèdent que des livres de prière, et des almanachs.

145. Voit-on chez les paysans plus d'empressement qu'autrefois à faire instruire leurs enfans?—Il n'y a pas de doute que les paysans ont plus d'empressement qu'autrefois à envoyer leurs enfans à l'école.

146. Les paysans font-ils généralement vacciner leurs enfans?—Presque tous les parens font vacciner leurs enfans. Le gouvernement paye un médecin qui vient s'établir une fois par an pour quelques jours dans le chef-lieu du canton; et les parens y portent leurs enfans et les font vacciner.

147. Se commet-il souvent des crimes dans la commune?—Bien rarement. Je crois qu'il y a au moins 12 ans qu'aucun individu de la commune n'a été mis en prison. Il arrive quelquefois que l'on commet des petits vols de bois, &c.†

148. Combien de cabarets y a-t-il dans la commune? Les journaliers les fréquentent-ils avec eux leurs femmes et les enfans?—Il y a 3 cabarets dans la commune, mais les journaliers ne les fréquentent pas trop parcequ'ils n'en ont pas les moyens. Les plus aisés y vont le dimanche, mais ils ne mènent avec eux ni femmes ni enfans.

149. Outre les cabarets n'y a-t-il aucun autre commerce dans la commune?—Un des cabaretiers est en même-temps épicier.

150. A quels

* La mendicité est qualifiée par le code pénal de delit passible de trois à six mois d'emprisonnement. Les tribunaux cependant ne condamnent d'ordinaire les mendiants qui sont traduits devant eux qu'à quelques jours d'emprisonnement; mais aussitôt qu'ils sont mis en liberté, le gouvernement s'en empare et les envoie aux dépôts de mendicité de leurs provinces respectives, à la charge des communes où ils ont leur domicile de secours. Ils demeurent dans ces dépôts à la discrétion de l'autorité administrative, qui peut prolonger indéfiniment leur réclusion. La mendicité est ainsi punie beaucoup plus sévèrement que le vol. Cela n'est pas juste, et réclame un changement. L'injustice de la loi, et les dépenses auxquelles les communes sont astreintes lorsqu'elles ont des mendiants dans les dépôts, font que la mendicité est très-peu réprimée.

† Depuis 1827 j'ai passé tous les ans la belle saison dans la commune, et je puis attester la vérité du fait.

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150. A quels amusemens les paysans se livrent-ils les jours de Kermesse, et les autres jours de fête?—Les jours de Kermesse les paysans dinent mieux que le reste de l'année, mangent du pain blanc et de la viande fraîche. Le soir on danse dans les cabarets. Les autres jours de fête les paysans jouent à quelques jeu d'adresse.

151. Les Kermesses sont-elles souvent l'occasion de querelles?—Souvent.

152. Arrive-t-il souvent que des paysans subissent des condamnations pour délits de chasse?—Jamais*.

153. Les journaliers envient-ils le sort des fermiers; sont-ils mécontents du leur?—Je ne pense pas que les journaliers soient envieux du sort des fermiers. Je crois que les relations entre les journaliers et les fermiers sont très-amicales, et que les journaliers ne sont nullement mécontents de leur sort: ils ont des égards pour ceux qui leur donnent constamment du travail†.

154. Croyez-vous qu'il y ait une différence sensible entre la condition des paysans de cette commune et celle des communes environnantes?—Il peut y avoir quelque commune qui ait plus de fonds pour les pauvres, quelque autre qui en ait moins, mais du reste, je pense que la condition des paysans est à peu-près la même dans toutes‡.

* Les propriétaires peuvent chasser sur leurs biens, et permettre d'y chasser à qui bon leur semble. Tous doivent être munis d'un port d'armes, qui est délivré par le gouverneur de la province et qui coûte 30 francs. Voilà à quoi se réduisent à peu-près les lois sur la chasse. Peu de propriétaires gardent la chasse sur leurs terres; les faisans sont fort rares en Belgique; il y a peu de gibier, et le métier de braconnier n'est pas très-lucratif. Lorsqu'un paysan tue un lièvre sur la terre d'autrui, il est bien rare qu'il soit poursuivi; il n'est pas surprenant alors que les paysans ne subissent jamais de condamnations pour délits de chasse. En cela la France et la Belgique sont bien supérieures à votre pays.

† Les fermiers travaillent presque tous de même que les journaliers, et de cette manière il s'établit une certaine harmonie entre les uns et les autres, qui fait disparaître le desaccord qui d'ordinaire naît de la différence des conditions. Les plus riches fermiers de la commune n'ont pas un capital supérieur à 10 ou 12 mille francs, et on n'est pas bien fier avec une pareille fortune, exposée, comme elle est, à plusieurs chances de réduction. Si on pouvait avoir des fermiers plus riches, et en même-temps des journaliers plus à leur aise, ce serait une bonne chose; mieux vaudrait encore des fermiers plus instruits et moins adonnés à la boisson, et des journaliers aussi plus instruits. Mais quant à avoir des fermiers plus riches et des journaliers pauvres, il est préférable que les choses restent telles qu'elles sont.

‡ Pour autant que je connaisse les communes voisines, je crois qu'il y a plus de différence entre elles qu'il n'est dit ici. Je crois que sous le rapport des mœurs les curés y aient une influence plus ou moins favorable, et que le plus ou moins de facilité pour louer des terres influe d'une manière non moins remarquable sur le bien être des journaliers. Le voisinage des villes et des grandes routes est aussi favorable sous beaucoup de rapports, et défavorable sous quelques autres; mais je pense aussi qu'au fond il n'y a pas une différence sensible, je ne dirai pas entre province et province, mais entre canton et canton.

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— No. 2. —

REPORT on the AGRICULTURAL COLONIES in *Belgium*. By *H. Rowland Brandreth*,
Captain Royal Engineers.

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IN the year 1818, a society was established in Holland under the name of the “ Benevolent Society,” having for its object the founding of agricultural colonies, “ where the indigent are relieved from want, by means of their own labour; and where the young and ignorant are instructed, and ultimately returned to that intercourse with the world, for which they had become unfit, in a condition to provide for their own wants, and to yield obedience to the laws.”

Every inhabitant of the kingdom of the Netherlands, in possession of legal rights, and not degraded by criminal conviction for certain offences, might become an object of the society’s care.

Every member of the society paid annually 52 stivers (4 s. 4 d.) or one stiver (1 d.) per week, without prejudice to any additional donation.

The administration of the business of the society was intrusted to two commissions :—

The first, of which Prince Frederick, the second son of the king, became president, was called the “ Commission of Benevolence,” and was intrusted with the administration of finances, the instruction and education of the colonists, and the correspondence and direction of all branches of the business of the society.

The second commission, of which the Prince of Orange was president, was intended to watch over, and check the proceedings of the first, and was called the “ Commission of Superintendence.” As soon as the rules were sanctioned by his Majesty, and circulated by the Government authorities through all the districts of Holland, 20,000 individuals became members of the society; and an annual revenue was raised, for the first experiment, of 70,000 florins, or 5,833 l. 6 s. 8 d. sterling, besides orders to the amount of 26,000 yards of cloth.

Local, or sub-committees, were established in the different towns and districts, for the purpose of collecting subscriptions and contributions, and for watching over their application by the society. These committees communicated with the Commission of Benevolence at the Hague, who placed their remittances in the national bank.

The society being constituted, and its finances in such a condition as to create public confidence in its operations, the estate of Westerbeekslot was bought at the price of 4,666 l., situated on the confines of the provinces of Drenthe, Friesland, and Overijssel, and at a short distance from the town of Steenwyk. The 1,300 acres, of which the estate consisted, were, with the exception of about 100 or 150 acres, covered with a stunted heather, and mossy earth. A more unpromising subject could hardly have been selected; but this very circumstance induced its selection, as likely to afford, if the experiment should be successful, the most encouraging test of the efficacy of the institution.

The 100, or 150 acres already cultivated, were let to tenants; and 300 acres of the waste and desert heath were set apart for the establishment of the first colony, which was called Fredericks-Oord, from Prince Frederick, who had undertaken to preside over the institution. After deepening the river Aa, and making such roads as were sufficient to connect this wilderness with the adjacent country, a warehouse, a school, two manufacturing halls, and 52 farms were erected for the reception of 52 families of destitute poor, who took possession on the 1st November 1818.

Every colonist was obliged, on entering, to sign and promise to obey certain rules and regulations for the strict observance of good conduct and due subordination. The rules were framed with the strictest regard to the morals and habits of industry of the colonists; the free exercise of every denomination of religion; and the distribution of rewards and punishments.

The houses built by the society were each calculated for six or eight individuals, including children* in that number, with a barn attached to each.

The following is the statement of the first outlay for each family:

	£.	s.	d.
1. For buildings on each farm - - - - -	41	13	4
2. House, furniture and agricultural instruments - - - - -	8	6	8
3. For clothes to the family - - - - -	12	10	-
4. For two cows - - - - -	12	10	-
5. For seed of the first year, and cultivation of the first farm - - - - -	33	6	8
6. For advances in provisions during the first year - - - - -	4	3	4
7. For other advances - - - - -	4	3	4
8. For flax and work for manufacturing - - - - -	16	13	4
9. For price of seven acres † of uncultivated land - - - - -	8	6	8
	£.	141	13 4

* Orphans, or children of the family.
† 3 ½ morgen (Dutch); about 7 acres English.

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The sum thus advanced, bears interest of $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. and the society contemplated that each family, at the end of 16 years, would repay both the advance and interest, and thus leave the cultivated land, houses, &c., a clear and unincumbered property for the relief of the poor of future generations.

At the commencement of the colonies, the colonists are so distributed that each division contains a shoemaker, tailor, stocking-knitters, linen-seamsters, woollen-seamsters, a weaver, carpenters, masons, blacksmiths and hatters. But as field-labour is the chief object, most of these trades are merely intended to provide for the consumption of the colonists, without injury to any of the existing trades. The single exception to this rule, and it occurs only in very particular circumstances, is the spinning of flax, which is converted into linen, and delivered to those friends of the society who have subscribed for it; the raw material being bought until the improvement of the soil admits of its being cultivated in the colony.

Besides these kinds of labour there are others, such as brick-making, lime-burning, the cultivation of land for new colonies, grass-growing, cutting of turf for sale, &c., forming additional sources of income to the colonists.

In December 1825, a period of seven years from the establishment of this system, the total population of the colonies amounted to 6,778: viz. 3,227 disposed in families; 2,174 orphans or foundlings, and 1,377 paupers; and 4,340 acres had been cultivated. Up to this period the most favourable reports had been circulated in a periodical published in Holland, and called the "Star," in which the fullest publicity was afforded to the transactions.

In 1828 a member of the Highland Society of Scotland published an account of these colonies, entering minutely into the subject; and deducing the same favourable results from his observations and calculations. In the same year Mr. Jacob published, in an Appendix to his Tracts on the Corn Trade and Corn Laws, a similar account, and with the same inferences. In 1829 a distinguished Italian, Count Arrivabène, visited these colonies, and reported favourably also of their progress, but qualified his commendation by expressing great doubts of the efficacy of their moral and social working, and ultimate success*.

The encouraging progress of the experiment induced a similar undertaking in the southern provinces of the then kingdom of the Netherlands; and in 1822 a colony was formed at Wortel, near Antwerp, on a barren heath; and at the end of 1823 one hundred and twenty-five farms were in cultivation; when the society contracted with Government to maintain 1,000 mendicants during 16 years, at the rate of 35 guilders, or 3 *l.* 4 *s.* 2 *d.* sterling per annum. These persons, mostly beggars and idlers, entered in the course of the year†.

The rules and regulations for raising of supplies, and the formation and guidance of the southern colonies, were similar in character to those of the northern colonies; and during the early period of the southern establishment, the reports of its progress and probable success appear to have been encouraging; subsequently, however, they failed to uphold these favourable prospects, and the political events of the last few years affected its prosperity. In considering the present state of this establishment, these events should be weighed in estimating its difficulties; but it will probably appear that their influence was not very great, and that other and intrinsic causes in the system, are of more importance to its present and future success.

The three objects of the institution, are:

1. To place the mendicant in a position to provide for himself, by the cultivation of waste and hitherto unprofitable land.
2. To repay to the lenders the money raised for this experiment; and,
3. To prepare the mendicant to return, at a future period, to society, elevated in character and means, so as to be fitted to take his station as a good citizen and independent man.

I propose, first, to consider the success of the financial part of this system, which will dispose of the two first objects; and then to show the peculiar circumstances that operate for or against the probable success of the third object.

The following is an outline of the financial affairs of the colony:

In 1822‡ the receipts of the society, from various sources, amounted to 70,000 florins, or about 6,717 *l.* sterling.

The expenses were 61,000 florins, or about 5,084 *l.*

In 1831 the receipts were 143,000 florins, or 11,917 *l.*

The expenses 145,000 florins, or 12,084 *l.*

In 10 years, from 1822 to 1831, the statement will be:

Receipts 1,742,397 florins, or 145,199 *l.*

Expenses 1,738,330 ditto, or 144,860 *l.*

Under the head of receipts are included:

1. The result of agreements with several public hospitals, and establishments for families and orphans.
2. The amount of voluntary subscriptions and presents.
3. Loans.

4. Grant

* Appendix (F.) p. 1.

† Principally in the colony for compulsory labour, or agricultural workhouse.

‡ Between the years 1822 and 1831, the balance between the receipts and expenses fluctuated; in 1822, 1823, 1826 and 1829, the receipts were in excess; in 1824, 1825, 1827, 1828, and 1830 and 1831, the expenses were in excess. Perhaps 1831 should not be quoted, as a change took place in the period of making up the accounts, which renders it difficult to ascertain the precise state of the credit and debt.

4. Grant of 35,000 florins,* paid annually by government, for the relief of 1,000 mendicants.

5. Produce of the colonies, sale of cattle, &c.

The expenses of these colonies are as follows:

1. Purchase of land.
2. Erection of buildings.
3. Clearing land.
4. Administration of the establishment.
5. Clothing and furniture.
6. Provisions and general maintenance.
7. Purchase of cattle, horses, &c.
8. Ordinary cultivation, manure, planting, day-labour, &c.
9. Miscellaneous expenditure, fire-insurance, &c.

In July 1832 the debt of the colony stood thus:

Principal debt	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	£. 55,750
Arrears of interest on loans	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4,000
Creditors, for the direction of the colony	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4,000
								<u>£. 63,750</u>

The value of the colonies, in the same year, including land, buildings, cattle, furniture, &c. amounted to 42,604*l*.

Debt	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	£. 63,750
Credit	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	42,604

£. 21,146 balance against the society

The improbability of discharging this debt under the present system will be gathered from the following Table, and possibly from the remarks that will follow, on the causes that I consider affect generally the well working of the system.

YEARS.	Number of Free Colonists.	Mendicants*.	Amount Disbursed on Account of the Colonies.	General Receipts from the Colonies†.	Value of the Agricultural Produce of the Colonies.		
					No. 1. Free Colony.	No. 2. Free Colony.	No. 3. Agricultural Workhouse.
1822	-	127	-	-	38,899 50	—	—
1823	-	406	-	-	93,532 07	—	—
1824	-	536	-	-	106,102 72	12,339 31	—
1825	-	579	490†	-	102,983 73	25,740 74	—
1826	-	565	846	-	163,933 45	56,476 88	8,852 79
1827	-	532	899	-	168,754 61	50,677 38	2,128 26
1828	-	550	774	-	144,645 28	54,994 62	1,817 16
1829	-	565	703	-	174,611 44	98,523 57	9,937 01
1830	-	546	598	-	127,358 72	67,718 72	1,956 01
1831	-	517	465	-	135,405 81	82,578 81	2,982 15
						9,869 43	20,111 50
						2,884 66	13,989 53
						4,463 56	17,740 68

* Employed in the "Colony of Restraint," or agricultural workhouse.

† These receipts include the produce of the cattle, bakehouse, shops, returns of the colonists, &c.

‡ During the last four months.

The details are given in florins, each florin equal to 20*d*. English; the last year is also given below in English money.

To the sum of 135,450 florins must be added, for the expense of the permanent commission at Brussels, the officers of the central administration, expenses of the office, fire-insurance, interest on the Belgian loan, &c.; the statement will then be:

For 1831: Total expenses	-	-	-	-	-	£. 12,094
Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	6,881
						<u>£. 5,213</u>

The

* To be withdrawn at the end of 16 years, when the society would be supposed to be sufficiently supplied with funds to support the same number.

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The following Table of the voluntary subscriptions to the institution, would seem to show that public confidence in its success had latterly declined; yet it must be borne in mind that this great decrease commenced during the unsettled state of the country, from political changes:

1823	-	-	-	£. 2,250	1828	-	-	-	£. 2,400
1824	-	-	-	2,473	1829	-	-	-	1,912
1825	-	-	-	2,204	1830	-	-	-	955
1826	-	-	-	2,914	1831	-	-	-	558
1827	-	-	-	2,400					

Of the 2,200* acres there are at present only 620 in cultivation; there are about 578 planted in firs, and 1,000 remain uncultivated; several farms are untenanted, partly from the extreme sterility of the soil, partly for want of labourers.

On the 1st of July 1832, of 70 farms in the first colony, only 56 were occupied, and in the second colony of 55 farms only 20 were occupied; thus the capital employed in the establishment of 49 farms remains unproductive, and annually decreases in value, from the consequent abandonment of the buildings.

At the commencement of the establishment of the free colonies, each family was indiscriminately admitted to cultivate their seven acres of land, and to receive for themselves the profits of their crops, and the forage for their cattle and sheep; they were also furnished with such clothes and subsistence, and additional food for cattle, as might be required; these advances were carried to the account of the head of the family, and occasioned a large debt to the society; while from incapacity on the part of the agriculturist, want of care and food for the cattle, and the miserable cultivation, notwithstanding a vigilant superintendence, the system worked so ill, that general discontent at last threatened serious evils to the establishment.

The society then altered or modified its original plan, by taking the cattle under their own charge, and conducting the cultivation by day labour.

There were, however, what are termed free colonists, still employed in cultivating their farms on their own responsibility; but several families so engaged were unable to overcome the difficulties of their position, and compelled to yield to the stricter discipline and direction of the society; and it is confidently asserted that very few have been able successfully to contend against these difficulties.

It is also stated that hitherto not more than four persons have fulfilled their engagements with the institution, and been restored to society fully qualified to enter on their duties as citizens.

When the objects of this institution, and the philanthropic spirit that originated, and pervades all its efforts, are considered, it will doubtless be a matter of serious regret that it should hitherto have failed to realize the sanguine hopes of the benevolent originators and supporters; and I should consider it a most invidious task to hold up the institution as an instance of mis-judging zeal, after personally witnessing the noble spirit that actuates all who are engaged in it, if I did not feel it a duty to point out, to the best of my judgment, its errors, with the hope that they may be profitable to others desirous of trying a similar experiment.

The land obtained for the purposes of this establishment is of the worst possible description. A thin and meagre surface of vegetable soil, on a substratum of sand, and in general without even this slight covering; requiring from the labourer constant industry and toil, and giving promise of extremely moderate returns. The inhabitants of this country are, however, celebrated for their unrivalled exertions as agriculturists, and for the extraordinary change they have worked in the most unpromising lands. So far the society might reasonably hope to find labourers who would overcome this difficulty at the outset; but his social position and habits had fitted the peasant to his hard occupation. The persons chiefly, almost entirely, admitted into the society's colonies were paupers, or bordering on pauperism; not altogether invited, but rather compelled to enter, under the penalty of being considered as vagabonds.

Of improvident habits, impatient of control, unused to the discipline of society, ignorant, and lax in their morals, they were to enter on a condition totally foreign to their habits, and dispositions; to commence an entirely new mode of life, to learn patient industry, provident habits, submission to wholesome regulations, to restrain their passions and evil propensities, and to look forward to obtain, by continued industry and toil, and moderate results, the means of entering society elevated in their moral and social condition.

The soil that they were required to cultivate, was eminently adapted to call forth the best qualities and exertions of any description of labourers; since it could not be exceeded in sterility; and, notwithstanding all the efforts on the part of the cultivator, required the aid of manure at a costly price.

The families thus assembled had each its separate allotment of ground, within which the exertions of the idle or industrious, the incompetent or the skilful, were limited; and at the first outset the community, with perhaps few exceptions, was alike distinguished by equal pauperism, ignorance and immorality. Thus the stimulus to emulation, which various grades of society create, was wanting; the future advantages of their good conduct and

* Or 1,072 bonniers; the bonnier is nearly equal to the French hectare; I have assumed the hectare equal to two statute acres, it is however something more.

and industry were too vague and distant to persons of their loose and improvident habits, and limited intelligence; while the constant sense of their seclusion, of their eleemosynary condition, and of the constraint under which they were living, repressed their freedom of thought as well as action, and was adverse to their ambition to excel.

The arbitrary distribution of the families into separate farms, checked the power of combination, which, by a better division of labour, and a more natural employment of various capacities, might have been successfully exerted.

Little attention could be paid to discriminate the peculiar qualities and talents of individuals where all were compelled (with few exceptions) to one pursuit, while the obvious improbability of all being equally well fitted to obtain the same object by the same means, was alike overlooked.

There was also another evil to contend with: the colonist who could not be induced to labour to realize the flattering prospects of future competency and distinction, was not threatened with a worse condition than that from whence he had been taken; when once admitted into the colony, idleness might assume the character of incompetency, and thus the natural disposition be indulged, either by dismissal, or by the substitution of labour under the direction of others; when an exemption from the labour of the mind, from the continued exertion of provident thought (the most difficult faculty to encourage in the lower classes) could be obtained.

The well-disposed, the industrious, the provident, could scarcely receive from the present system the full encouragement they deserve. The physical difficulties they had to contend with required the constant exertion of all their good qualities to maintain them in their position, while greater encouragement, and more extended means, might call them forth to greater advantage for themselves and the institution, and shew the fallacy of limiting their exertions and qualities to the same precise allotment as fell to the idle and ignorant.

It is not meant to be inferred, that where merit was obvious, a greater degree of encouragement was not offered; but the system itself did not sufficiently encourage any latent merit.

Among the colonists there were a few whose previous habits and natural dispositions disposed them to avail themselves, to the best of their ability, of the benevolent provisions thus offered for their relief; and who had worked industriously, and conducted themselves well during their residence in the colony. Their land was cultivated to the extent of their means; and their dwelling-houses had assumed an appearance of greater comfort, order and civilization than the rest. But these were too few in number, and the result too trifling to offer the stimulus of emulation to others.

Those farms that I examined, with the above exceptions, were not encouraging examples; there were few evidences of thrift and providence, the interior of the dwellings being, in point of comfort, little, if at all removed from the humblest cottage of the most straitened condition of labourers in this country.

A clause in the regulations allows certain of the colonists, whose good conduct and industry have obtained them the privilege, to barter with the neighbouring towns, for any article they may want.

The nearest towns to the establishment, of any note, are Hoogstraten and Tournhout; but on inquiry I could not find that any intercourse was maintained with them; and the country round offered no evidences of the existence of a thriving community in its centre, exercising an influence on its traffic or occupations. In the winter, I should think the roads to the colonies scarcely practicable for any description of carriages.

From what I saw of the social condition of the colonists, I am disposed to insist much on the inexpediency of assembling, in an isolated position especially, a large community of paupers for this experiment.

Admitting the physical difficulties to have been much less than they are, and the prospect of pecuniary advantage much greater and more certain, the moral objections to the system would outweigh them. Without the example of the better conditions of society, there can be no hope of such a community gradually acquiring those qualities that would fit the members of it for a better condition also. One or two families established in the neighbourhood of an orderly and industrious community, would find the stimulus of shame as well as emulation, acting on their moral qualities and exertions; but, as in the present case, where all are in a condition of equal debasement, both of those powerful stimuli are wanting. The reports of the progress of the Dutch free colonies up to the year 1828, are certainly encouraging; and as the same system has been adopted in the free colonies of Belgium, as in Holland, and the experiment in both cases tried on similar soils, they might lead to the inference that some peculiar cause has operated in favour of the Dutch colonies, or against those of Belgium. Not having had an opportunity of visiting the Dutch colonies, I cannot offer an opinion on the subject; but reasoning from what I personally witnessed, I should be disposed to think, that either some greater encouragement has been granted in Holland, or some improvement of the system adopted; or that the habits, dispositions and character of the Dutch fit them better for this experiment.

The same authorities that I have quoted in the case of these colonies, speak favourably also of the Belgian colonies up to the same period; and on the part of the latter experiment it may be asserted that, the unsettled state of the country since that period ought very much to qualify any condemnation of its principle. But notwithstanding this disadvantage (which is much less, I fear, than has been insisted on) there would still have remained evidences of the probable success of the experiment. Those evidences were not satisfactory to my mind; and I may further observe, that while the people in general recommended the colonies to foreigners as especially worthy of their notice, I do not remember meeting with one individual

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dual who could point out any specific results, and few who would distinctly assert that there was any increasing and permanent benefit to the community from them.

I understand that one gentleman was so sanguine of success, that he either had procured, or was to procure a large tract of sterile land to try a similar experiment. I apprehend, however, he would very much modify his plan, and assimilate it in detail more to the system adopted in the agricultural workhouses, than in the free colonies.

It is probable that unless some great change is made in the present system, the colonies will be ultimately abandoned, or merge into the establishments for compulsory labour; in other words, the society will become the farmers, and the present colonists merely agricultural labourers, differing only from the ordinary labourer, inasmuch as they will work under the penalty of being treated as vagabonds in case of contumacy.

The observations I have hitherto made apply only to the free colonies. There are other establishments where cultivation is carried on under a different system, both in Holland and Belgium; and the terms free and compulsory are applied to distinguish the two systems.

In the latter, the poor are assembled in large establishments, and cultivate the ground either by task, or day-labour, and attend the cattle, &c. under the direction of certain officers; it is, in fact, a species of agricultural workhouse.

The following is a Return of the establishment I visited in the neighbourhood of the free colonies:

	1826.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.
Present on the 1st January - - -	604	919	816	722	658	519
Admitted during the year	422	247	172	147	97	5
Brought back from de- sertion - - -	6	25	12	23	27	18
Born - - -	5	3	3	3	1	-
	1,037	1,194	1,003	895	783	542
Enlarged - - -	7	159	135	116	82	18
Deserted - - -	14	42	35	37	65	66
Died - - -	91	166	104	37	81	23
Entered the military service as volunteers	-	-	2	39	28	-
Entered the militia -	4	9	4	8	4	3
Brought before justice -	2	2	1	3	8	-
	118	378	281	240	268	110
Total, 31st Dec. - -	919	816	722	655	515	432

The deaths annually are very considerable; they probably arise chiefly from age and dissolute habits: but some, I should fear, must be accounted for by the extreme bleakness of the country, affecting the feeble and dissolute.

In closing these observations, I venture to add, that there is much that appears to me worthy of the commendation of the philanthropist, and the attention of the legislator, in many of the institutions of Belgium for the relief of mendicity, and the suppression or punishment of vice. In the latter case, I would particularly instance the institutions such as Vilvorde and others, resembling, in many of their important features, the penitentiaries I have visited in the United States of America.

It is also imperative on me to state, that every facility is afforded to the foreigner to visit these institutions, and every information frankly, unreservedly, and courteously granted.

H. Rowland Brandreth,

Captain Royal Engineers.

No. 3.

RECHERCHES sur la Situation comparative des PAUVRES en France et en Angleterre, par *Frederic Lullin de Chateaueux*, Correspondant de l'Académie des Sciences. Communicated through *Ashhurst Majendie*, Esq.

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De Chateaueux.

ON retrouve l'existence d'une taxe en faveur des pauvres, sous une forme ou une denomination quelconque, dans presque tous les pays qui ont été surchargés d'une forte population. Car chez de telles populations les infirmités morales et physiques, l'intempérance, et toutes les misères qu'elle engendre produisent au sein de ces sociétés un rebut, à l'existence duquel il faut que la société pourvoie d'une manière quelconque; parcequ'il en est par lui-même incapable.

Ce rebut des sociétés humaines croît en proportion de leurs masses et de leur accumulation sur les mêmes points; car dans ce cas la fermentation des vices y trouve des élémens plus abondans et plus corrompus, et les moyens d'existence de chacun s'y réduisent en raison de ce qu'il faut les partager entre un plus grand nombre.

Ainsi les distributions de blé, que faisaient au peuple les grands consulaires Romains, pour s'acquérir une popularité toujours éphémère, n'étaient autre chose que la forme dont la taxe des pauvres s'était revêtue chez eux.

Le jubilé, par lequel les dettes devaient s'éteindre tous les cinquante ans chez le peuple Hébreu, était une autre forme peu compréhensible, il est vrai, dans notre économie, que cette taxe avait reçue par le ministère de son législateur.

Plûs tard, et après les effroyables maux dont l'invasion et l'établissement des Barbares inondèrent l'Europe, le Christianisme, religion de l'aumône, en convertissant ces peuples pourvut d'une autre manière au sort des indigens.

Ce fut en destinant des capitaux à ce service, à l'effet duquel d'immenses dotations furent faites au clergé qui se chargea de cette tâche. En remplissant ainsi un devoir religieux qui ennoblissait son caractère, il y trouvait un grand moyen de popularité, et par conséquent un moyen de résistance contre les puissances d'alors.

L'Espagne nous offre encore aujourd'hui le résultat vivant des effets de ce système et de sa profonde politique.

Les biens dont les consciences effrayées faisaient don au clergé étaient presque toujours chargés de distributions en nature à faire aux pauvres; le nombre et les jours en étaient désignés. Beaucoup de nobles familles s'étaient à cet exemple imposées des jours de distributions. Cet usage universel dans l'Europe sauvage et catholique, et dont les vestiges subsistent encore en Italie, y avait créé cette race de Lazzaronis, qui n'était autre que des indigens paresseux accoutumés à vivre des soupes et du pain qui leur étaient périodiquement distribués à la porte des couvens.

Plûs tard et à l'époque des croisades, l'objet des fondations pieuses changea de nature, et ce fut à fonder des hospices et des infirmeries que ces donations contribuèrent. L'exemple en avait été donné par l'institution des ordres militaires et hospitaliers, que les blessures, les misères et la lèpre avaient rendu nécessaire à la suite de la longue guerre des croisades.

Plûs tard encore, et vers la renaissance des lettres, le besoin de venir au secours de l'éducation publique se faisant sentir, l'esprit des donations se dirigea vers ce but, et la charité ouvrit ainsi par des donations de nombreux asiles aux enfans abandonnés, des écoles à l'enfance pauvre, et des universités à la jeunesse studieuse.

Tous ces biens donnés au clergé à charge de porter secours aux indigens, toutes ces fondations hospitalières destinées à secourir leurs infirmités, étaient une taxe pour les pauvres, consistant en rentes constituées sur des immeubles inaliénables, et dont les fondateurs avaient chargé le clergé d'opérer la distribution.

Mais les pauvres savaient très bien que ces fondations existaient en leur faveur, qu'ils y avaient droit, et par conséquent ces institutions avaient sur leur moral tous les effets fâcheux qu'on signale dans toute charité légale et où le cœur n'est pour rien.

Deux époques mémorables ont altéré ce système; savoir la réformation religieuse, et la révolution advenue en France en 1789.

La réformation abolit les ordres monastiques et la hiérarchie de l'église, et disposa de tous les biens qui leur avaient été assignés. Par cette mesure, le capital qui avait été mis en réserve pour le service des pauvres fut anéanti. Mais une grande ferveur religieuse succédant alors à un grand relâchement, fut le mobile et la conséquence de cette réformation. Cette ferveur porta ces peuples, ainsi qu'il en est toujours dans les tems d'exaltation publique, à préférer leurs intérêts à venir à leurs intérêts présens, et leurs opinions à leur bien-être: car les plus pauvres se portèrent des premiers à détruire ces fondations pieuses chargées de pourvoir à leurs besoins. Mais aussi le même mobile les ayant porté à manifester leur foi par leurs œuvres, il s'opéra chez ces peuples une réforme morale, à l'aide de laquelle la tempérance, les mœurs, l'amour de l'ordre et du travail, en diminuant le nombre des pauvres rendit peu sensible dans les premiers tems le défaut de secours qui dut résulter de la destruction des fondations ecclésiastiques.

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Nous en avons la preuve dans la rigidité des lois que Genève reçut alors de sa réformation, —loix d'après lesquelles l'ivrognerie et l'oisiveté étaient punies correctionnellement. L'Ecosse, où les mœurs de la réformation se sont conservées plus intactes que partout ailleurs, en fournit encore aujourd'hui l'exemple et les effets.

Mais tout dans ce monde s'efface ou s'anéantit. Les mœurs de la réformation se sont altérées à mesure que la ferveur religieuse, dont elles étaient la suite, s'est évanouie, et tous les maux de l'indigence, toutes les misères de la pauvreté sont revenues affliger des populations livrées de nouveaux à l'intempérance et aux vices qui engendrent les besoins.

On avait senti toutefois et dès les tems qui succédèrent à la réformation, l'impérieuse nécessité de pourvoir d'une manière quelconque aux besoins pressans de l'indigence et des accidens qui menacent sans cesse notre infirme nature. Le mode adopté à cet effet dans les différens pays réformés fait encore aujourd'hui la base du régime qu'ils suivent à l'égard des pauvres.

A Genève les biens des couvens furent vendus, ceux de l'évêque assignés aux hospices, et il fut pourvu aux nécessités des indigens par le moyen de quêtes ou collectes qui se faisaient et se font encore dans les temples. Ce dernier moyen s'y est généralisé et y est devenu la forme ordinaire par lequel on réunit des secours pour satisfaire aux différens besoins des indigens. Plus tard et au commencement du 18^{me} siècle, un riche et généreux citoyen, *M. Franconi*, fonda à Genève un hôpital sur une grande échelle, auquel on a réuni tous les biens qui à diverses époques avaient reçu la même destination.

On a concédé à cet hospice le droit de faire une collecte annuelle, et avec les legs qu'il est autorisé à recevoir, et un dernier capital qui a été ajouté à ceux qu'il possédait déjà, il est devenu un puissant moyen de secours, en raison de la population appelée à y participer.

Les secours se distribuent en premier lieu aux malades, en second lieu aux indigens qui ne peuvent pourvoir à leur subsistance en raison de leur âge, de leurs infirmités, du nombre de leur famille, et de toutes les incapacités morales et physiques qui occasionnent la misère. La majeure partie de ces secours sont répartis régulièrement et à titre de pension entre les indigens. C'est à dire qu'ils ont droit à une taxe des pauvres, dont les fonds ne se perçoivent pas chez les contribuables : en partie parcequ'ils sont volontairement donnés par eux, et en partie parcequ'ils proviennent des revenus d'un capital mis à part à cet effet.

Quelques autres fondations viennent encore au secours de la population indigente, et leurs distributions réunies, jointes à celles des charités collectives et individuelles, constituent une somme d'environ 12,000 *l.* qui se repartit annuellement sur un neuvième de la population, soit sur environ 5,200 individus, ce qui fait en raison de 2 *l.* 3 *s.* par tête.

Une petite population industrielle compte ainsi 11 p' 100 de cette population dans la catégorie des indigens, et leurs besoins sont pourvus au moyen d'une rétribution de 2 *l.* 3 *s.* par tête.

Il en a été autrement dans les cantons protestans de la Suisse. La majeure partie des biens ecclésiastiques y fut concédée aux communes lors de la réformation, à charge par elles d'entretenir leurs pauvres. La destination de ces biens ne fut pas changée, la distribution de leurs revenus s'opéra seulement par une autre voye, et la charge ayant été imposée comme une condition du don, les communes sont forcées de la remplir ; et chez celles où le revenu de ces biens devient insuffisant, il se lève sur le contribuable une véritable taxe pour les pauvres. Dans ce cas il y a une identité complète entre la taxe établie en Angleterre et ce qui se pratique dans ces communes.

Le Baron de Voght avait institué à Hambourg un mode de secours dans un tout autre esprit. Une souscription considérable lui a donné les moyens de fournir aux indigens la matière première et les salaires destinés à acquitter la mise en œuvre de ces matières premières. Ensorte que c'était en échange de leur propre travail que les pauvres obtenaient des secours, secours toujours proportionnés à ce travail, et qui par conséquent, depourvus de tout caractère de don gratuit et de tout droit acquis aux pauvres de recevoir ces dons, s'écartaient des formes et échappaient aux inconvéniens qui signalent par tout l'établissement des taxes imposées en leur faveur.

Mais c'est contre un autre obstacle que cette institution a du lutter. En créant ainsi une grande manufacture de bienfaisance, travaillant d'une manière illimitée et suivant que les besoins de l'indigence devenaient plus grands, ou qu'il leur était plus commode de s'adresser à cette manufacture qu'à toute autre, elle a été forcée d'écouler à tout prix ses produits ; c'est à dire à perte et à vil prix.

L'effet immédiat d'une telle institution était donc celui de faire aux manufactures libres une concurrence tellement fatale que si les travaux de bienfaisance se multipliaient à un certain point, ils obligeaient toutes les industries rivales à fermer leurs ateliers, puisqu'elles ne sauraient sans périr travailler avec une perte constante.

Il est donc impossible de généraliser de telles institutions. A peine est il possible de les soutenir dans les maisons de correction et appliquées à la seule classe des prisonniers ; bien loin de pouvoir embrasser dans ce moyen de secours la classe des pauvres. Car son usage rejeterait bientôt dans cette classe tous les ouvriers que la fermeture des fabriques libres amènerait à la porte de la grande manufacture de bienfaisance, laquelle finirait par devenir l'unique du pays, dans l'économie duquel elle occasionnerait une fatale perturbation.

Les biens ecclésiastiques que la réformation avait confisqués en Angleterre n'y ont été ni
 donnés

donnés aux communes, ni confiés à de nouvelles fondations pour servir aux besoins de l'indigence. Ceux du clergé séculier sont demeurés le patrimoine de l'église Anglicaine, et ceux du clergé régulier furent donnés à titre de cadeaux aux grandes familles qui se trouverent être à même de recueillir alors les royales faveurs.

L'ordre de choses qui en est résulté n'est que la conséquence du mode d'après lequel on disposa alors du capital qui avait été donné au clergé catholique de l'Angleterre ; car quelque charitable que soit celui qui l'a remplacé, il ne saurait distribuer les mêmes secours aux indigens, parcequ' étant marié, il doit, avant de pourvoir au sort des pauvres, assurer celui de ses enfans. Et quant aux biens des moines donnés aux grandes familles, quelque bienfaisantes qu'elles puissent être, elles ont à servir tant d'intérêts, avant ceux des indigens, qu'elles ne sauraient jamais leur en accorder qu'une faible aliquote.

Aussi le vide qui devait résulter dans les moyens de secours par l'effet de cette distribution des biens ecclésiastiques, a-t-il du être immédiatement senti ; puisque la Reine Elisabeth fit rendre le Bill qui a fondé en Angleterre la taxe des pauvres, peu d'années après l'époque où la réformation s'y opéra.

Il n'était pas donné sans doute à cette reine, quelque fut sa prévoyance, de juger de la portée et des effets que devaient avoir un jour cette institution ; car à cette époque le génie industriel et mercantile de l'Angleterre et son immense prospérité était à peine en germe, et n'avait pas donné naissance à une population immense, accumulée et devenue nécessairement la proie de toutes les misères qu'enfantent parmi de telles populations, la difficulté de trouver une place pour exister et des moyens de vivre. Alors l'accumulation des capitaux n'avait pas dépossédé une part immense de la population de tout l'avoir national et de tout intérêt dans la propriété. Alors enfin cette masse dépourvue de tout intérêt n'avait pas été jetée, avec ses bras pour unique patrimoine, au milieu de cet immense atelier d'industrie, de speculations et d'activité, qui constitue l'Angleterre d'aujourd'hui.

Le sol du pays envahi par les grands capitaux, qui tendent sans cesse à s'y fixer, après avoir été accumulés par l'économie ou par les bénéfices de la speculation commerciale ; ce sol s'est trouvé divisé en grandes propriétés que la primogéniture et les substitutions travaillent à concentrer sans relâche. Les grandes propriétés rurales ont comporté à leur tour un système de grands fermages, genre d'exploitation qu'il a fallu confier à une classe de capitalistes qui a fait de l'exploitation des terres une occupation industrielle.

L'agriculture a singulièrement prospéré entre de telles mains, parcequ'elles n'entreprenaient ce genre d'industrie qu'avec le capital nécessaire pour le mener à bien, avec la connaissance des méthodes qui devaient y concourir, avec l'esprit de comptabilité et d'économie qui caractérise toutes les entreprises manufacturières.

Aussi l'économie de la main d'œuvre par le perfectionnement des instrumens aratoires, a-t-il été la suite immédiate du système d'économie rurale établi en Angleterre. Aussi les fermiers y ont-ils dirigé leurs assolemens de manière à ce que donnant beaucoup d'espaces à l'entretien des bestiaux, ils n'eussent à cultiver en terre arable qu'une moindre superficie, qu'ils travaillaient mieux et fumaient beaucoup plus. Par ces procédés, joints à l'usage de faire opérer à forfait la plupart des travaux champêtres, ils sont parvenus à faire produire au sol l'approvisionnement du pays en n'employant à cette production que la moitié de sa population, tandis qu'en France 25 millions travaillent pour en nourrir 32. C'est à dire que l'ouvrier Anglais produit au profit de l'avoir national 20 et 48/100^{es} de plus que l'ouvrier Français,—résultat de la division du travail, que les grandes exploitations comportent.

Mais après avoir jeté dans les travaux industriels et mercantiles une moitié de la population, après en avoir conservé l'autre moitié pour les travaux agricoles, après avoir réuni toutes les entreprises industrielles et rurales dans un nombre restreint de fabricants et de fermiers pourvus de l'intelligence et des capitaux nécessaires pour faire prospérer ces entreprises, la manipulation en a été laissée à une seule classe de la société, à celle des journaliers.

Cette classe est devenue d'autant plus nombreuse, que la concentration des grands capitaux a successivement absorbé et déplacé tous les petits, dont l'existence était compromise et écrasée par l'action puissante qu'exercent de grands capitaux réunis dans des mains capables.

Elle est devenue d'autant plus nombreuse, que durant les années où le grand développement de la prospérité de l'Angleterre a eu lieu, cette prospérité a du faire un grand emploi de bras, et par conséquent la demande qui s'en faisait a du établir la concurrence en faveur de l'ouvrier,—circonstance qui en a fait naître un grand nombre. Nous dirons enfin que la taxe même établie par la loi en faveur des pauvres a du multiplier la classe de ces ouvriers ; en leur donnant quelque sécurité pour l'avenir et quelque confiance dans les chances qu'il pouvait leur offrir.

Mais aussi cette classe de la société dépossédée de tout et réduite à son travail, en se multipliant a du tomber de tout le poids de ses infirmités et de ses besoins sur l'institution qui avoit été légalement établie pour les secourir.

Si le système de la taxe des pauvres n'avait pas été déjà fondé en Angleterre à l'époque du grand développement qu'a pris sa prospérité industrielle, agricole et commerciale, et par conséquent celui de sa population, que s'y serait-il passé ? Le prix des salaires s'y serait élevé de manière à comprendre non seulement l'entretien quotidien de l'ouvrier et de sa famille, mais à subvenir encore aux accidens et aux infirmités qui peuvent l'atteindre, et lorsque la prévoyance de ces ouvriers n'aurait pas été jusqu'à réserver sur leurs salaires de

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quoi pourvoir à ces cas de malheur, ils auraient eu recours alors à la mendicité et seraient retombés à la charge de la pitié publique.

Cette pitié les aurait secourus en vertu de cette loi de la providence, loi qui n'est pas tarifée dans l'économie des peuples, mais au moyen de laquelle il arrive fortuitement que nul ne meurt de faim au sein des sociétés policées; quelque soit d'ailleurs le degré de misère que les pauvres puissent y endurer.

Il serait résulté de cet exhaussement dans le prix du travail que la valeur des objets produits ou fabriqués en Angleterre se serait élevée dans la même proportion, puisque ce prix est l'élément principal de la valeur de la production, et ces objets, au lieu de se livrer sur tous les points du globe à un prix inférieur à celui où d'autres nations pouvaient les offrir, y auraient été aussi chers et n'auraient point obtenu la préférence ni porté par conséquent la valeur des exportations de l'Angleterre au taux énorme qu'elles ont atteint. Il y aurait eu moins de demandes, moins de travail, et moins de cette splendeur de prospérité dont l'Angleterre a été si fière.

Les 9 millions sterlings que la taxe des pauvres y distribue en supplément de salaires aux ouvriers infirmes et chargés de famille ne sont donc en réalité qu'une prime donnée à son travail industriel et productif. Cette distribution a contribué à sa prospérité, et à son tour cette prospérité, en multipliant démesurément la classe ouvrière, rejette sur la taxe des pauvres une masse toujours croissante de misères et de maux à soulager.

Mais cette prime, avec toutes ses conséquences, présente cela de singulier qu'elle n'est pas acquittée par ceux qui en profitent directement. C'est sur la propriété foncière qu'elle se prélève, et elle lui est remboursée par le plus haut prix des locations et des fermages; parceque ce prix s'est élevé en raison du plus bas prix de la main d'œuvre et du plus haut prix que l'accroissement de la prospérité a imprimé aux denrées, aux loyers, ainsi qu'à la valeur vénale des immeubles. Mais ces remboursements ne s'opérant que par voie d'infiltration, tandis que le versement s'en est opéré au comptant entre les mains du percepteur de la paroisse, deviennent inaperçus pour un grand nombre de propriétaires qui pâtissent et se plaignent d'une législation qui leur semble peser lourdement et injustement sur eux.

Après avoir rapidement examiné les changemens qui ont été occasionnés par la réformation dans le sort des pauvres, il nous reste à voir ceux que la révolution Française y a apporté.

Ici les choses se sont passées par de toutes autres voyes.

Après avoir confisqué dans son entier la grande valeur capitale que le clergé possédait dans ce royaume; après y avoir ajouté une portion de celui qu'y possédait la noblesse, le gouvernement a vendu ces capitaux à vil prix. Le montant des indemnités accordées pour la part des biens dont la noblesse avait été spoliée, ayant monté à 850 millions de francs, et cette somme étant censée représenter la moitié de la valeur vénale de ces biens, elle s'élève ainsi à 1,700 millions. Celle des biens du clergé étant estimée valoir le triple a donné un capital de 5 milliards 100 millions, soit en tout 6 milliards 800 millions; sur lesquels le gouvernement ayant prélevé 1,100 mille hectares de bois pour les réunir au domaine de l'état, en les évaluant au prix de 900 fr. l'hectare, ils produisent une somme d'un milliard, qu'il faut défalquer de celle-ci dessus.

C'est donc un capital de cinq milliards huit cent millions que la révolution a enlevé tout d'un coup aux classes riches de la nation pour être éparpillé parmi ses classes moins avantagées. Sans doute que les pauvres proprement dits n'ont pas participé directement à cette distribution, parceque quelque vile qu'en fut la valeur, encore fallait-il pour acquérir ces biens posséder quelque avoir et quelque capacité d'intelligence et de calcul; mais ce qui en est résulté pour eux, c'est un élargissement subit dans la part de tous à la propriété, qui s'est répandu de proche en proche par oscillation, et qui à l'aide d'une législation par laquelle toute primogéniture et toutes substitutions sont interdites, a multiplié prodigieusement la petite propriété au profit de l'aisance générale.

La France était en même tems richement pourvue en fondations hospitalières pour les malades, les infirmes, et les enfans abandonnés; non seulement ces fondations avaient eu lieu en faveur des grandes villes, mais il existait de telles fondations sur de petites échelles dans de petites villes et même dans un grand nombre de villages. La révolution avait dans sa première furie voulu attenter aux capitaux de ces fondations; mais leur spoliation fut arrêtée assez à tems pour que ces fondations, accumulées au profit du malheur par la piété des siècles, ayent survécu à ce grand bouleversement social, et même leur régime notablement amélioré pourvoit d'une manière satisfaisante aux maux provenant des accidens et des infirmités.

Toutefois les secours manquaient sur beaucoup de points du royaume pour les aliénés et les enfans abandonnés: dans ce cas à peu-près général dans les départemens, leurs conseils y portent remède autant que possible, en attribuant à cet effet une allocation sur les fonds dont ils disposent et dont l'emploi s'exécute par voyes administratives. Et ici reparait la taxe des pauvres.

Cette taxe reçoit aujourd'hui sa pleine execution dans toutes les villes au dessus de 20,000 ames, et même dans beaucoup de celles qui ont une population moindre. Les conseils municipaux ont été appelés dans ces villes à venir au secours de l'indigence qui se crée dans toutes les populations accumulées, en mettant à la disposition de bureaux de charité des fonds pris sur les revenus particuliers de ces villes.

Ces revenus se composent outre l'avoir personnel des communes, du produit des octrois, ou droits d'entrée perçus à leurs portes. Et comme cette manière de fournir aux dépenses

des bureaux de charité dispense de percevoir directement chez les propriétaires un impôt spécial pour les pauvres, on croit que les Français en sont exempts ; c'est une erreur, car la forme de perception de cette taxe diffère seulement de celle qu'on pratique en Angleterre ; sa distribution et ses effets sur la population sont d'ailleurs les mêmes.

Il existe de plus des dépôts de mendicité ou maisons de travail instituées par le gouvernement ; mais ce sont aujourd'hui bien plutôt des asiles de correction et des succursales d'un système de police, que des moyens de secours pour l'indigence.

Il résulte de la revue que nous venons de faire, 1° que la moitié de la population urbaine de la France est soumise au régime d'une taxe pour les pauvres, taxe qui s'acquitte par un prélèvement sur les revenus des villes et non au moyen d'un impôt spécial. Cette moitié de la population urbaine pouvant être estimée à trois millions et demi d'individus, dont un septième participe à ces secours, on peut évaluer qu'elle vient au secours de 500,000 individus.

Les fonds destinés à ce service s'élevant dans les diverses villes où il a lieu à 24 millions, soit à 960 mille livres sterlings, la part des 500 mille individus entre lesquels cette somme se distribue est ainsi de 1 l. 19 s. par tête.

2°. Qu'une autre taxe prise sur les fonds départementaux et le 10 p' 100 que les spectacles sont astreints à payer aux fondations d'hospices viennent au secours des aliénés, des enfans abandonnés et des infirmes, soit par le ministère de l'administration, soit par celui des hôpitaux. Le montant de ces fonds peut être estimé à 1,200 mille francs, pour ce qui concerne la taxe mise sur les spectacles, et à 1,800 mille pour la part votée par les conseils généraux de départements, soit en tout trois millions ou 120 mille livres sterlings. Ce qui porte à 1 million 800 mille livres sterlings, le montant de la somme qui se distribue annuellement en France en secours pour les pauvres sur les revenus publics.

3°. Que les besoins provenant des accidens et maladies sont satisfaits au moyen des capitaux appartenants aux différentes fondations hospitalières ; il nous reste à voir comment l'état social du pays et la repartition de la propriété pourvoyent à l'existence de toutes les misères qui restent en dehors des catégories d'indigens que nous venons de désigner.

Les bourgs et les villages de la France, séjour d'une population de 25 millions d'individus, ne participent à la distribution des secours publics, que pour la faible part qui concerne les aliénés et les enfans abandonnés, et pour celle qui leur appartient dans les fondations hospitalières. Mais pour parvenir à se faire une juste idée du sort de cette immense population, il est nécessaire de connaître la manière dont la propriété du sol est répartie entr'elle ; car de cette repartition résulte le classement de cette population, et la position sociale que chacune de ces classes occupe dans l'économie générale du pays—économie si différente de celle qui existe en Angleterre, que pour la faire mieux comprendre nous croyons devoir en dresser le tableau synoptique ci-joint.

		Division du Sol par Nature de Culture.	Combien pour 100 appliqué aux diverses Consommations.
		Hectares.	
Population totale -	32,000,000	Superficie totale -	53,702,871
Population urbaine -	7,000,000	Superficie incultivable -	3,702,871
Population des proprié- taires ruraux -	20,000,000	Vignobles -	1,800,000
Population des journa- liers ruraux -	3,000,000	Terreins plantés -	200,000
Population des artisans ruraux -	2,000,000	Forêts -	6,842,623
		Vaine pâture -	1,157,377
		Prairies et herbages :	
		1 ^{ere} qualité -	2,000,000
		2 ^{de} qualité -	3,000,000
		Luzernes, s ^t foin, prai- ries artificielles -	4,000,000
		Terres arables -	31,000,000
	32,000,000		53,702,871
			Aux boissons et aux huiles 4 p' o/o
			Au combustible - 13 $\frac{4}{5}$
			Aux produits animaux - 20 $\frac{1}{5}$
			A la nourriture céréale - 62
			100

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Répartition entre les Classes de Propriétaires.				Nombre des Propriétaires.	Combien p' 100, à chaque Catégorie.	Etendue moyenne des Propriétés de chaque Catégorie.
Hectares.						Hectares, ares.
Superficie cultivable	-	-	50,000,000	4,000,000	—	—
Terres de mains mortes	-	-	4,500,000	{ le gouvernement et les communes }	9 p' 100	—
Grandes Propriétés :						
1 ^{ere} classe	-	-	8,481,800	42,409	} 26 p' 100	137 48
2 ^{de} classe	-	-	4,516,925	51,622		
Moyennes Propriétés :						
1 ^{ere} classe	-	-	4,819,864	86,069	} 24 p' 100	35 52
2 ^{de} classe	-	-	7,388,003	258,000		
Petites Propriétés :						
1 ^{ere} classe	-	-	7,843,494	774,621	} 41 p' 100	5 73
2 ^{de} classe	-	-	12,650,914	2,787,112		
			50,000,000	4,000,000	100	—

On voit par ce tableau que la France renferme une population rurale de 25 millions d'individus, sur lesquels 4 millions sont propriétaires, ce qui en supposant la famille composée de 5 personnes, comprend une population de 20 millions possédant et vivant sur un capital foncier, et dont l'existence est par là plus ou moins assurée. Trois millions sont dépourvus de ce capital, et vivent comme journaliers, métayers, vigneron ou valets de ferme, du seul travail de leurs bras. Deux millions vivent comme artisans du travail industriel, qu'ils font en qualité de forgerons, charrons, sabotiers, tisserands, maçons, charpentiers, &c.

C'est dans ces deux dernières classes que se trouvent sans doute le plus grand nombre d'indigens ; non seulement parcequ'elles ne possèdent aucuns capitaux, si ce n'est celui de leur petit mobilier, de leurs vêtements et des outils de leur profession ; mais parceque toutes les circonstances qui s'opposent à l'exercice de leur travail les privent de leurs moyens d'existence, et parceque le travail des artisans de la campagne est si peu rétribué que ceux d'entr'eux qui manquent d'intelligence et d'habileté, ont peu de pratiques et se trouvent réduits à de faibles gains.

La troisième classe, dans laquelle les besoins de l'indigence se font également sentir, est celle des petits propriétaires ; car ceux d'entr'eux dont la possession n'a qu'une superficie au dessous de 2 hectares (4 acres), n'y trouvent pas de quoi assurer l'existence de leur famille, et pour y parvenir ils sont obligés d'y joindre le profit de quelques travaux ou de quelque industrie exercée en dehors de la culture de leurs propriétés. Ils rentrent par là dans la catégorie des journaliers, et sont ainsi exposés à des besoins dans des cas de chômages ou d'accidens.

Ces besoins deviennent à la vérité d'autant moins pressans que l'étendue de la propriété se rapproche de la superficie de 2 hectares ; car dans l'état agricole de la France, il faut une superficie de 1 hectare 23 ares de terres arables ou prairie, pour fournir à la subsistance alimentaire d'un individu. L'aliment de la famille étant comme 5, l'étendue de 2 hectares y pourroit ainsi dans la proportion de 1 et 77/100^{es}, auxquels il faut ajouter le logement, qui avec les fruits et légumes élève à 3 la part de moyens d'existence qu'une propriété de 2 hectares fournit à une famille de 5 individus. C'est donc aux deux cinquièmes de ces moyens d'existence auxquels cette famille est obligée de pourvoir par un gain quelconque fait en dehors de sa propriété.

Cet aliquote s'accroît à mesure que l'étendue de la possession diminue, à tel point que la condition du plus petit propriétaire s'assimile à celle du journalier, moins le logement et le jardin que sa propriété lui fournit.

Il s'agit maintenant de savoir quel est dans la classe des 3,561,733 petits propriétaires, le nombre de ceux dont la propriété n'a que deux hectares et au dessous.

D'après les proportions du tableau, nous trouvons que 1,243,200 petits propriétaires doivent être rangés dans cette catégorie, ce qui comporte avec leur famille une population de 6,216,000 individus appelés à pourvoir par un travail étranger à leur possession, à un aliquote plus ou moins considérable de leurs moyens d'existence.

Nous devons ainsi comprendre au nombre de ceux dont l'existence repose plus ou moins sur les bénéfices de leur travail manuel étranger à leur propriété,

- 1° - - 3,000,000 de journaliers.
- 2° - - 2,000,000 d'artisans ruraux.
- 3° - - 6,216,000 petits propriétaires.

Soit en tout une population de - - - 11,216,000 individus, lesquels n'ont droit à aucune taxe en leur faveur.

Il faut maintenant examiner ceux qui dans ces trois catégories éprouvent des besoins réels, et peuvent être par là rangés dans la classe des pauvres. Nous verrons plus tard de quelle manière il est pourvu à ces besoins.

1°. C'est parmi les 3 millions de journaliers que les fermiers et les moyens propriétaires se pourvoyent de valets de ferme, et ils entrent à ce service dès l'âge de 10 à 12 ans, âge où ils peuvent déjà garder les bestiaux au pâturage. Mais ils se partagent ces fonctions avec la classe des petits propriétaires dont les bras surabondans cherchent de l'emploi. Aussi ne peut-on pas estimer à plus d'un cinquième ceux des journaliers, qui en se plaçant chez les grands exploitans se mettent ainsi à l'abri de tout besoin, et peuvent même accumuler quelques économies - - - - - 600,000

Une autre fraction de cette classe trouve à exercer son activité par l'état de vigneron, c'est à dire de cultivateur à moitié fruit d'une parcelle plus ou moins grande de vignoble. Cet emploi du travail moins casuel que celui du simple journalier, assure à la famille qui cultive un hectare un revenu de 200 fr. au moins pour la saison où s'opère cette culture; mais comme il y a une grande concurrence pour l'emploi de vigneron parmi les petits propriétaires, on ne peut guère admettre qu'il y ait au delà de 150,000 familles de journaliers qui y trouvent les moyens de s'alimenter - - ci individus 750,000

Total des journaliers à l'abri du besoin - - - - - 1,150,000

Nombre des journaliers restant exposés aux besoins - - - - - 1,850,000

2°. Parmi les 2,000,000 d'artisans ruraux, il en est que leur intelligence et leur activité met hors de ligne et au dessus du besoin par l'importance de leurs travaux. La proportion de leur nombre est difficile à fixer. Je pense cependant que sur l'ensemble de ces diverses professions on peut admettre qu'il y ait deux ateliers d'artisans par commune au dessus du besoin; cette proportion en supposerait 72,000, et avec leurs familles - - ci individus 360,000

Ces 72,000 artisans doivent entretenir un ouvrier, qui par les salaires d'un travail annuel est encore mis au dessus des besoins - - - - ci 72,000

Total des artisans à l'abri du besoin - - - - - 432,000

Nombre des artisans restant exposés aux besoins - - - - - 1,568,000

3°. Enfin parmi les petits propriétaires il s'en trouve un assez grand nombre qui assurent les moyens d'existence de leur famille, soit en louant à la parcelle des terres dont la culture se confond avec celle de leur possession, et dont le produit couvre le déficit que l'exiguité de ces possessions laisserait dans leurs moyens d'existence, soit en joignant à la culture de leur petite propriété celle d'une vigne dont ils sont vignerons, soit enfin en quittant leur domicile, qu'ils louent à des journaliers pour aller entreprendre comme métayers la culture de plus grands domaines. Beaucoup d'entre les ouvriers jeunes et valides, appartenant à la classe des petits propriétaires, se placent enfin comme valets de ferme dans les grandes exploitations.

Ces différens emplois communs à toute la classe des 3,561,733 petits propriétaires, en occupent un tiers au moins, qui met par là son existence au dessus du besoin. Les 6,216,000 individus composant la catégorie des plus petits propriétaires y participent dans la même proportion, ensorte qu'on peut estimer que dans ce nombre il y a petits propriétaires à l'abri du besoin - - - - - 2,072,000

Petits propriétaires restant exposés aux besoins - - - - - 4,144,000

Il résulte ainsi de ce dénombrement que la catégorie de ceux qui restent dans une position précaire parmi la population rurale de la France monte à journaliers - - - - - 1,850,000

Artisans - - - - - 1,568,000

Total des indigens des 3 classes - - - - - 7,562,000

Soit sur les 25,000,000 qui constituent cette population, $\frac{1}{3}$ 71/100^{es}.

Il importe maintenant d'examiner comment cette masse de besoins parviennent à se satisfaire dans l'état actuel de l'économie du pays, et sans avoir recours à aucunes taxes en sa faveur, ni aux bénéfices de fondations ou distributions pieuses, autres que celles des hospices.

En premier lieu, il faut distraire du nombre total environ 50,000 individus entretenus aux frais du gouvernement dans les bagnes, maisons de détention et de travail. En second lieu, les aliénés et les enfans abandonnés, qui sont secourus soit par des fondations, soit par des sommes accordées sur des fonds dont les départemens disposent. En troisième lieu enfin, ceux d'entre les pauvres qu'un très grand nombre d'hospices secourent dans les cas d'accidens et de maladies graves auxquels cette population est exposée.

Appendix (F.)

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A ces moyens de secours, il faut ajouter ceux que les quêtes et les charités particulières mettent à la disposition des pauvres dans les cas les plus malheureux. Mais il faut surtout faire entrer en ligne de compte une charité bienveillante, qui s'exerce à peu-près partout en France de proche en proche et de voisins à voisins à titre de bons offices.

Il est difficile que telle chose ait lieu en Angleterre, parceque le pauvre journalier n'y a pour voisin qu'un journalier aussi pauvre que lui, et que dans leur parité de position ils ne peuvent se prêter mutuellement secours. Il faut que la charité, immense sans doute en Angleterre, y tombe de haut sur le pauvre. Il importe donc d'expliquer comment elle se fait terre à terre dans les communes rurales de la France.

Dans ces communes le même village renferme les différens échelons de la propriété et des positions sociales ; ils s'y trouvent porte à porte et souvent sous le même toit. Le propriétaire de 10 hectares est l'ami, le beau-frère, l'oncle, ou le neveu de celui que n'en a que deux. Le journalier est en loyer chez l'opulent cultivateur, et ce besoin inné chez la nation de communiquer et de causer les met tous en rapport entr'eux. De là vient que la femme du propriétaire de 20 hectares ne laissera pas sa pauvre voisine accoucher sans secours ; elle lui prêtera du linge, parceque ses bahuts en sont remplis ; elle lui portera de la soupe, car sa marmite est grande et en contient beaucoup ; elle donnera des pommes de terre à ses enfans, et même du pain s'ils en manquent.

Ces secours, qui se distribuent dans une quantité qui échappe à la statistique et dans toutes les campagnes de la France, ne s'y donnent pas, je le répète, à titre de charité, mais de bon voisinage, ils n'ont jamais lieu en argent, mais dans les objets en nature dont on a besoin. Celui qui a reçu ces bons offices les rend à celui qui les a donnés, également en nature et avec ce qu'il possède ; c'est à dire avec ses bras et sa bonne volonté. Un propriétaire a-t-il besoin d'un aide momentané, soit pour remuer une grosse poutre, soit pour charger promptement ses gerbes, lorsque l'orage gronde dans le ciel, à l'instant le cordonnier, le serrurier voisin s'élance avec ardeur de sa boutique, et accourt pour mettre toute sa bonne volonté à la disposition du laboureur, qui hâte le pas de ses chevaux et retire à tems sa moisson avec cet utile secours, dont un verre de cidre devient la récompense.

Mais toute cette charité en action ne sert qu'à subvenir aux cas éventuels qui accablent l'indigence, il s'agit d'examiner comment ces indigens parviennent à pourvoir à leur existence quotidienne.

N'oublions pas que sur les 7,562,000 individus pauvres de la population rurale, il en est 4,144,000 qui possèdent déjà un domicile et un coin de terre dont l'étendue varie de deux hectares à quelques ares. Or une telle possession quelque bornée qu'elle soit, est déjà d'un grand secours à une famille de journaliers. Car outre le logement elle y trouve encore les légumes dont elle a besoin, souvent l'entretien d'une chèvre, et lorsque la propriété comporte de 1 à 2 hectares, elle lui produit des fruits, du blé, des pommes de terre, et souvent de la vigne ; enfin ce qu'un paysan Irlandais n'obtient qu'au prix d'un loyer de cinq guinées.

Les communes possédant encore en France, malgré les brèches que la révolution a faites à leurs propriétés, une superficie de 3,117,281 hectares, dont 1,959,904 en forêts et le surplus en terres et vaines pâtures, les habitans de la commune reçoivent une délivrance annuelle en bois, sans autres frais que ceux d'aller le couper et le chercher dans l'emplacement à ce désigné dans le bois communal. Ailleurs les terres et les friches se louent à la parcelle et à bas prix aux plus pauvres du village, pour les cultiver.

Ces avantages très notables pour les indigens sont à la vérité locaux, parceque les biens des communes sont très inégalement répartis entr'elles. Il en est de fort riches, il en est qui ne possèdent rien. Il en est dont les propriétés sont bien administrées ; il en est d'autres où la plus honteuse négligence a laissé ces biens sans emploi et les pauvres sans ressources ; cependant là où ils existent et où ils sont bien administres, ils leur sont d'un grand secours.

Mais celui qui leur a été offert sur presque tous les points du royaume, c'est l'usage qui s'y est introduit de donner aux pauvres journaliers des parcelles de terre à cultiver à moitié fruit. C'est à dire que les grands ou moyens propriétaires remettent à ceux qui en manquent, de la terre arable pour être cultivée par eux à la bêche dans la saison morte, et semée au printemps en plantes sarclées, telles que pommes de terre, pois, choux, haricots ou maïs ; sous la condition que la recolte en sera enlevée au premier Octobre pour être ensémencée en céréales. Cette recolte est partagée entre le propriétaire et le cultivateur dans la même proportion où ils en ont fourni les semences, savoir par moitié.

L'avantage que le propriétaire trouve dans cette méthode est celui d'obtenir pour une demi recolte qu'il sacrifie, et sans avances ni embarras pour lui, un sol soigneusement défoncé et dépouillé de mauvaises herbes, qu'il destine presque toujours à porter l'année d'après de la luzerne ou du trèfle.

Le pauvre y trouve celui de s'approvisionner de denrées précieuses pour lui, sans aucun déboursé et au moyen d'un travail qu'il opère pendant les journées sans emploi de l'hiver ; tandis que les travaux d'été s'exécutent par sa femme et ses enfans. Aussi ces cultures parcellaires ne sont elles pas seulement à l'usage des journaliers et des très petits propriétaires, les artisans dans les villages s'y adonnent avec beaucoup d'ardeur.

Les différentes ressources qu'obtiennent de la sorte les indigens qui appartiennent à la population rurale de la France, indépendamment du gain de leurs journées, peuvent être estimée s'élever au $\frac{1}{3}$ de leurs besoins.

Ainsi la somme nécessaire pour faire subsister une famille étant en moyenne en France de 531 francs, les ressources en logement, chauffage, pommes de terre et légumes représentent 177 francs. Le journalier pourvoit aux 354 fr. qui lui manquent,

	fr.
1°. Par 200 journées, à 1 f. - - - - -	200
2°. Par 120 journées de sa femme, à 60 c. - - - - -	72
3°. Par 320 journées de leur nourriture, l'usage étant en France de nourrir les journaliers dans la ferme, à 60 c. l'une - - - - -	192
4°. Plus dans le cas où le journalier obtient des ressources indépendantes au gain de son travail, la somme de - - - - -	177
Il dispose alors pour assurer l'existence de sa famille de la somme de	641

Ce terme peut être considéré comme le medium de la position du journalier en France. Je dis le medium; parceque tous ceux qui sont chargés d'une famille au dessus de cinq personnes, tous ceux qui ne participent que peu ou point aux 177 fr. que nous avons considérés comme étant la valeur représentative des ressources qu'ils obtiennent en dehors des salaires de leurs journées, se trouvent réduits à une somme inférieure à celle que coûte leur entretien. Pour cette classe malheureuse le déficit ne peut se combler qu'à l'aide d'un plus grand nombre de journées de travail ou de travaux faits à forfait, dans des entreprises publiques ou pour l'exploitation des forêts, &c., travaux payés à plus haut prix, et que l'ouvrier augmente par la plus grande activité de son labeur.

Enfin c'est dans cette classe que les souffrances de la misère se font réellement sentir, et c'est alors aussi que s'exercent en leur faveur les divers moyens de secours gratuits dont nous avons fait mention.

Les familles dont les enfans ont atteint l'âge où ils peuvent pourvoir à tout ou partie de leur entretien, celles qui en ont moins de trois, celles dont la propriété s'étend à la superficie de 1 à 2 hectares, celles dont les tems de chômage sont occupés par quelque industrie, ces familles sont au dessus du medium que nous avons fixé, et sont mises ainsi au dessus des besoins qui réclament des secours gratuits.

En recherchant le nombre de ceux qui peuvent être rangés dans ces deux catégories, nous ne pensons pas qu'il y ait au delà du tiers des familles que nous avons reconnues pour appartenir aux classes pauvres de la campagne, que l'on puisse considérer comme placées au dessous du medium que nous avons fixé plus haut à la somme de 641 fr.

C'est à dire que le nombre des pauvres dont la position est réellement misérable, dans la population rurale de la France, n'atteint qu'au nombre d'individus -	2,072,000
Auxquels il faut ajouter ceux des pauvres qui habitent les petites villes dans lesquelles il n'y a point de taxes établies en leur faveur, et où leurs moyens de secours ne consistent que dans les hospices, les charités particulières et les secours de voisinage. Cette catégorie de pauvres s'élevant au 7 me de la population, comprend ci individus - - - - -	500,000
Total des pauvres qui ne participent à aucune taxe - - -	2,572,000
Pauvres des grandes villes qui jouissent d'une taxe - - - - -	500,000
Pauvres entretenus par le gouvernement, par les divers dépôts de mendicité, maisons de travail, &c. &c. - - - - -	50,000
Total des pauvres en France - - -	3,122,000

C'est donc à un peu plus de 3 millions qu'il faut réduire le nombre des nécessiteux dans l'état actuel de l'économie que la France a reçue de sa révolution; c'est à dire un 10me de sa population, dont secourus par une taxe des pauvres - - - - -	500,000
Entretenus aux frais du gouvernement - - - - -	50,000
Aliénés et enfans abandonnés secourus par le gouvernement, et le surplus soigné par les fondations d'hospices dans les cas d'accidens et de maladies graves, et par les secours individuels dans les cas moins fâcheux - - -	30,000

Mais il ne faut pas se dissimuler que la France est aujourd'hui dans une période où sa richesse mobilière ayant été croissante, a fait beaucoup de demandes et donné beaucoup de travail à presque toutes les classes d'artisans; tandis que la repartition d'un capital foncier de 5 milliards, répandu à la fois parmi sa population rurale, en a appelé de proche en proche un grand nombre à jouir de l'aisance, et a en quelque sorte augmenté la part de tous à l'avoir national.

Mais il ne faut pas se dissimuler qu'à mesure que la population s'accroît, le pays se rapproche d'un nouveau point de saturation,—époque dont l'arrivée se hâte par l'effet même de la législation, qui ordonnant le partage des propriétés entre les enfans, tend à les subdiviser à l'infini, et à multiplier ainsi les familles des propriétaires dont la possession est totalement insuffisante pour assurer leur existence. Non seulement la loi produit cet effet, mais les habitudes générales; c'est à dire les mœurs y poussent la population avec une grande énergie. La subdivision de la propriété y est accélérée par l'action des bandes noires, qui vont sur tous les points du royaume acheter des propriétés en gros pour les revendre en détail. Ce morcellement de la propriété favorise l'établissement d'une foule de domiciles, construits par des économies qu'ont pu faire de petits industriels et des artisans intelligens, qui ne considèrent leur petit avoir comme assuré qu'autant qu'ils ont pu le fixer en immeuble.

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Le mouvement de subdivision en se propageant sans relâche, doit nécessairement rejeter dans la classe des nécessiteux un nombre toujours croissant d'individus, et il ne nous est pas donné de prévoir quelles seront les nouvelles ressources que leur ouvrira l'économie future du pays.

Il nous reste à examiner ce qu'est aujourd'hui l'état du paupérisme en Angleterre.

En évaluant la population totale de la Grande Bretagne à 23 millions, dont

7,500,000 pour l'Irlande,
 2,500,000 pour l'Ecosse,
 et 13,000,000 pour l'Angleterre,

Total - 23,000,000,

nous avons à rechercher ce que la population de l'Angleterre seule, montant à 13 millions, comprend de journaliers; c'est à dire d'individus vivans à la semaine du produit de leur travail manuel, et ayant droit à jouir des dons de la taxe des pauvres.

Douze cent mille Anglais participent aux droits électoraux d'après les clauses de dernier Bill qui a réglé ces droits. En admettant que ces 1,200,000 électeurs représentent chacun une famille de cinq personnes, on reconnaîtra qu'il y a 6 millions d'individus dont la position sociale les met à l'abri de tous besoins, et qui restent étrangers à l'application de cette taxe; si ce n'est pour en subir la perception.

Nous pouvons admettre qu'entre la classe électorale et celle du journalier il doit se trouver au moins un million d'individus, dont l'existence se trouve assuré sans recourir aux bienfaits de la taxe.

Elle resterait donc applicable à 6 millions d'individus, dont 3 millions appartiennent aux journaliers industriels, et 3 aux journaliers agricoles.

Ces deux classes doivent être rangées sur la même ligne quant à leurs moyens d'existence, car elles sont également dépourvues de toute possession et de tout capital, si ce n'est celui de leurs vêtemens, de leur très petit mobilier, et des outils de leur profession. Leur existence ne repose que sur leurs salaires.

Or, ces salaires, en admettant qu'ils soient basés sur le prix des subsistances, ne sauraient néanmoins pourvoir aux accidens, aux infirmités, à l'impuissance de l'âge, à l'entretien des enfans en bas âge, ni enfin aux tems de chômage ou au renchérissement des subsistances auxquels diverses causes exposent les journaliers. Car le prix du travail se règle sur celui nécessaire à l'entretien de l'ouvrier valide.

Il faut donc que la société vienne d'une manière quelconque au secours du déficit que ces diverses circonstances apportent dans l'existence des familles d'ouvriers,—circonstances dont l'effet sur le sort de ces familles est d'autant plus complet, qu'elles n'ont aucunes possessions, aucunes réserves, aucunes ressources pour y parer, et qu'elles ne peuvent faire face ni supporter sans périr la moindre suppression de travail, ni même une baisse dans le prix de ce travail, presque toujours offert au minimum par l'effet de la concurrence même qui s'établit entre les journaliers.

Or, nous avons vu qu'il n'y avait en Angleterre qu'un très petit nombre de fondations d'hospices, que les capitaux destinés à servir au soulagement des pauvres y avaient été distraits de cet emploi, et que quelque grande qu'y soit la bienfaisance particulière, on ne pouvait confier à cette puissance inconnue le sort et l'existence d'une classe composée de 6 millions d'individus: il devient donc évident que, placée dans de telles circonstances, l'Angleterre a du avoir recours à une large institution, destinée à pourvoir par des ressources proportionnées aux besoins et aux chances malheureuses qui exposent sans cesse l'existence d'une moitié à peu-près de sa population.

Cette institution a consisté dans la taxe qu'on perçoit en faveur des pauvres sur les propriétaires fonciers. Cette taxe n'est pas limitée, sa quotité s'établit annuellement d'après ce qu'il en a coûté pour les secours que les circonstances de l'année ont appelé les magistrats chargés de ce soin à distribuer aux pauvres. Ce n'est donc pas ici le droit du pauvre qui se trouve déterminé par la quotité même du capital ou des moyens mis à part pour le secourir; ce sont au contraire les droits du pauvre à recevoir qui sont illimités; puisque la taxe doit s'établir d'après l'étendue de ses demandes et de ses besoins.

Sans doute qu'une telle forme donne à cette institution les caractères les plus funestes; et malgré les soins et les précautions que prennent sans doute les magistrats chargés d'en faire la distribution, elle encourage toutes les causes de misère, en donnant en quelque sorte une prime à la paresse, à l'incurie, et aux vices dissipateurs compagnons de la pauvreté.

Mais à côté de ces graves inconvéniens elle pourvoit aussi à sauver les maux auxquels la position de l'ouvrier expose nécessairement le sort de sa famille dans l'économie de la société, et sans qu'il en soit coupable. Cette imposante nécessité compense l'action fatale de la loi et oblige à la maintenir, parceque sa suppression causerait dans l'économie du pays une épouvantable perturbation.

Examinons maintenant la taxe des pauvres dans son application.

Nous avons dit qu'une population de 6 millions d'individus avait droit à participer aux distributions de cette taxe. Mais de ce nombre il faut distraire, 1°. Ceux qui ne sont pas appelés à faire valoir ce droit, parceque leur famille est élevée et a atteint l'âge ou elle gagne sa propre subsistance, tandis que les parens sont encore habiles à pourvoir à la leur: 2°. Ceux des ouvriers valides dont la subsistance est assurée chez les maîtres qu'ils servent en qualité de valets de ferme, &c. &c.

Cette distraction doit emporter la moitié de la classe des ayant droit à la taxe des pauvres: car d'après leur longévité moyenne, la moitié de leur vie s'écoule dans le période nécessaire pour

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pour élever leur famille, et l'autre moitié dans celui où débarassés de ce soin ils peuvent suffire à gagner leur propre subsistance, tandis que le nombre des journaliers infirmes et caducs compense celui des ouvriers dont l'existence est assurée chez les maîtres qu'ils servent.

Il reste donc 3 millions d'ouvriers en demeure de recevoir les distributions provenant de la taxe des pauvres. Cette taxe s'étant élevée à la somme de 9 millions sterlings, les ouvriers indigens y participent dans la proportion de 3 l. par tête, et les 6 millions d'individus compris dans la classe électorale, et qui par leur position sont appelés à contribuer au prorata de leur fortune à faire les fonds de cette taxe, y sont ainsi appelés à raison de 1 l. 10 s. par tête.

Mais cette institution a non seulement tous les inconvénients moraux que nous avons signalés, elle offre encore celui de menacer sans cesse d'une augmentation, proportionnée à l'accroissement graduel d'une population, sur laquelle les inconvénients moraux de cette taxe agiront dans la proportion même de son accroissement.

C'est donc à parer au crescendo fatal des inconvénients croissans, tant matériels que moraux de cette institution, que l'attention des économistes Anglais s'est aujourd'hui tendue.

Il nous reste donc à faire l'examen des moyens par lesquels on pourrait y parvenir.

Quels peuvent être les moyens d'améliorer le sort d'une population de 6 millions d'individus pressés dans un espace borné et sur lequel ils ne possèdent rien, dans un pays où l'activité industrielle et rurale a déjà élevé au plus haut prix la rente de la terre et sa valeur vénale, et où par conséquent il ne reste presque pas de vide agricole à remplir, ni de capitaux à disposer en faveur de cette amélioration ?

Il faut d'ailleurs laisser en dehors toute possibilité de participer à une amélioration quelconque, la classe des ouvriers industriels qui habitent dans les villes. Pour ceux-là il faut nécessairement maintenir l'institution de la taxe ; car il n'y a nuls moyens de substituer d'autres ressources à celle qui seule peut venir au secours de la somme de misère qui accable périodiquement de telles populations. Il a fallu y recourir en France, il faut la conserver en Angleterre.

La classe des ouvriers industriels, comprenant dans ce dernier pays la moitié de sa population, ce serait donc pour 3 millions d'individus qu'il faudrait dans tous les cas conserver l'institution de la taxe. Néanmoins une grande part de la fabrication s'exécutant dans les compagnes, nous pensons que ce nombre peut être restreint à 2 millions ; parcequ'un million d'ouvriers industriels doivent séjourner hors des villes, et sont habiles par là à participer aux améliorations qu'il serait possible d'apporter dans le sort des journaliers agricoles. Le nombre total des individus dont le sort serait ainsi susceptible de recevoir quelque amélioration, s'élèverait à 4 millions.

De quelle nature peuvent être ces améliorations ?

Il faut les chercher dans la situation présente de l'économie du pays, d'après la division des propriétés, le mode de leur exploitation, et les moyens qu'on y emploie pour tirer le meilleur parti de la force productive du sol. Car il ne faut pas songer à faire intervertir ces grandes bases du système économique d'un pays, en vue d'un but dont la nature est toute morale. Ce n'est pas ainsi que les choses se passent dans l'ordre actuel des sociétés. Elles ne sauraient même s'y passer ainsi sans en changer le mobile et le jeu. L'activité et l'intelligence humaine ne peuvent être stimulés qu'en vue de l'intérêt particulier de chacun, et ce n'est que du concours de tous ces intérêts, travaillant séparément, que se forme l'action générale de l'économie, qui est plus ou moins prospère en raison de ce que les dispositions de l'état social ont plus ou moins développé l'action de tous ces intérêts particuliers.

Ce ne sera donc ni en vue d'améliorer le sort du pauvre, ni en vue de corriger les vices de la taxe établie pour les secourir, que les propriétaires se décideraient à changer le mode de leur exploitation, à la parceller entre les familles pauvres, au lieu d'en confier l'administration à un riche et habile fermier. Car il vaut mieux pour ce propriétaire payer sa part de la taxe, que de compromettre son revenu en confiant l'exploitation de sa terre à des mains mal pourvues du capital et des fonds nécessaires pour mener à bien cette exploitation. La production même du pays pourrait être compromise d'une manière fatale par un tel changement, brusquement opéré dans le mode de la culture de ses terres, et une telle expérience ne saurait se tenter.

Mais elle est impossible ; parcequ'il est impossible de réunir dans l'exécution de tout projet de ce genre le concours des intérêts particuliers, dont l'action simultanée constitue l'économie du pays.

Il ne faut donc s'attacher qu'à la recherche des moyens de soulagement que présente l'état des choses tel qu'il existe aujourd'hui en Angleterre. Car on ne saurait calculer celui qu'y produirait une révolution sociale si elle devait être malheureusement exposée à en subir, comme la France, la terrible explosion.

Le seul capital qui reste disponible en Angleterre est celui qu'y possèdent encore un certain nombre de communes. Beaucoup d'entre ces communes ont partagé leurs terres en vertu des bills de clôture qu'elles avaient obtenus du Parlement pendant les années de la guerre et de la cherté des subsistances. Ces partages se sont opérés entre les ayant droits ; c'est à dire entre les communiens, d'après les règles qui président à tous les partages de propriété indivise, où les plus forts intéressés ont la plus grosse part ; ensorte que les petits intéressés ont pour la plupart vendu leurs petites parts aux grands intéressés, portés qu'ils étaient à recevoir et à consommer le capital qui leur en était offert.

Les biens appartenants à ces communes sont rentrés ainsi dans le capital de la propriété particulière, et n'offrent plus aucunes ressources à mettre à la disposition des pauvres.

Mais si au lieu d'opérer le partage des biens communaux, l'administration de la commune s'était bornée à louer pour quelques années des parcelles des terres qu'elle possède en vaine

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pâturage, et cela à très bas prix, aux journaliers domiciliés sur son territoire, il en serait résulté 1°. Que le capital de ces terres n'aurait point été aliéné et absorbé dans la propriété particulière. 2°. Que ce capital aurait été néanmoins utilisé pour la reproduction. 3°. Qu'il aurait servi à l'amélioration du sort des pauvres qui l'auraient défriché, de toute la différence entre le prix du loyer qu'ils en auraient payé, et le montant du revenu qu'ils auraient obtenu de sa récolte. 4°. Que la commune aurait encaissé le montant de ses loyers, et aurait augmenté d'autant les moyens dont elle dispose pour le soulagement de ces pauvres. C'est à dire qu'en créant par la mise en valeur de terrains en friche une nouvelle rente, cette rente aurait fourni un moyen de secours de plus dont une portion aurait été acquise aux pauvres en nature et pour prix de leur travail, et dont l'autre portion, versée dans la caisse de la commune, y aurait figuré comme un à compte sur le montant de la taxe qu'elle a droit de lever sur les propriétaires pour secourir ses pauvres.

Nous n'hésitons pas, d'après les heureux effets que nous avons vu résulter de cette mesure, d'en conseiller la plus prompte adoption dans toutes celles des communes de l'Angleterre, où il existe encore des terres en vaine pâture.

La location de terres en friche faite à la parcelle et à bas prix aux pauvres domiciliés dans la commune, ne peut être considérée sans doute que comme un palliatif, et un supplément à la grande charge qu'impose la taxe aux propriétaires de l'Angleterre. En premier lieu, parceque cette location ne peut avoir lieu que partiellement, et là seulement où il existe des communes qui possèdent de tels capitaux. En second lieu, parceque le bénéfice de cette location ne saurait être que proportionné à la superficie du sol affermé, et à son revenu.

Ainsi en supposant que chaque famille pauvre loue un acre de terre au prix de 10 s. et qu'elle obtienne de la récolte une valeur de 40 s., valeur qu'elle aura créé par un travail opéré en tems perdu, et en y occupant la femme et les enfans, cette famille aura gagné 30 s. en défalcation de ce qu'elle a droit d'attendre de la taxe des pauvres. Ce droit serait de 7 l. 10 s. pour chaque famille de 5 personnes, il serait par conséquent réduit à 6 l. par le bénéfice obtenu sur la culture d'un acre; tandis que la caisse communale encaisserait 10 s. à compte des 6 l. qu'elle doit à cette famille pour son droit à la taxe.

Ce compte appliqué à la contenance d'un acre, présenterait au profit de la taxe des pauvres des bénéfices proportionnés à l'étendue du terrain dont les communes disposeraient de la sorte.

Mais en outre de ces bénéfices, elles trouveraient dans cette disposition du capital foncier qu'elles possèdent encore, les avantages moraux qui résultent de l'intérêt qu'elle donnerait aux pauvres domiciliés, dans la participation à une propriété quelconque: car quoique cette propriété ne repose que sur un bail de quelques années, et sur les récoltes obtenues sur le sol affermé, ce n'en est pas moins un ressort puissant sur l'esprit humain, que celui que fait agir sur lui la possession d'un avenir de quelques années, comparé à l'absence de tout avenir et de toute possession confiée à cet avenir. L'intérêt social s'amointrit à mesure que l'homme a moins à attendre de cette société, et l'abrutissement moral du pauvre s'accroît de toute l'importance qu'a pour lui le présent, de toute la nullité qu'a pour lui l'avenir: car la moralité ne consiste que dans le sacrifice perpétuel du présent à l'avenir.

Dans celles des communes que le partage de leurs biens en a déjà dépouillées, on ne saurait appliquer au régime des pauvres d'autres palliatifs que celui dont la France a fait un heureux emploi: savoir celui d'engager les propriétaires ou plutôt leurs fermiers à concéder pour une saison aux journaliers voisins, des parcelles de terre pour y cultiver des pommes de terre et des légumes à moitié fruit.

Mais le régime agricole de l'Angleterre présente à l'adoption de cet usage beaucoup plus de difficultés qu'il n'en a rencontré en France.

La première de toutes tient à ce qu'une grande partie du sol de l'Angleterre ne consiste qu'en une légère couche d'humus reposant sur un lit de craye, qu'il serait dangereux d'entamer avec la bêche; c'est à dire trop profondément, sous peine d'altérer pour longtemps la fécondité que les engrais ont imprimée au sol. Le bénéfice obtenu par le défoncement du sol, si précieux pour la généralité des propriétaires Français, serait donc en sens inverse en Angleterre, et les fermiers ne gagneraient à la culture parcellaire que le nettoyage complet du sol ainsi cultivé.

La seconde de ces difficultés provient de ce que l'usage assez général en France est de cultiver les pommes de terre sans engrais, et de ne distribuer le fumier sur les terres qu'après leur enlèvement et immédiatement avant d'y semer les céréales; tandis que l'usage en Angleterre est d'appliquer au contraire une abondant fumière aux pommes de terre et aux turneps; afin qu'elle serve encore aux céréales et au trèfle qui leur succèdent.

La troisième difficulté tient à ce que les fermiers Anglais, étant des spéculateurs, pourvus des capitaux nécessaires à leur exploitation, n'apprécient nullement ces économies de main d'œuvres, dont le cultivateur Français fait un si grand cas. Il suffit que cette main d'œuvre puisse être compensée avec quelque profit par la récolte, pour que le fermier préfère en Angleterre en faire les avances dans l'espoir d'un remboursement lucratif.

Dans cette disposition il sera peu tenté de parceller la culture de grandes pièces de terre, pour les donner à cultiver à demi récolte à des journaliers auxquels il peut faire exécuter à forfait et à son profit seul la même culture.

Ces difficultés ne sont pas néanmoins des obstacles insurmontables. Sans doute qu'ils ne sauraient être vaincus, a priori, ni de haute lutte; car rien ne peut obliger des propriétaires ou des fermiers à adopter un usage sans profit immédiat pour eux; mais il reste pour y parvenir la voye de la persuasion et celle de l'exemple. La persuasion peut venir d'une conviction émise par des écrits, par l'exposition des résultats de cet usage faite dans les clubs et les réunions agricoles; tandis que l'exemple de le mettre en pratique peut être donné sur beaucoup

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beaucoup de points du royaume à la fois, parcequ'il y existe un assez grand nombre de propriétaires animés de l'amour du bien et disposés à le mettre en action, pour consacrer quelques acres de leurs moins bons sols, à l'essai d'un usage dont l'effet pourrait être grand, lorsqu'il parviendrait à se généraliser sur le sol de l'Angleterre.

L'effet pourrait en être grand, non seulement en ce qu'il donnerait aux pauvres 2 l. par acre en déduction de ce qu'ils ont droit à recevoir de la taxe, mais aussi par les résultats moraux que cette participation à la propriété exerce sur l'esprit de ceux qui n'ont rien. Enfin l'effet pourrait en devenir grand, en ce qu'il servirait à ouvrir la voye à un changement dans l'économie rurale de l'Angleterre d'après lequel un système de fermage à la parcelle s'y introduirait à la longue.

Ce système n'a produit, il est vrai, aucuns bons effets en Irlande, en raison de quoi les économistes Anglais sont bien peu disposés à le préconiser et encore moins à l'admettre ; mais ont ils bien examiné si ces fâcheux résultats n'ont point été la conséquence de causes sociales politiques, et dont les racines étaient dans l'histoire de l'Irlande et dans le génie de cette nation ; puisque ce même système a produit de très heureux résultats en France, en Belgique, en Suisse, et en Italie ?

Résumons : l'adoption d'une mesure d'après laquelle les communes disposeraient des terres en friche qu'elles possèdent encore, pour les louer à bas prix aux familles pauvres à condition de les cultiver ; tandis que là où ces terres manquent, les propriétaires accorderaient à ces familles des parcelles de leurs domaines pour les cultiver pendant une saison à moitié produit, cette adoption serait applicable à une population de 4 millions d'individus ; c'est à dire à 800 mille familles d'ouvriers auxquelles elle fournirait en raison de 2 l. par famille et par acre, et viendrait ainsi en déduction de la taxe des pauvres pour une quotité de 1,600,000 l.

Mais cette taxe ne continuerait pas moins à se percevoir dans la proportion de 7,400,000 l. En sorte que les mesures que nous proposons ne peuvent être considérées que comme un palliatif à un fleau qui me paraît être inhérent à l'économie de l'Angleterre, et qu'elle doit se résoudre à supporter, parcequ'il est une conséquence forcée des faits de son histoire et de son immense prospérité.

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Esq.NOTES on the ADMINISTRATION of the RELIEF of the POOR in *France*,
by *Ashhurst Majendie, Esq.*

THE following Notes were made during a residence of a few months in a part of Normandy. Having been engaged in the examination of that district in England in which the evils of the abuse of Poor Laws are most strongly developed, I thought it might be an interesting object of inquiry to observe the situation of a country which was free from those abuses, and to ascertain generally what was the system of management in a part of France bearing a considerable resemblance to England. I thought it probable that some hints might be obtained, tending to the improvement now contemplated by the Government, and I take the liberty of offering this Report, however incomplete and humble it may be, with the view of contributing to that important object. The Ministre du Commerce did me the honour to give me a letter of introduction from Mons. Le Baron Fumeron d'Ardeuil, the director of all the charitable institutions in the kingdom, addressed to the préfet of the department de la Manche, from whom and from the sous-préfet of Valognes, and also from the préfet du Calvados, resident at Caen, I received every assistance, and access to all public documents, and admission to all the establishments. My friend, Mons. De Gerville, of Valognes, also exerted himself in every way to assist my inquiries.

According to the system established in France (unless by a combination beyond all probability) it is next to impossible that fraud should enter into the management of the Poor fund.

The administration of the Poor Laws, instead of being placed in the hands of men discharging a thankless and compulsory office, incompetent by education to any enlarged views, and frequently interested in the maintenance of abuse, is confided to persons independent in property, and of the highest consideration, who consider the charge a duty entitling them to the respect and gratitude of their country; they undertake this office of responsibility from a sense of public duty, seeking the confidence of their fellow-citizens by a zealous discharge of it; they are also subject to a rigid control. If it were possible that in any small community abuses should exist, the rigid inspection of the prefect, an officer of high trust, free from local interests or prejudice, could hardly fail to detect it; if, for instance, it were found that the expense of diet, or of any articles provided, were higher than ordinary, the question as to the cause would immediately arise; a comparison with other parishes would be instituted, and contracts made at too high a price would be open to more general competition. It must be observed, that in towns alone a compulsory fund is levied for the use of the poor, and *that* indirectly, by means of the octroi; the tax being limited in its nature, being levied on the consumption of provisions, and there being other objects also for its destination, the fund for the wants of the poor cannot be indefinite, and must *, consequently, be administered with economy. In rural districts, there are no means for the relief of the poor, unless it be admission to the hospices of the neighbouring towns, to which they consequently crowd, and it is represented that great distress does really exist in consequence of the absence of all relief: at one period bureaux de bienfaisance were established in Cantons (districts containing several parishes), but they were not found to answer, probably from the want in such situations of proper administrators. In spite of some partial distress, the advantages derived by all classes of society from the frugal and well-ordered system of relief established in France are very apparent. The proprietor is safe in the enjoyment of his property, free from the anxiety incident to a state of circumstances which, in England, is every year tending to the absorption of all property, impoverishing the giver, without enriching him who receives †. The occupier is able to make his arrangements with his landlord, free from a tax which is undefined and cannot be calculated; free from imposed labour, he is able to employ labourers according to his means of obtaining a profitable return, and those only whom he may require. Agriculture, therefore, is represented as flourishing; a kindly feeling exists between the farmer and the peasant, who is generally, in Normandy, proprietor of a little land; the farmers frequently assist their labourers in ploughing, and advance seed corn; the labourers, in return, do a certain number of days' work at harvest, called jours d'honneur, without pay, receiving only their board.

Finally, the labourer does not see his industry oppressed by the allowance system; he receives the value of his labour whether married or single, not the mere minimum of subsistence; he is aware of his real position, and instead of demanding as a right a share in an unlimited fund, looks forward from early life to his own exertions as the only means of support; like the other classes of society, he feels that he is not exempt from the consequences of his own conduct; and that if he makes an improvident marriage the burden must fall

* The octroi is a duty imposed on the entry of wines and other articles of consumption into towns, and was originally established solely for the benefit of the poor; subsequently this tax has become the general revenue of towns, and the municipality vote certain portions for the poor, part to the hospitals, part to the bureaux de bienfaisance.

† The sum now paid as poor tax in England is larger than the land tax of France, and put into the denomination of francs, two hundred millions, fills the French with astonishment.

fall on himself. During the time of the war indeed, owing to the great waste of life in battles, and the exemption of married men at one period from conscription, (which was changed) early marriages were very frequent. At present it is usual for peasants to wait to the age of 30 or upwards before they marry; thus they are able to make a provision by saving; frequently they are able to purchase a house and a small plot of land. Having no encouragement by the law to marry, under the persuasion that the State must maintain their children, there is no inducement to improvidence.

The cheap mode of transfer of property by the offices for registration of deeds in the country towns much facilitates the acquisition of land by peasants. Without entering into reasoning on the propriety of the law which divides property among the children, or on the question whether the great subdivision is or is not beneficial to the country, this is evidently advantageous; and the increase of population which is dreaded from too minute subdivision, does not take place, the peasants deferring the period of marriage.

Thus, unless in seasons of general distress, there being no pretence for demands from the sturdy and able-bodied, the duties of the administrators of the poor are confined to the care of the really distressed. On one point, the receiving indiscriminately all illegitimate and deserted children without inquiry, the French system seems to produce great evil, both in a moral and economical point of view. One great crime, infanticide, is avoided, but laxity of morals must be produced by parents being able to place at the charge of the country the offspring of their vices, and divest themselves of all care and all shame on the subject. The expense also is enormous; (see *Foundlings*.)

Relief is administered partly by hospitals (uniting the two objects of hospitals for the sick and poor-houses), which are confined to the in-poor, partly by bureaux de charité, which visit the poor at their own houses, and give relief in kind, and by ateliers de charité for the instruction and employment of children. A great advantage exists for both these institutions, in the assistance of the different religious orders of Sisters of Charity, who devote themselves to the care of the sick in hospitals, and to the different establishments for the relief of the poor, and the education of the young. The care which these excellent ladies give to the objects of their solicitude is above all praise; it is a service which money could not buy; it is fully appreciated by the government, and by the administrators of public charities; the reports from the directors of hospitals are full of acknowledgments of their inestimable services*.

But in their superintendence of the different charities, though the really distressed meet with every consolation that can be offered, no false sensibility is shown towards the vicious; they resist the claims of the idle with firmness; and in the assistance which they give by domiciliary visits, to examine the real state of the distressed, their attention seems equally directed to seek out the proper objects, and to reject the demands of the importunate, thus usefully seconding the views of the government, and acting under the direction of the administrators of hospitals.

Another great assistance in the religious and moral education of the poor is derived from the institution of les Frères des écoles Chrétiennes.

The religious order of les Frères des écoles Chrétiennes is instituted for the instruction of the indigent; it is supposed to consist of about 2,000 members, instructing 100,000 children. They take the vows of celibacy, poverty and obedience, and are under the direction of a superior residing at Paris, by whose orders they are liable to be sent to any part of the world. They are not at liberty to receive payment from any individual; but are supported by a fixed salary, either from a foundation, or the town where they reside. Besides reading and writing, and religious instruction, they give some knowledge in geography, mathematics applied to the arts, drawing and land measuring. The knowledge thus acquired is found of the greatest advantage to mechanics, as the lessons and kind of drawing they teach is peculiarly adapted for builders, carpenters and cabinet-makers. The pupils are taken out into the fields and instructed in land-measuring, which proves of great advantage to both farmers and labourers; in bargains for piece-work it prevents disputes, and facilitates an amicable settlement, and the great subdivision of land in France makes it also peculiarly useful, and enables many to earn a livelihood by exercising it as a profession.

I visited two of these establishments, one at Valognes, founded by the Marquis de Chifrevaet, the other at Havre. The kindness and good humour and patient encouragement with which the masters draw forth the talents of their pupils, produce the happiest effects. The government extends its protection to them; nor is it probable that it will be withdrawn from an institution of so much utility to the country.

Foundlings.

THE law of France cautiously avoids any inquiry into the maternity or paternity of foundlings and bastards; at one period, unmarried mothers of children were subject to inquiry, but infanticide was found to increase, and the practice was discontinued. A small box is placed in the exterior wall of the principal hospitals, moving on a pivot; the children are deposited there by the mother or the midwife, the box is turned round, and thereby rings a bell,

* "Les devoirs que les dames religieuses hospitalières se sont volontairement imposés pour le bonheur des malades sont gravés au fond de leur cœur. Leur sacrifice est immense; le courage et le dévouement dont à chaque instant elles font preuve ne sont pas un des miracles les moins frappants de la religion. Personne plus qu'elles n'a des droits acquis au respect de l'administration et à la reconnaissance de tous les hommes."—*Extract from the report of the Administration des Hospices à Caen.*

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a bell, which communicates with the porter's lodge; the children are put under the care of nurses resident in the hospital for that purpose, and are afterwards sent out to nurse in the country at the expense of the department. The great increase in the number of foundlings, induced the minister in the year 1827 to address a circular letter, in which it is stated that the number was increasing in so frightful a manner, being then 122,000, at an expense of 9,000,000 francs, that it was impossible to tolerate any longer the various abuses, which threatened to absorb all the resources of the departments and of parishes in the expense of foundlings alone. A principal abuse was, that married women with very large families, were in the habit of placing their children in the box; and they, as well as mothers of illegitimate children, presented themselves to the board, and had their own children entrusted to them; or else they were placed with some neighbours, where the mothers had at least the satisfaction of seeing their children and watching their health. It was determined, therefore, to change the nurses, to move the children from one arrondissement to another, or even to another department. When this took place, the mothers having lost sight of their children, maternal affection was called into action, and rather than be deprived of that gratification they reclaimed their children, and submitted to the privations consequent on the increased charge. In the department de la Manche, the population of which is 591,284, the effect was as follows:

Number of Foundlings.						Expense.
						Francs.
In 1824	-	-	-	1,905	-	151,294
1825	-	-	-	1,251	-	105,480
1826	-	-	-	1,355	-	98,917
1830	-	-	-	1,683	-	116,756

In the latter year the removals had ceased, and the number was considerably increased. The children are maintained at the expense of the department, and remain with the nurses till the age of 12, and then return to the hospitals, where, under the care of the sisters of charity they receive instruction in religion, in reading, and in some useful occupation, till the opportunity offers of apprenticing them.

Able-bodied.

IN very rigorous seasons, or at periods when from peculiar circumstances there is a stagnation, the prefects endeavour, by public works, to find employment for labourers who are turned off by individuals; but as a general rule, relief is never given to the able-bodied but in return for work. Certain sums are voted by the conseils généraux of departments, for laying out and repairing public roads. All these works are carried on, after an examination by engineers, by contract; the work is therefore performed by the piece.

Every parish has the right to tax itself to the extent of four sous in the franc, on the amount of their direct taxes; but this maximum cannot be exceeded without an express law, emanating from the Chambers. This is voted by the municipal council, after deliberative consultation with 10 of the highest taxed proprietors; this sum is appropriated to the general purposes of the parish, for the repair of roads and other public works; and though there is in general no tax for the relief of the poor in rural districts, yet in times of great difficulty a portion of the above may be appropriated to charity.

During the great stagnation of trade which took place immediately after the late revolution, the government voted 5,000,000 of francs for the alleviation of the general distress; this was distributed in different departments, and employed in public works.

This temporary assistance produced the happiest effect, and furnished occupation till the restoration of confidence re-established general employment and prosperity.

In the year 1789 there existed charitable establishments in most parishes, both in the country parishes and in the towns, in which there were funds for the relief of the poor. These establishments were directed by a *sort of vestry*, composed of the seigneur, the curé, the bailli, or justice, and the principal inhabitants. At the time of the revolution a considerable part of the property of hospitals, and of the endowments for the poor, was confiscated.

The bureaux de charité, or de bienfaisance, were established by law in the years 1796-7. Their revenue consists, 1st, of landed property, being a portion of that formerly belonging to the poor, which had been confiscated during the early periods of the revolution, and of other land granted in place of it, and made applicable to the support of hospitals and bureaux de bienfaisance.

2dly, Of legacies and gifts, in land or money, which they were authorized to accept under certain formalities.

3dly, Of a part of the price of tickets of admission to theatres, balls, concerts, &c.

4thly, Of sums annually voted to them by the municipal councils of towns and rural parishes.

5thly, Of the interest of sums invested in national stocks, or on private security.

The bureaux de charité and hospices are administered by a commission of five principal inhabitants chosen by the prefect, exclusive of the mayor, who is president by right of office; one-fifth go out of office every year, but may be re-elected; they are distinct boards, but the same persons may form part of both. These offices are gratuitous; are considered

considered a public service, and give a claim of admission into the order of the Legion of Honour to members who distinguish themselves by their zeal.

The duty of the bureau de charité is to distribute relief in kind at the houses of the poor, after a rigid examination as to the real necessity of the party, for it is said*, "the same anxiety which should be exerted to succour the really indigent, should also be directed to prevent the encouragement of idleness and vice, by a profuse and indiscriminate distribution. The first step is to ascertain the *settlement* (domicile) of the pauper, which is presumed to be the place of birth. Settlement may, however, be obtained by living in a parish for a year, dating from the entry in the register of the mayoralty. As soon as the motives cease which have caused the admission of the pauper to receive public relief, the relief should be discontinued; also, if a person having the claim of still greater destitution presents himself, or if the pauper makes an ill use of the gift; relief in labour is much recommended, either by the *cultivation of the land* belonging to the poor, or by public workshops. If, on the one hand, by timely and judicious charity the infirmities of age are relieved, on the other, children are led by moral and religious education, to guard themselves at a more advanced age from destitution. The love of work, the spirit of economy and providence, should be inculcated. In the distribution of relief, the commissions should remember, that misfortune does not extinguish shame and self-esteem; that one of the first objects of the institution is to succour the unfortunate, without making them feel disgrace."

Municipal Councils.

IN each parish there is a municipal council, (vestry,) composed of the mayor (who is appointed by the King,) his assistants, and a certain number of inhabitants, according to the population.

In parishes of 500 inhabitants the number is -	-	-	-	10
500 to 1,500 -	-	-	-	12
10,000 to 30,000 -	-	-	-	27

They are chosen by the assembly of electors, which consists of one-tenth of the individuals paying the greatest sum in the direct taxation, of members of courts of law, of the learned professions, and half-pay officers.

One-third of the tax paid by an estate occupied by a farmer is reckoned to the occupier, so as to give him a claim to be included among the highest taxed individuals in the parish, without derogating from the right of the proprietor.

Three-fourths of the municipal council must be chosen from electors living within the parish.

Four meetings must be held within the year.

In the month of May they draw out their estimate or budget of the expenditure of the parish, which is sent to the sous-prefêt, and ultimately determined by the préfet.

Accompts.

THE system of accompts established in France seems nearly perfect. If there is any fault in the complication of too numerous books, the extreme accuracy thereby insured may atone for the inconvenience; and it must be remembered, that the low denomination of the coin, francs and centimes, necessarily forces an infinity of figures. The receiver of hospitals and bureaux de bienfaisance (these offices are frequently held by the same individual) is proposed by the commission. He is nominated by the prefect from a list of three candidates, and is bound to find security to the amount of one-tenth of the annual receipts.

The commission presents a budget or estimate to the préfet, for his approval, every year, and no item of expense not included therein can be paid without his special permission. One item in the budget is unforeseen expenses; the charge of diet, &c. for different classes of inmates is arranged in a tabular form; one line gives the number of persons, another the number of days, and another the rate per day. The receiver keeps the books of accompts, which consist of, 1st and 2d, two cheque books, one for receipts below 10 francs, the other for receipts above 10 francs, which require a stamp. The employment of cheque books is considered very important, and is of general adoption; in case of suspicion of fraud or falsification, the detached cheque may be fitted to the portion whence it has been separated in the book, which remains at the office.

3d. A general journal or ledger, in which are inserted all the receipts and expenses; this ought to be added up every night.

4th. The great book, in which the totals of the receipts and payments of each day are inserted.

5th. A book of detail, divided into as many pages, both of receipt and payment, as there are heads in the budget. The receiver inscribes in this book the sums as they arise; this forms a cheque on each article; the receiver compares each item with the sum allowed by the budget; this is the most important part of all the system of accounts, affording the means of judging on what article any saving may be effected.

6th. The budget.

The

* From the directions to the commission of inspection.

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.Ashurst Majendie,
Esq.

The chief articles required are purchased by contract, they are examined by one of the commission, who is called the steward, who certifies as to the quality to another officer, who makes out an order on the receiver. On the 31st December the mayor examines the vouchers and accompt-books; a report is made by the administration to the municipal body, and it is then transmitted to the prefect of the department. Every three months the receiver draws up a report of receipts and payments, one copy of which is sent to the prefect, another to the minister of finance.

Ten months are allowed for the completion of the accompts of the preceding year.

The receiver is bound to keep a register of all the property of the poor, whether in real property, or in funds, or money.

Houses and lands are let by tender; the falls of timber are subject to the same regulations as the woods belonging to the state.

Articles made in the hospitals are sold; one-third of the profit is given to the inmates, two-thirds to the establishment.

Rents are frequently reserved in kind, the price calculated at the market price, and consumed in the houses; printed forms are provided for keeping the accounts, according to a model universally adopted.

The accompts commence the 1st January, and end the 31st December.

Inspection.

THE mayors, by virtue of their office as presidents, have the right of inspection of the state of the funds and of the books of accounts of all establishments for relief of the poor. The inspectors general and ordinary of the finances have the same right at the requisition of the préfet, sous-préfet or mayor. These inspectors make their visits quite unexpectedly; they require to see all the books of accompts as they exist at the moment they arrive; as by law the receivers are bound to cast up the accompts at the end of every day, the minutest error may be instantly detected. In addition to this, the minister of the interior, in the year 1828, formed a special commission for the inspection of bureaux de bienfaisance and foundlings. An official letter was then addressed to the prefects, stating that the extraordinary increase of the number of foundlings, the augmentation of expenses, the various abuses of which complaints were made by the prefects, the resolutions of the general councils* of departments, and reports on the administration and accompts of charitable institutions, left no doubt that great irregularities existed, and that it had become indispensable to re-establish order and economy; it was determined therefore to form a permanent inspection of hospitals, bureaux de bienfaisance, and the state of foundlings. The object of the mission embraced the examination of every part of these establishments, and was directed to give to the government information of the exact state of the administration of public relief, of the resources and wants of each establishment, and to propose, in concert with the local authorities, measures requisite to improve their system of management. The administrators were informed that it was not intended to examine their proceedings with an injurious suspicion, but to exercise that benevolent superintendence which forms one of the obligations which, by law, the government is bound to discharge as guardian of all institutions of public utility.

The inspectors are instructed not to control the administrators in their proceedings in an arbitrary manner, but to offer them useful hints, and such information as may call their attention to those legal principles which ought ever to guide them in their honourable labours. The object of the Government has been, as much as possible, to leave the administration in the hands of the local authorities; but, it is observed, "if it is the duty of Government to leave great latitude for the administration of local interests, it is no less their imperative duty to depart in no way from that superintendence which may maintain uniformity in the application of the general principles of the legislation of the country." It is left to the prefects to carry into effect the measures which may be required in consequence of the report of the inspectors, and they also point out the particular hospitals, &c., which require a special examination. The inspectors were provided with a printed form of questions relative to the budget, the receipts, payments, books of accompts, investments of capital, general state of the property whether in land or funds, number of persons in the establishments, internal management and dietary; a statement of the answers on all these points was to be returned to the office at Paris, which is specially appointed for the control of all the establishments of public charity within the kingdom.

Ordonnances.

IN the instructions and ordonnances on the subject of the poor, the ministers depart from the usual dry announcement of official regulations; they enter into motives and reasons on the subject of public charity, and the principles they wish to inculcate.

The conclusion of the ordonnance of 1828 is so ably expressed, and points out so well the evils of indiscriminate relief, and the duties of the administrators of public charity, without morbid sensibility on one side, or severity on the other, that it seems to me not merely confined to the country it addresses, but to be of general application. I endeavour therefore to translate some portions, as closely as the idioms of the two languages permit.

Abstract

* Answering to meetings of magistrates and grand juries at quarter sessions.

ABSTRACT of the Circular of the Ministre de l'Interieur.

Foreign
Communications.Ashhurst Majendie,
Esq.

"Society owes relief to those only who, by force of circumstances, are rendered unable to provide for the necessities of life: to distribute relief in any other case, is to create mendicity, to encourage idleness, and produce vice.

"Three kinds of distress claim public relief; the state of poverty, infirmity, abandonment. In the first class are, 1st, those individuals who, living habitually by the work of their hands, are deprived of work by temporary circumstances. 2d, families deprived of their means of existence by sudden calamity.—In the first case it is necessary to ascertain whether the cessation of work is not a pretext for inactivity; above all, the greatest care should be taken not to make the labourer contract a life of idleness; relief should not be given, unless on conviction that the distress is real; and that it is impossible to obtain work to satisfy it; the individual must be required to preserve the desire for work, and to exercise every effort to procure it. The kind of relief is not a matter of indifference, and should be restricted to the distribution in kind of those articles which may satisfy the wants of the party; these are, bread, soup, clothing, fuel, medicines.

"It is recommended that those only may be admitted into hospitals who cannot receive the necessary care at their own houses; whenever the sick person can be taken care of in his own house, with the assistance of the sisters of the various charitable orders, every assistance which the medical art, the skill of the physician, medicine, and necessary diet, can give, should be liberally afforded: this kind of relief, administered at the homes of the sick, offers great advantages on the score of economy; for where the head of a family is sick, the wife and children consider it a source of happiness to be relieved from a part of the expense; if to this be added the consolation which fathers and mothers experience when they can be attended in their own beds by the hands of their own children, it will be readily admitted, that none should be admitted into hospitals but those beings who are so miserable as to possess neither fire-side, nor home, nor relations.

"Another claim to relief is that of the aged man, who has almost reached the term of his existence, who sees all his support fall from him, and finds his slender resources and the means of subsistence by the work of his hands, vanish with the loss of his strength; society has no right to reject the remains of a life which has been useful to it.

"Those men who are called to the office of guardians of the poor, ought to feel the high responsibility of the duty confided to them; they should omit no endeavour to succour the miserable, to alleviate their sufferings, to diminish their misfortunes, by exciting, both by example and a faithful discharge of their duty, the charity of their fellow-citizens.

"I feel persuaded that the care which a wise administration may take, to allow none to participate in public relief but those who have a positive right to it, will reduce by more than half the number of applicants, and will thus enable society to succour the really necessitous. I am convinced that the administration which exercises a wise intelligence, which proportions relief to real want, according to the circumstances and position of life of the indigent claimants, will produce greater effect and relieve a far greater number of the distressed, than those indiscriminate charities, scattered without judgment, which, seeking to include all, rarely satisfy the most urgent claims.

Conclusion.—"To give to all indiscriminately, would be to endow the profession of the beggar; to give to the necessitous alone is to discharge a chief duty towards humanity, is to pay the debt of society: to carry consolation into the bosom of families, there to distribute the relief which benevolence offers, is the perfection of public charity. I invite you, therefore, to let these principles sink deeply into your minds, to make them the rule of your conduct. You will find, in a severe organization of public relief, sufficient funds to provide for real want; you will bring back to the home of the indigent that private charity which a bad administration has driven from it; you will restore to labour the man who has refused it; you will destroy the vices which spring from idleness and dissimulation. This, if I mistake not, is a subject worthy of all your solicitude, and I invite you, in the name of humanity, in the name of public morals, in the name of your country, so to discharge your duties as to leave behind you nothing but blessings."

THE following instances of particular towns are offered in illustration of the Expense and general effects of the System.

Valognes;—Departement de la Manche.

Population 7,000.

The hospital was originally founded by the legacies and gifts of pious individuals, and now occupies the site of a dissolved convent, which is a spacious building, with a small farm attached. This is considered one of the best managed hospitals in the department; a gentleman of property undertakes the office of steward. Besides the property belonging to the hospital, the town allows annually, from the receipts of the octroi, the following sums on an average:

To the funds of the hospital	-	-	-	-	-	10,000 francs
For linen given to the poor	-	-	-	-	-	400
Bureau de Charité	-	-	-	-	-	3,000
Attelier de Charité	-	-	-	-	-	4,000
Proportion of the charge of foundlings	-	-	-	-	-	8,000

Appendix (F.)

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At the charitable workshop women and children are employed in making lace, which gives considerable profit; it is superintended by Sisters of Charity. Some aged men are employed on the highways and other public works. The total number of inmates in the hospital, including seven Sisters of Charity, who conduct the whole management under the superintendence of the board of directors, amount to 158. The able-bodied are never taken into the hospital; but when families are very large, one or more children are received there; they are employed in spinning, sewing, lace-making, &c.; the men are employed in the cultivation of the farm, which produces milk, vegetables, cider, and a little corn for the consumption of the house. The food is excellent in quality, and the diet proportioned to the age and infirmities of the inmates. The whole expense of the establishment, including repairs and salaries, amounts to about 4*d.* a head per day; the diet alone to 2*d.* The whole expense of the hospital to 42,000*fr.*, of which the portions belonging to foundlings and sick soldiers, are repaid by the government and the department. It is a general rule at the bureau de charité, that relief shall be given in kind, according to the proverb "le pain se mange, l'argent se boit."

Cherbourg.

Contains 17,066 inhabitants.

Thirty ladies of the first consideration in the town have formed themselves into an association for examining the state of the poor at their own houses, and giving information to the authorities of their wants. The atelier de charité was formed by a company, the members of which have received back the whole capital of their shares by the profit on the manufacture of lace. Men out of work are sometimes employed at the public works of the town, at a less rate of wages than those employed by individuals. At the period of general stagnation of business in the year 1831, a loan of 80,000*fr.* was raised for the completion of certain improvements of urgent importance to the town; half of this was given by the government.

The introduction to the regulations of the bureau de bienfaisance, contains such important observations on public charity, that I am induced to insert the following extracts:

RÈGLEMENT du Bureau de Bienfaisance de Cherbourg.

INTRODUCTION au Règlement du Bureau de Bienfaisance.

UN règlement devenait nécessaire pour guider les membres du bureau dans l'exercice souvent difficile de leurs fonctions, pour éclairer les Dames de Charité et généralement toutes les personnes qui s'occupent des pauvres, sur les conditions exigées pour les secours et sur les demandes à faire pour les obtenir.

Le bureau, en établissant des conditions plus sévères que celles qui existent aujourd'hui, a rempli à regret un devoir rigoureux.

Deux motifs l'ont particulièrement dirigé.

Le premier consiste dans l'insuffisance des revenus qui sont stationnaires, comparativement aux besoins, qui semblent aller toujours croissans. C'est là un obstacle matériel qui s'oppose à une extension indéfinie des secours publics et qui fixe naturellement une limite qu'on ne peut franchir.

Le second motif résulte des principes mêmes qui doivent présider à l'administration de la charité publique et qui s'étendent jusqu'à la charité privée. Peut-être ne sera-t-il pas inutile d'en présenter ici un court exposé.

Le premier de ces principes est que l'homme n'a droit aux secours de ses semblables qu'autant qu'il a employé toutes ses forces physiques et morales à s'aider lui-même. Le devoir de l'administration est donc d'abord de lui procurer les moyens de suffire à ses propres besoins. Quand cette ressource sera insuffisante, alors, seulement, il pourra réclamer des secours. Parmi ces moyens l'instruction devra être placée en première ligne.

L'instruction est le plus précieux des secours parcequ'il apprend aux pauvres à se passer de tous les autres.

Les Dames de Charité devront donc veiller à ce que les enfans soient instruits de leurs devoirs religieux et qu'ils fréquentent les écoles publiques établies pour eux. Les parens qui ne voudraient pas se soumettre à cette condition ne recevront du bureau aucun secours. Les enfans qui résisteraient aux injonctions de leurs parens à ce sujet ne seront point admis dans les ateliers de charité, et par la suite, la préférence sera toujours accordée à ceux qui auront profité de ce bienfait, autant qu'il était en eux.

Après l'instruction vient le travail. On ne doit point demander des secours pour celui qui peut travailler. Il faut lui chercher de l'ouvrage: c'est le meilleur service qu'on puisse lui rendre, ainsi qu'à la société; autrement on favorisera sa paresse et bientôt il considérera comme une dette, exigible jusqu'à la fin de ses jours, ce qu'il ne doit qu'à la générosité publique.

Ici, nous ne pouvons nous dissimuler qu'il se présente plusieurs difficultés, quelquefois graves dans la pratique, et c'est là particulièrement que devra s'exercer toute l'attention des Dames de Charité et des personnes qui veulent que leurs bienfaits soient placés à propos.

On ne trouve pas toujours du travail; les pauvres, arrêtés par leur indolence, font peu ou point d'efforts pour s'en procurer; d'autres feignent un état de santé qui leur interdit une occupation pénible ou des soins de ménage qui les en détournent.

C'est aux personnes charitables à s'assurer par elles-mêmes de l'état des pauvres, à s'enquérir pour eux des ateliers où ils pourraient trouver place, des maîtres-ouvriers qui voudraient recevoir des enfans en apprentissage et à les forcer d'y entrer, sous peine de perdre tous droits à leurs charités particulières et aux secours publics qu'ils pourraient réclamer par la suite en cas de maladie.

Nous ne pouvons trop recommander le placement des enfans en apprentissage, c'est le moyen le plus fécond en heureux résultats pour leur avenir. Par là on les accoutume de bonne heure au travail, on leur apprend un état et tel d'entr'eux qui joint à d'heureuses dispositions un commencement d'instruction, devra peut-être, à la charité éclairée, une carrière sinon brillante, au moins heureuse et exempte des misères auxquelles il semblait d'abord destiné.

Que

Que les personnes riches emploient dont ce moyen pour placer utilement leurs bienfaits, que celles dont la fortune est plus restreinte se réunissent et se chargent ensemble d'un ou de plusieurs enfans ; cette charité vaut mieux que bien des aumônes arrachées souvent à l'importunité ou à une aveugle commisération.

Le travail ne procure à l'homme qu'un secours momentané : l'économie seule peut lui assurer une ressource pour l'avenir. Combien d'ouvriers dépensent, à boire et à d'autres mauvais usages, l'excédant dont ils peuvent disposer, quelquefois même la portion de salaire indispensable au besoin de leur famille. Que cette dernière partie reçoive sa destination, elle est sacrée ; mais que la première soit mise en réserve pour des jours plus malheureux, pour la vieillesse si, jusque-là, ils n'éprouvent pas de besoins extraordinaires. Un moyen facile sera bientôt offert à l'ouvrier laborieux : une caisse d'épargnes va être ouverte, où il pourra déposer jusqu'à ses plus petites économies, où elles s'augmenteront chaque année par l'addition des intérêts, où il trouvera toujours une ressource prête en face des accidens qui peuvent suspendre ou arrêter définitivement ses moyens d'existence. Ce serait pour les bienfaiteurs du pauvre une belle tâche à remplir que de contrôler sa dépense et de l'abaisser au niveau de ses besoins le plus rigoureux, pour le forcer à faire chaque semaine ou chaque mois un petit placement. Ce serait une condition utile à mettre aux services qu'on peut lui rendre, aux secours que plus tard il peut être dans la nécessité de réclamer ; que tout secours soient refusés à l'homme connu pour avoir été à même d'économiser et qui ne se présenterait pas avec un livret constatant qu'il a effectué des dépôts à la caisse d'épargnes.

L'instruction, le travail et l'économie, nous le répétons, tels sont pour le pauvre les moyens les plus sûrs d'améliorer son sort : faisons en sorte de les lui procurer de préférence à tous les autres. La charité qui prévoit et travaille pour l'avenir offre tout avantage ; celle qui ne donne qu'une assistance passagère présente, à côté de ses résultats utiles, d'assez graves inconvéniens qu'il importe de signaler ici.

Il est d'abord impossible de faire l'aumône avec une parfaite connaissance de cause. Une juste répartition des secours publics est très-difficile, pour ne pas dire impossible. Quand les Dames de Charité auraient le tems et la volonté de faire tout ce qui leur est recommandé, elles ne pourraient éviter d'être trompées quelquefois et de faire accorder des secours à celui qui n'a pas de besoin réel, au préjudice d'un autre plus misérable.

Ceci n'est que le moindre inconvénient.

L'organisation régulière d'un système de secours, leur abondance, leur périodicité, peuvent être nuisibles, en ce qu'ils accoutument le pauvre à l'idée qu'il trouvera toujours des ressources dans sa vieillesse et en cas de maladie, idée qui l'entretient dans ses dispositions nonchalantes et l'empêche quelquefois de se livrer au travail avec ardeur. Cette organisation ne pouvant avoir lieu que dans les villes, elle a pour résultat d'attirer tous les indigens vers un centre commun. Ils abandonnent quelquefois une contrée qui pourrait leur procurer du travail pour venir dans une autre où ce moyen devient impraticable en raison du grand nombre de ceux qui le réclament. Ils végéteront, avec l'aide de la charité privée, en attendant le moment où ils rempliront les conditions attachées à la distribution des secours publics.

C'est là ce qui est arrivé à Cherbourg depuis que l'administration municipale a consacré une somme plus forte aux dépenses du bureau de charité. Il est urgent d'arrêter ces effets fâcheux. Le premier moyen est de tenir sévèrement à ce qu'on n'accorde de secours qu'aux indigens qui ont le tems de domicile fixé par la loi. Le règlement a été plus loin ; il a prévu que les ressources pourraient devenir insuffisantes même pour ceux qui remplissent cette condition, et il s'est réservé d'étendre le tems exigé jusqu'à la limite qui sera plus tard tracée par la nécessité elle-même.

Les autres moyens consistent dans la sévérité qui doit présider aux admissions, et c'est ici que nous nous adressons particulièrement aux Dames de Charité. Nous ne prétendons pas leur imposer des obligations absolues, mais seulement leur indiquer ce qui est bon à faire, et ce que chacune d'elles fera en raison de ses forces et du tems qu'elle pourra consacrer à cette œuvre pieuse.

Pénétrées de la vérité et de l'importance des principes que nous venons d'exposer, les Dames de Charité s'assureront par elles-mêmes de la situation présente des pauvres au moyen de visites fréquentes et inattendues ; elles requerront, comme garantie de leur conduite passée, le témoignage de leurs voisins ou d'autres personnes qui les connaissent depuis longtems ; si ces pauvres sont étrangers et habitent la ville depuis peu d'années, les Dames s'adresseront au maire qui obtiendra par correspondance les renseignemens désirés.

Par l'ensemble de ces renseignemens la Dame de Charité jugera si l'indigent qui réclame satisfait aux conditions générales exprimées dans la première partie de cet exposé. Elle saura s'il a été à même de recevoir les premiers élémens de l'instruction et s'il en a profité, s'il envoie ses enfans à l'école, s'il peut se livrer, lui et les siens, à quelque travail, si, enfin son état de misère ne vient pas du défaut d'ordre et d'économie.

Cette première information faite, la Dame de Charité aura ensuite à examiner si l'indigent remplit les conditions spéciales indiquées par le règlement ; c'est seulement quand elle aura acquis cette certitude qu'elle adressera sa demande aux membres du bureau. Ceux-ci s'empresseront d'y faire droit aussitôt que les ressources le permettront. Ils se verront à regret forcés de prononcer un refus quand la demande ne sera pas suffisamment motivée. Ils ajourneront jusqu'à la première vacance, si le maximum des secours qu'ils peuvent accorder est atteint.

Afin de mettre le bureau bien à même de juger les droits des réclamans qui ne sont pas encore inscrits, les Dames de Charité devront faire leur demande au moyen d'un bulletin exactement rempli.

Loi du 15 Octobre 1793.

Article 1.^{er} Le domicile de secours est le lieu où l'homme nécessiteux a droit aux secours publics.

Art. 2. Le lieu de la naissance est le lieu naturel du domicile de secours.

Art. 3. Le lieu de la naissance pour les enfans est le domicile habituel de la mère au moment où ils sont nés.

Art. 4. Pour acquérir le domicile de secours, il faut un séjour d'un an dans une commune.

Art. 5. Le séjour ne comptera, pour l'avenir, que du jour de l'inscription au greffe de la municipalité.

Art. 6. La municipalité pourra refuser le domicile de secours si le domicilié n'est pas pourvu d'un passeport et certificat qui constatent qu'il n'est point homme sans aveu.

Art. 7. Jusqu'à l'âge de 21 ans tout citoyen pourra réclamer, sans formalité, le droit de domicile de secours, dans le lieu de sa naissance.

P. L. (F.)

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Art. 8.

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Art. 8. Après l'âge de 21 ans, il sera astreint à un séjour de six mois, avant d'obtenir le droit de domicile et à se conformer aux formes prescrites aux articles 4, 5, et 6.

Art. 9. Celui qui quittera son domicile pour en acquérir un second sera tenu aux mêmes formalités que pour le premier.

Art. 10. Il en sera de même pour celui qui, après avoir quitté un domicile, voudra y revenir.

Art. 11. Nul ne pourra exercer en même temps dans deux communes le droit de domicile de secours.

Art. 12. On sera censé conserver son dernier domicile tant que le délai exigé pour le nouveau ne sera pas echu, pourvu qu'on ait été exact à se faire inscrire au greffe de la nouvelle municipalité.

Art. 13. Ceux qui se marieront dans une commune et qui l'habiteront pendant six mois, acquerront le droit de domicile de secours.

Art. 14. Ceux qui auront resté deux ans dans la même commune en louant leurs services à un ou plusieurs particuliers, obtiendront le même droit.

Art. 15. Tout soldat qui aura combattu un tems quelconque avec des certificats honorables, jouira de suite du droit de domicile de secours dans le lieu où il voudra se fixer.

Art. 16. Tout vieillard âgé de 70 ans, sans avoir acquis de domicile ou reconnu infirme avant cette époque, recevra le secours de stricte nécessité dans l'hospice le plus voisin.

Art. 17. Celui qui, dans l'intervalle du délai prescrit pour acquérir de secours, se trouvera, par quelque infirmité, suite de son travail, hors d'état de gagner sa vie, sera reçu à tout âge dans l'hospice le plus voisin.

Art. 18. Tout malade, domicilié de droit ou non, qui sera sans ressources, sera secouru ou à son domicile de fait ou dans l'hospice le plus voisin.

Havre.

Population 28,000; of which number not less than 5,000 receive occasional relief. There is a large hospital containing 600 inmates, the total expense of which in the year 1833 was nearly 216,800 francs. In this hospice are received the sick and indigent, and children of very large families; the latter receive instruction till they can be apprenticed with farmers and artisans, the master having the benefit of their labour till the age of 20. Picking oakum for the supply of the shipping furnishes employment. In the hospice wool is spun and sent into the country to be manufactured. Eighteen ladies have formed a committee for the purpose of collecting alms, and examining personally the condition of the poor at their own houses. The bureau de bienfaisance is managed by six sœurs de la miséricorde, who give instruction to 550 female children, and employ them in sewing, knitting and embroidery. All articles of dress distributed to the poor of Havre are made up here; this has the double advantage of economy and useful occupation of the children. When application is made by a poor person, the family is visited by one of the sisters, a registration is made of the settlement, character, occupation, wages, and number of children, and unless in case of sickness or infirmity, relief is not given to families of less than four children.

Caen.

THERE are several excellent establishments for the poor in this city. The ancient Abbaye aux Dames, founded by Matilda, the wife of William the Conqueror, has been converted into a hospital for the diseased, but being entirely confined to that purpose, I do not enter into the details, as they are of a medical nature. The Hospital of St. Louis was originally founded for the reception of the aged, infirm, and children; it is supported at the expense of the town, except the foundlings, who are a charge on the department. When there is room, some of the children of those families which are so numerous as to be beyond the power of the parents to support, are received here. This establishment was built expressly for the purpose to which it is now destined; it is superintended by the religious order, Sœurs de St. Louis. The cleanliness and general arrangement are admirable; there are 600 inmates. Every article used in the house is manufactured in it, and any supply beyond what is wanted is sold; the children are instructed in spinning and weaving, and various trades; the aged are assembled in large halls, and employed in knitting and other works not beyond their strength; and this moderate employment in society seems to be far more conducive to their happiness than the listlessness of want of occupation. Baking of bread is carried on for the supply of the other hospitals. There is a spacious garden.

Another institution, one of the most remarkable of its kind in Europe, is the Bon Sauveur, a religious society of females, who devote themselves to the care of the insane, and of the deaf and dumb, and to the instruction of the young; but their vow is particularly dedicated to the care of the insane: about 100 sisters give themselves up to this painful duty, with a devotion and tenderness truly admirable; this is their principal establishment, and sisters are sent from hence to other parts of France. The females are entirely under their care; the males are attended by servants under the direction of the sisters, and the medical orders of the physician, who attends every day. Different classes of patients are received here; some are kept by the town and the department, at an expense of 600 frs. per annum each patient, which is found much more economical than to found a lunatic asylum; others pay according to their means and the accommodation they receive; some as much as 300 l. per annum, the profits from which form a fund for the charitable purposes of the society.

The Abbé Jamet, the director of this institution, has devoted his life to it, and has been particularly successful in his instruction of the deaf and dumb; many of the pupils are of the poorer classes, and received gratis. The success of his labours, in bringing the institution to its present state of importance from very small beginnings, (for the property of this order was confiscated during the Revolution,) is astonishing. The buildings are extensive and solid, the garden contains 16 acres, and I was particularly struck with the beauty and utility of the spacious well-aired corridors. The property of the order is now considered to exceed two millions of francs, arising from the subscriptions of pious and charitable persons, (among

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(among whom the Duchess d'Angoulême was conspicuous,) the payments of rich patients *, and the rents of their landed property.

This institution likewise contains a house of education for young ladies, superintended by some of the sisters; a school for the poor female children of the neighbourhood, received gratuitously, and a large hall for the temporary admission and care of persons suffering from sudden sickness and accidents, till they can be admitted at the hospital, which is at the farthest extremity of this large city.

The population of Caen is about 40,000, of whom from 6 to 7,000 receive occasional relief; the sums voted by the town are as follows †:

The able-bodied, when out of employ, are set to work to sweep the streets and repair the roads, at an annual expense of about 30,000 francs. The fund applied by public charity is not sufficient for the applicants; private charity is liberally afforded, and prevents total destitution; still I was informed, by an able and active administrator of this town, who is a considerable landed proprietor, that in the rural districts in the vicinity, from the want of any organized relief and superintendence of the poor, mendicancy prevails to a frightful extent; and that the farmers feel themselves obliged to give numerous alms, from fear of injury to their property by incendiarism and acts of plunder.

Beaulieu.

AMONG the excellent establishments of Caen, one of the most remarkable is the Maison Centrale de Détention at Beaulieu. This is one of the 18 improved prisons, or houses of correction, founded during the empire, each for the use of several departments in various parts of France. It is of solid and appropriate architecture, and capable of containing 1,600 persons; there are now 800. The persons sent there are those condemned to confinement for a period exceeding a year; among them are many whose punishment has been commuted to long imprisonment, being convicted of crimes the penalty of which was death; incendiaries, robbers, some of whom are persons suspected of murder.

It is difficult to determine, on a cursory examination of this prison, whether its extraordinary state of moral discipline depends on the system, or whether it is owing to the enlightened administration, firmness and talent of the individual now at its head, M. Diey, a retired naval officer; but if the former, and it be capable of general application, the establishment of Beaulieu will form a new epoch in prison discipline. The general appearance of the place is that of a large workshop, in which various branches of manufacture are carried on, and it is difficult for a stranger not to forget he is in a prison. There are neither irons on the prisoners, nor bars to the windows, except to those cells in which such of the prisoners as have been guilty of violence or insubordination perform their work in solitude; but even these are allowed to mix with their fellow-prisoners at meal times and hours of exercise; from observation that constant solitude nourishes a savage temper of mind.

M. Diey treats all his prisoners as reasonable beings, capable of understanding that their punishment is inevitable, and that resistance would only cause an increase of it; he has found it possible to dismiss all the fetters which he found on his arrival, and by firm and just conduct, to establish a moral control over even the worst; on the occasion of the King's visit to Caen, he requested from the royal clemency the liberation of 16 prisoners, and appealed to the rest for the justice of his selection. He has had the satisfaction of finding that many persons having learnt a trade during the time of their seclusion, have since become honest and useful members of society.

But perhaps a still more extraordinary circumstance in this establishment is the profit derived from the labour of the prisoners. They are employed at various manufactures and trades, by the contractor of the prison, who finds them materials and tools, and all the furniture of the house, and makes arrangements with various artizans in the neighbourhood; they are paid at the price fixed by the Chamber of Commerce; one-third of their earnings is given to themselves, one-third reserved for them till they leave the prison, and the other third is the perquisite of the contractor, who also receives 41 centimes, or about 4 *d.* per day, from the government for each prisoner's food, clothing, &c. The addition of salaries to the officers makes the charge of each prisoner to the government about 5 *d.* per day; but in the year 1819, the sums in reserve for the prisoners were placed in the funds, and suffered to accumulate at compound interest for the benefit of the institution till wanted. The sum first placed by the whole of the Maisons Centrales was 125,000 francs; it is now risen to nearly 3,000,000, of which more than half belongs to these houses, so that the period is looked forward to when they may become able to defray their own expenses, without any assistance from the government.

I beg to refer to the letter with which I was favoured from M. Diey, for further details of this admirable institution.

* The institution having so high a reputation for the successful treatment of insanity, members of the highest families become inmates.

† Partie contributive de la ville dans la dépense des enfans trouvés	-	-	10,984
Souscriptions aux hospices	-	-	98,800
Bureau de bienfaisance	-	-	14,000
Atelier de charité	-	-	12,000
Pensions des aliénés au Bon Sauveur	-	-	10,000
Secour d'anciens employés	-	-	1,000

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Maison Centrale de Détention de Beaulieu ; Caen, le 20 Novembre 1833.

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Monsieur,

LA révolution de 1789 avoit, comme vous le savez, pour but de faire succéder le régime des lois à celui du pouvoir absolu; l'assemblée constituante a jeté les bases d'un nouveau système de gouvernement, qui abolissoit tous les privilèges, et qui rendoit tous les Français égaux devant la loi. Un ordre de choses si différent de celui qui avoit existé jusque là, devoit blesser bien des intérêts; aussi, y eut il une forte opposition de la part de tous les privilégiés, qui préféreroient compromettre un bon roi, l'exposer à la haine et à la vengeance de son peuple, plutôt que d'abandonner leurs prétentions. Cette funeste catastrophe a été suivie de l'anarchie la plus affreuse, de la terreur, de la république sous plusieurs formes, et enfin de l'empire. Mais au milieu de toutes ces calamités, les principes du gouvernement constitutionnel avoient été connus, on commençoit à voir les choses avant les hommes, la nation étoit arrivée à la connoissance de ses droits, et si quelquefois on fesoit un pas retrograde dans la voie des institutions libérales, une crise survenoit qui fesoit regagner le terrain que l'on avoit perdu. Un astre brillant a paru; tant qu'il est resté dans toute sa splendeur, il a ébloui tous les yeux; on marchait bien encore d'après la loi, mais cette loi, c'est lui qui la fesoit. La nation supportoit ce despotisme parcequ'il l'environnoit de gloire, qu'il flattoit son amour propre, et surtout parceque le premier principe étoit respecté: toutes les capacités se fesoient jour, tous les hommes parvenoient par le mérite, enfin le principe de l'égalité subsistoit toujours. C'est sous le regne de cet homme extraordinaire que nos codes ont pris naissance; et qu'un système barbare n'a plus servi de base pour la garantie des personnes et des propriétés. Quoique ces codes aient éprouvés des modifications, et soient sans doute destinés à en recevoir de nouvelles, ils n'en ont pas moins été considérés comme des chefs d'œuvre de législation, et ils étoient une conséquence naturelle des efforts qu'avoit fait la France pour établir le principe de l'ordre légal, but de notre première révolution.

Mais avec des nouvelles lois pénales plus sages et plus humaines nous conservions toujours nos vieux donjons, et tous les cloaques malsains, dans lesquels les prisonniers se trouvaient entassés presque nus, privés d'air, en proie à tous les besoins, rongés de vermine, et livrés à cette affreuse oisiveté qui dégrade l'homme autant qu'elle le corrompt. Des philanthropes Français et étrangers livraient tous les jours au public leurs réflexions sur l'état déplorable de nos prisons; on demandait des améliorations, dans les locaux, dans le régime, et un système pénitencier.

Napoleon, à qui nous devons nos codes, quoique si préoccupé de ses interminables guerres, voulut encore operer cette réforme si ardemment réclamée. Ce fut pendant son voyage en Espagne, en 1808 ou 1809, que son ministre de l'intérieur, M. de Montalivet, lui présenta un travail sur la creation de plusieurs grandes prisons, reparties dans différens departemens de manière à recevoir chacune, les condamnés à un an ou plus d'emprisonnement, et à la reclusion, de trois et quatre departemens selon l'étendue de la prison, qui, à cause de cette destination, devait être désignée sous le nom de maison centrale. C'est peu de temps avant cette époque que l'on organisa en France plusieurs dépôts de mendicité pour renfermer les mendiants valides ou vagabonds, jusqu'à ce qu'ils sachent un état, moyen efficace de détruire la mendicité. C'est pour n'avoir pas compris la pensée de l'homme qui avait fondé ces établissemens qu'un ministre de la restauration les a détruits. On s'étoit écarté du principe de leur organisation; au lieu de maisons de travail, les dépôts n'étoient plus que des hôpitaux de vieillards et d'infirmités, ils servoient de retraite aux protégés des hommes du jour. La dépense parut alors sans objet; les conseils généraux se plaignirent, demandèrent leur suppression, et elle fut prononcée sans avoir recherché le travail du ministre createur. Vous comprenez, monsieur, combien, avec nos bureaux de charité, ces maisons de travail nous donnaient de moyens de pourvoir aux besoins de tous nos indigens, et de détruire la mendicité, vraie honte d'un état civilisé. Un dépôt dans chaque département renfermait tous nos indigens valides, leur procurait des états, et des ressources pour l'avenir: nos bureaux de charité n'avaient plus à s'occuper que des vieillards et des infirmes, tous hors d'état de travailler.

Je reviens aux maisons centrales. L'empereur adopta les propositions du ministre, et institua ces nouvelles prisons, par un décret daté de Bayonne. Je n'ai jamais vu le travail de M. de Montalivet, mais je sais par un chef de bureau, M. de Musset Patny, qui étoit chargé d'en suivre l'exécution, qu'il entroit dans des considérations pleines d'intérêt.

On devoit choisir pour fonder ces établissemens, et c'est ce qui a eu lieu, d'anciennes abbayes, de grands châteaux abandonnés, et d'autres bâtimens sans destination, qui étoient devenus la propriété de l'état. Quatorze ou quinze maisons centrales furent décrétées de suite, et on donna des ordres pour leur appropriation.

Les prisonniers qui jusqu'alors avoient été privés de soupe, de viande, de vêtemens, de linge et de lits, devoient trouver tous ces adoucissemens à leur sort dans les maisons centrales, où le travail étoit aussi un des plus grands bienfaits de leur destination.

Le soin des prisonniers dans ces établissemens ne devoit plus être confié à un géolier; une administration, composée de plusieurs officiers, et d'un nombre de gardiens choisis parmi d'anciens militaires, devoit avoir cette charge.

Ces dispositions ont été exécutées, et toutes les fournitures de chaque maison centrale, ainsi que l'obligation de faire travailler les prisonniers, ont été données à l'entreprise, moyennant un prix de journée, qui varioit de 40 à 45 centimes. Outre ces 40 à 45 centimes par jour et par prisonnier, payés par le gouvernement à l'entrepreneur, il a encore droit au tiers du produit du travail des prisonniers.

Ainsi: le service de la maison de Beaulieu est adjudgé à l'entrepreneur pour 21 centimes, par jour et par prisonnier, plus le tiers de 80 à 100 mille francs, montant du produit de la main d'œuvre par an. A ces conditions l'entrepreneur donne à chaque prisonnier deux fois de la soupe par jour, dans laquelle il entre 80 lbs. de légumes par 100 individus, 29 onces de pain, de la viande tous les Jeudis et les jours de fêtes, un habillement complet d'hiver en étoffe de laine, un d'été en coutil; il leur donne, tous les Dimanches, une chemise blanche, une cravate, un mouchoir de poche, et un bonnet. Le lit est composé d'une petite couchette à fond sanglé, d'un matelas contenant 14 lbs. de laine, d'une paire de draps changés tous les mois, d'une couverture et d'un couvre-pied en hiver. L'entrepreneur est en outre chargé du traitement des malades, du chauffage et de l'éclairage de la maison, de la nourriture des gardiens, et des réparations locatives; enfin il ne reste à la charge du gouvernement, après avoir payé 41 centimes par jour et par prisonnier, que le traitement des employés, ce qui porte la dépense générale à environ 50 centimes par prisonnier. L'entrepreneur est obligé d'introduire dans la maison centrale, dont il est adjudicateur, le plus grand nombre d'industries possible, afin que les prisonniers, ayant une assez grande variété de métiers à leur choix, puissent en prendre un selon leur goût, les localités qu'ils habitent,

habitent, et leur aptitude. Il a la faculté de traiter avec des manufacturiers, en sorte que chaque genre d'industrie a son propriétaire. Ces fabricans choisissent les ateliers qui leur conviennent, le nombre de prisonniers qui leur est nécessaire, and la Chambre de Commerce fixe les prix de façon ou main d'œuvre qu'ils doivent payer aux détenus. C'est cette main d'œuvre qui produit à Beaulieu une somme d'environ 80 à 100 mille francs par an, laquelle est divisée par tiers égaux : un tiers est payé tous les Dimanches aux prisonniers, un second tiers est mis en réserve pour l'époque de leur libération, et le troisième est abandonné à l'entrepreneur. Ainsi si un prisonnier gagne 60 centimes pour son travail d'un jour, cette somme est payée par le fabricant qui l'occupe. Vingt centimes sont remis au prisonnier, 20 sont mis en réserve, et les 20 autres sont donnés à l'entrepreneur.

Les 20 centimes mis en réserve, sont placés sur l'état, en achat de rentes 5 p' 100. Les intérêts comptent au profit des maisons centrales, et non à celui des condamnés. On ajoute à ce fonds toutes les sommes laissées par les prisonniers qui meurent avant l'expiration de leur peine. Le système a été établi dans la vue de former un fonds d'amortissement de la dépense des condamnés renfermés dans les maisons centrales, et quoique l'époque puisse en paroître encore très éloignée, on ne peut s'empêcher d'être étonné et plein d'espérance lorsque l'on connaît sa progression; c'est en 1819 que cette mesure a été prise, et que les premières inscriptions ont été achetées; les 18 maisons centrales possédaient alors entre elles 125 mille francs, qui formaient le tiers de réserve des prisonniers; aujourd'hui ce fonds approche de trois millions de francs, et les établissemens sont devenus propriétaires de plus de la moitié de cette somme. Il est facile de concevoir la rapidité de la progression, en remarquant que les intérêts que l'on ajoute à présent au capital, s'élèvent à plus de 160 mille francs, somme plus forte que le capital de 125 mille francs qui a servi de première suite en 1819. On ajoute encore à ces intérêts l'excédant des recoltes sur les dépenses. Ces recoltes se composent du tiers mis en réserve, qui à Beaulieu s'élève à la somme de 25 à 30 mille francs par an; la dépense consiste dans ce qui est payé aux prisonniers libérés dans le cours de l'année, et qui s'élève à la somme de 15 à 20 mille francs.

L'entrepreneur et les fabricans fournissent tous les métiers, utensiles et matières nécessaires à la fabrication; le gouvernement ne possède aucun mobilier dans les maisons centrales.

Je n'entrerai pas, Monsieur, dans des détails trop minutieux sur la discipline de la maison; je vous répéterai seulement ce qui je vous ai dit de vive voix, que les seuls moyens de correction se bornent à la réclusion solitaire dans les cellules que vous avez vues, et qui sont divisées en deux petites pièces, une pour coucher et l'autre pour travailler. Il n'existe aucune espèce de fers dans la maison. Quant au succès de cette discipline, je m'en rapporte à vos impressions, on la trouve suffisante quand on a vu cette population si laborieuse, si calme et si soumise, quoique dans une maison encore en construction, à peine close, et de laquelle on a fait disparaître toutes les grilles, sans que pour cela la sûreté soit compromise.

Une chose peut et doit frapper l'observateur en visitant cet établissement, c'est que ces hommes qui dans la société avoient pris l'aspect sauvage et farouche, que leur avoit donné l'habitude du crime, se sont adoucis et comme apprivoisés (tamed) par les nouvelles habitudes qu'on leur fait contracter. Ces physionomies naguères si repoussantes, ont repris du calme et presque le repos d'une ame tranquille et satisfaite. Ce n'est pas avec la contrainte que donne la terreur, la crainte des châtimens qu'ils approchent de leurs chefs; c'est avec une confiance respectueuse. On ne peut guères se flatter de ranimer à des sentimens honnêtes et religieux des hommes qui ont vécu un grand nombre d'années dans le crime, qui n'ont pas été seulement privés d'une bonne education, mais qui en ont reçu une mauvaise, motif pour les plaindre, s'intéresser à eux, même au milieu de leur désordres, de leurs crimes, et de ne pas les abandonner. Ce seroit une chimère. Tout ce que l'on peut espérer, c'est que le régime des prisons qui les renferment soit calculé de manière à empêcher une plus grande corruption, et à en sauver les hommes qu'une première faute, qu'une circonstance imprévue a rendu criminels. Eh bien! *plus de mille exemples d'hommes sortis de la prison de Beaulieu, et qui vivent en honnêtes gens, doivent rassurer sur ce point.* L'humanité doit être satisfaite, consolée par ces résultats; mais ne les eut on pas obtenus, il n'en faudroit pas moins reconnoître que les maisons centrales ont procuré des avantages matériels, incontestables, et qu'elles ont répondu sous ce rapport aux vœux de tous les philanthropes qui réclament une réforme des prisons.

Cette lettre est déjà si longue, Monsieur, que je n'ose pas la prolonger; mais si vous désirez de nouveaux détails, d'autres renseignemens, vous pouvez me les demander en toute confiance, je m'empreserai de vous les adresser.

Agréez, je vous prie, l'assurance de ma parfaite considération.

A Monsieur,
Monsieur Ashhurst Majendie.

Dicy.

P. S.—Je vous prie d'examiner les avantages que l'on pourroit retirer de maisons de travail, établies dans chaque département ou county, avec un système d'amortissement comme celui des maisons centrales. Il faudroit que les jeunes gens y restassent jusqu'à leur 18ème et même leur 20ème année. Lorsque la dépense de ces établissemens sera couverte par le revenu, le système n'en pourra pas moins être continué; quelle ressource pour fonder des hôpitaux, donner des secours aux prisonniers agés, après leur libération, sans qu'il ne coute à la société.

Paris.

Of the establishments for relief of the poor in the city of Paris I have no knowledge, except that derived from books. It is probable that useful information might be obtained by a minute examination of the detail of the management adopted for so large a population, subject to such vicissitude of fortune. Paris is divided into 12 arrondissemens, in each of which there is a bureau de bienfaisance, specially appointed according to the ordonnance of the year 1826, superintended by a committee of charitable individuals. The following rules, from that document, are of general application: "Relief shall be distributed in kind

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as much as possible; and above all, every endeavour should be made to obtain work for able-bodied poor, for which purpose the board should form communications with manufacturers or master artizans, to whom the indigent, when out of work, may be directed to apply, or by the establishment of charitable workshops.—It is impossible to provide altogether for the subsistence of an individual, and if he possesses the capability of working to gain his livelihood, it would be most injurious to enable him to dispense with the requisite exertion, by relief indiscreetly granted. The most useful, the most important course, is to prevent destitution, and the disorders which are either the cause or the consequence of it by accustoming children to labour, and procuring them a business.”

Of loans, it is said, “A sum of money proportioned to the necessity of the case, advanced at the moment of distress, may prevent or repair the ruin of a whole family, and save it from becoming a perpetual charge on the funds of public charity.”

In conclusion, I shall observe, that as far as my examination of a limited district may warrant my forming a judgment, the administration of relief in the towns in France is directed by enlightened and benevolent principles. It is admitted by many of the authorities that the fund of public charity is inadequate to the real wants of the applicants; but as far as the fund admits, it is applied to relieving distress, without encouraging pauperism. But I may venture to express an opinion, that there is a deficiency in France, from the want of an organized system of relief in the rural districts; that much distress exists, and in consequence mendicity to a great extent prevails; and that it appears very desirable to form a union of country parishes, so as to establish boards, similar to those now existing in towns.

Ashhurst Majendie.

DÉPARTEMENT

HOSPICE d

ARRONDISSEMENT

BUDGET DES RECETTES ET DES DÉPENSES DE L'EXERCICE 183

COMMUNE

POPULATION HABITUELLE.

				TOTAL.
				Francs.
Nombre de malades civils	-	-	donnant journées, à	
Nombre de malades militaires	-	-	donnant journées, à	
Nombre de vieillards	-	-	donnant journées, à	
Nombre des enfans de familles indigentes admis dans l'hospice	-	-	donnant journées, à	
Nombre d'enfans trouvés entretenus dans l'intérieur de l'hospice	-	-	donnant journées, à	
Nombre de nourrices sédentaires	-	-	donnant journées, à	
Nombre de sœurs hospitalières	-	-	donnant journées, à	
Nombre des préposés et servans attachés au service direct de santé, et nourris dans l'hospice	-	-	donnant journées, à	
Nombre des employés à divers services, nourris	-	-	donnant journées, à	
Nombre des personnes attachées au service de santé, non nourries (joindre le détail)	-	-	donnant journées, à	
Nombre des employés de l'administration, non nourris (joindre le détail)	-	-	donnant journées, à	
TOTAL				
Nombre des enfans trouvés, abandonnés et orphelins placés en nourrice ou en pension	-	-	donnant journées, à	
TOTAL GÉNÉRAL				
TOTAL de la Dépense générale présumée				

NATURE DES RECETTES.	SOMMES admises par le budget précédent.	SOMMES PROPOSÉES.		SOMMES admises par le Ministre.	Observations.
		Par l'administration.	Par le Préfet.		

TITRE I.er—RECETTES.

CHAPITRE I.er—RECETTES ORDINAIRES.

Art.							
1. ^{er} Loyers des maisons et terrains	-						
2. Fermage en argent des biens ruraux	-						
3. Coupes de bois réglées	-						
4. Rentes sur l'Etat	-						
5. Rentes sur particuliers	-						
6. Rentes sur communes	-						
7. Produits des domaines et jardins exploités directement par l'administration	-						
8. Intérêts des fonds placés au Mont-de-Piété	-						
9. Intérêts des fonds placés à la Caisse du Trésor	-						
10. Fonds alloués sur l'octroi	-						
11. Fonds alloués pour le service des enfans trouvés	-						
12. Pensions	-						
13. Journées de militaires	-						
14. Produit des droits sur les spectacles, bals, concerts	-						

NATURE DES RECETTES.	SOMMES admises par le Budget précédent.	SOMMES PROPOSÉES		SOMMES admises par le Ministre.	Observations.
		Par l'administration.	Par le Préfet.		
15. Produits de la pharmacie - - -					
16. Produit du travail de la maison - -					
17. Produit de la vente des effets des décédés					
18. Dons, aumônes et collectes - - -					
19. Amendes et confiscations - - -					
20. Recettes imprévues - - -					
21. Produit de la vente des denrées ou grains excédant les besoins de l'étab- lissement - - -					
22. - - -					
23. - - -					
24. - - -					
TOTAL du Chapitre I. ^{er} - -					

CHAPITRE II.—RECETTES EXTRAORDINAIRES.

Art.							
1 ^{er}	Excédant du Budget de 183 (Exercice clos) - - -						
2.	Coupes de bois extraordinaires - -						
3.	Legs et donations - - -						
4.	Rachats de rentes - - -						
5.	Ventes de terrains et maisons - -						
6.	Soultés d'échanges - - -						
7.	Remboursement de capitaux - - -						
8.	- - -						
9.	- - -						
10.	- - -						
	TOTAL du Chapitre II. - -						

CHAPITRE III.—REVENUS EN NATURE.

ARTICLE UNIQUE.—Montant des rentes, fermages ou autres produits en nature, détaillés dans le cahier ci-joint, et évalués en argent, suivant le prix moyen des mercuriales - - -							
TOTAL de Chapitre III. - -							

RÉCAPITULATION.

CHAP. I. ^{er} Recettes ordinaires - -							
CHAP. II. Recettes extraordinaires - -							
CHAP. III. Revenus en nature - -							
TOTAL GÉNÉRAL des Recettes - -							

NATURE DES DÉPENSES.	SOMMES allouées par le Budget précédent.	SOMMES PROPOSÉES		SOMMES accordées par le Ministre.	Observations.
		Par l'administration.	Par le Préfet.		

TITRE II.—DÉPENSES.

CHAPITRE I.^{er}—DÉPENSES ORDINAIRES.

Art.							
1 ^{er}	Traitemens des médecins et chirurgiens (joindre le détail) - -						
2.	Traitemens des employés de l'administration - - -						
3 ^e	Gages des préposés et servans - -						
4.	Réparations et entretien des bâtimens de l'hospice - - -						

(continued)

THE COMMISSIONERS ON THE POOR LAWS.

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NATURE DES DÉPENSES.	SOMMES allouées par le Budget précédent.	SOMMES PROPOSÉES				SOMMES accordées par le Ministre.	Observations.
		Par l'administration.		Par le Préfet.			
Art.							
5. Contributions de ces bâtimens - -	-						
6. Entretien du mobilier et ustensiles -	-						
7. Dépenses du coucher - - -	-						
8. Linge et habillement - - -	-						
9. Blé, farine, pain -	-						
10. Viande - - -	-						
11. Vin - - -	-						
12. Comestibles - - -	-						
13. Menus objets de consommation -	-						
14. Blanchissage - - - - -	-						
15. Chauffage - - - - -	-						
16. Eclairage - - - - -	-						
17. Dépenses de pharmacie, achats de médicaments - - - - -	-						
18. Pensions ou rentes à la charge de l'établissement - - - - -	-						
19. Entretien et menues réparations des propriétés - - - - -	-						
20. Contributions assises sur ces propriétés	-						
21. Dépenses des mois de nourrice et pensions des enfans trouvés - -	-						
22. Frais de layettes et vêtures - -	-						
23. Frais de bureau - - - - -	-						
24. Frais de procédure - - - - -	-						
25. Dépenses imprévues - - - - -	-						
26. - - - - -	-						
27. - - - - -	-						
28. - - - - -	-						
29. - - - - -	-						
30. - - - - -	-						
TOTAL du Chapitre I. ^{er} - -	-						

CHAPITRE II.—DÉPENSES EXTRAORDINAIRES.

Art.							
1 ^{er} Constructions et grosses réparations -							
2. Achats de terrains ou bâtimens - -							
3. - - - - -							
4. - - - - -							
TOTAL du Chapitre II. - -							

CHAPITRE III.—CONSOMMATION EN NATURE.

ARTICLE UNIQUE.—Montant des grains, denrées et autres produits recueillis en nature, consommés dans l'établissement, et évalués en argent, suivant le prix moyen des mercuriales, ainsi que le justifie la note de développement ci-annexée - - - - -							
TOTAL du Chapitre III. - -							

RÉCAPITULATION.

CHAP. I ^{er} . Dépenses ordinaires - -							
CHAP. II. Dépenses extraordinaires - -							
CHAP. III. Consommation en nature - -							
TOTAL GÉNÉRAL des Dépenses - -							

RÉCAPITULATION GÉNÉRALE.

							SUIVANT LES PROPOSITIONS				Suivant la Décision.	
							De l'administration.		Du Préfet.			
Recettes	-	-	-	-	-	-						
Dépenses	-	-	-	-	-	-						
Résultat	-	-	{ en Excédant		-	-						
			{ en Déficit		-	-						

Présenté par nous, Administrateur de l'Hospice d

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conformément aux

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Vu et arrêté par nous, Ministre secrétaire d'état au Département de l'Intérieur conformément aux sommes portées dans la troisième colonne.

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DÉVELOPPEMENT.

RECETTES EN NATURE.

NATURE DES RECETTES.	QUANTITÉ.	PRIX.	SOMMES.	OBSERVATIONS.
Blé - - - - -				
Orge - - - - -				
Avoine - - - - -				
Vin - - - - -				
Cidre - - - - -				
Foin - - - - -				
Paille - - - - -				
- - - - -				
- - - - -				
- - - - -				
- - - - -				
- - - - -				
- - - - -				
TOTAL des Recettes en nature -				

DÉPENSES EN NATURE.

NATURE DES CONSOMMATIONS.	QUANTITÉ.	PRIX.	SOMMES.	OBSERVATIONS.
Blé - - - - -				
Orge - - - - -				
Avoine - - - - -				
Vin - - - - -				
Cidre - - - - -				
Foin - - - - -				
Paille - - - - -				
- - - - -				
- - - - -				
- - - - -				
- - - - -				
- - - - -				
- - - - -				
TOTAL des Dépenses en nature -				

DÉPARTEMENT
DE LA SEINE-INFÉRIEURE.

Bureau de Bienfaisance de la Ville du Havre.

ARRONDISSEMENT

BUDGET des RECETTES et DÉPENSES
de l'Exercice 183

d

TITRE 1^{er}.—RECETTES.

NATURE DES RECETTES.	SOMMES admisses au Budget précédent.	SOMMES PROPOSÉES PAR		SOMMES admisses par le Préfet.	Observations.
		La Commission administrative du Bureau.	Le Sous-Préfet.		
CHAPITRE I ^{er} .					
Recettes ordinaires.					
Art.	fr.	c.	fr.	c.	
1 ^{er} . Loyers de maisons et usines	-	-	195		
2. Fermages des biens ruraux	-	-	660		
3. Rentes sur l'état	-	-	1,875		
4. Rentes sur particuliers	-	-	39	50	
5. Intérêt des fonds placés à la caisse de service	-	-			
6. Fonds alloués au budget communal	12,000		10,000		
7. Produit du quart de la recette brute des bals, concerts, feux d'artifice, courses, exercices et autres fêtes et amusements publics, où l'on est admis en payant	-	-	500		
8. Produit du dixième de la recette brute dans les spectacles	-	-	2,000		
9. Dons, aumônes, quêtes, produits des tronc, etc	-	-	25,000		
10. Recettes imprévues	5,000		2,000		
11. Contributions sur les criées	-	-	180		
12. Do. volontaires sur v ^{tes} publiques	-	-	1,000		
13. Amendes forcées par arrangement	-	-	100		
14. Concession du terrain au cimetière St. Roch	-	-	150		
TOTAL	48,759	50	43,699	50	
CHAPITRE II.					
Recettes extraordinaires.					
Art.					
1 ^{er} . Reliquat du compte final de l'exercice 183	-	-	8,505	39	
2. Legs et donations	-	-			
3. Rachats de rentes	-	-			
4. Secours extraordinaires sur le budget communal	-	-			
5.	-	-			
TOTAL	6,743	11	8,505	39	
RÉCAPITULATION.					
Recettes ordinaires	48,759	50	43,699	50	
Recettes extraordinaires	6,743	11	8,505	39	
TOTAL DES RECETTES	55,502	61	52,204	89	

TITRE 2.—DÉPENSES.

NATURE DES DÉPENSES.	SOMMES allouées au Budget précédent.	SOMMES PROPOSÉES PAR		SOMMES allouées par Le Préfet.	Observations.
		La Commission administrative.	Le Sous-Préfet.		
CHAPITRE I ^{er} .					
Dépenses ordinaires.					
Art.	fr.	c.	fr.	c.	
1 ^{er} . Traitement des Médecins et Chirurgiens - -	-	-	1,100		
2. Traitement du Receveur -	-	-	1,300		
3. Frais de bureau - -	-	-	500		
4. Distribution en pain -	-	-	7,000		
5. — en viande -	-	-	3,500		
6. — en bois -	-	-	900		
7. — en vêtements -	-	-	15,000		
8. Médicaments - -	-	-			
9. Distribution en argent aux pauvres honteux ou mal- ades - - - -	-	-	1,200		
10. Entretien des biens -	-	-	1,200		
11. Contributions directes -	-	-	20		
12. Dépenses imprévues -	-	-	2,000		
13. Traitement des employés à l'administration - -	-	-	6,750		
14. Blanchissage - -	-	-	500		
15. Entretien du mobilier -	-	-	800		
16. Retracte à un ancien em- ployé - - - -	-	-	150		
17. Rente à la charge de l'étab- lissement - - -	-	-	14 25		
TOTAL - - -	51,434 25		46,759 25		
CHAPITRE II.					
Dépenses extraordinaires.					
RÉCAPITULATION.					
Dépenses ordinaires - -	-	-	46,759 25		
Dépenses extraordinaires -	-	-			
TOTAL DES DÉPENSES -	-	-	46,759 25		

BALANCE:

	SUIVANT LES PROPOSITIONS		SUIVANT la décision du Préfet.
	De la Commission administrative.	Du Sous-Préfet.	
	fr.	c.	
RECETTES - - - - -	51,434 25		
DÉPENSES - - - - -	46,759 25		
Excédant de Recettes - - -	4,675 -		

Le présent Budget, appuyé d'un cahier d'observations, présenté par nous Membres de la Commis-
sion administrative du Bureau de Bienfaisance de la Commune d

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Nous, Préfet du Département de la Seine-Inférieure, en vertu de l'ordonnance royale du 31 Octobre 1821
avons réglé le présent Budget,

En RECETTE, à

En DÉPENSE, à

Et en excédant de RECETTE, à

A Rouen, le

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RAPPORT fait au Grand-Conseil du Canton de Vaud, sur plusieurs Pétitions adressées à ce Corps, relatives à l'Institution d'Hospices Publics, en faveur de diverses Classes d'Indigens: par M. le Prof. Gindroz. Publié par ordre du Grand-Conseil; Lausanne, Juillet 1832.

Foreign
Communications.

M. le Prof.
Gindroz.

“ LA bienfaisance est une des vertus dont les habitans de notre pays paraissent sentir le plus vivement l'importance; rarement on la réclame en vain au milieu de nous; les secours vont au-devant des pauvres, ils les cherchent, et quelquefois même ils les créent. Le voyageur qui étudie nos institutions et nos mœurs publiques et privées, s'étonne de trouver, au sein d'un petit peuple, un si grand nombre d'établissmens charitables: non-seulement l'état et les communes distribuent des secours abondans, mais la bienfaisance privée déploie surtout une générosité et une habileté que rien ne peut fatiguer. Sociétés pour les indigens, pour les malades, pour les incurables, pour les femmes en couche, écoles de charité, asiles pour les enfans pauvres et pour les orphelins, ces institutions sont réparties sur tous les points du Canton. Ajoutez-y encore les caisses d'épargne destinées à prévenir le malheur futur; ajoutez-y ces collectes, ces souscriptions qui ne se font jamais attendre, dès qu'un accident imprévu a frappé quelque contrée ou un seul citoyen. Certes, s'il est un pays où la pauvreté, les maladies, toutes les infortunes trouvent de la sympathie et une commisération libérale, c'est notre pays. Eh bien, Messieurs, aujourd'hui, de toutes les parties de notre pays s'élève comme un cri de détresse. Quarante-quatre municipalités, organes des sentimens, nous dirions presque de la misère publique, implorent votre secours; et, au tableau que nous venons de tracer, elles opposent, comme un effrayant contraste, le spectacle de l'indigence qui augmente toutes les années en étendue, en variété et en intensité; tous les âges de la vie offrent des traits à leur tableau; ici, l'on vous parle d'enfans élevés par leurs parens à l'école du vice et de l'immoralité, ou abandonnés et misés à la folle enchère, comme des objets de rebut; là, on vous montre des hommes dans la force de l'âge livrés à la paresse et au vagabondage, et que l'on voudrait soumettre à un travail sévère; partout, des vieillards, des infirmes, pour lesquels on implore un asile.

“ Notre pays offre donc un étrange spectacle: une bienfaisance publique et privée sans cesse croissante, et une misère qui la surpasse toujours. Ce contraste est plein d'instruction, et nous vous prions de ne pas l'oublier dans la suite de cette discussion. Mais un peuple qui se trouve dans une position pareille, ne peut pas la supporter long-temps; se malaise, s'il était prolongé, deviendrait intolérable; il faut y porter remède. Telle est la pensée qui a inspiré toutes les pétitions dont nous sommes appelés à vous entretenir.

“ Les autorités qui s'adressent à vous, ont observé sous des aspects différens le mal grave que nous avons signalé; les uns l'ont vu dans son ensemble, dans sa profondeur, et dans les résultats dont il nous menace; les autres n'en ont saisi qu'un seul côté. Cette diversité de points de vue devait amener plusieurs propositions différentes, et votre commission s'est demandée d'abord si la tâche qu'elle avait à remplir lui imposait le devoir d'examiner tous ces détails; mais elle n'a point hésité à penser que telle n'était pas sa mission. En effet, malgré la variété des points de vue où les pétitionnaires se sont placés, malgré la divergence correspondante des plans proposés, on découvre aisément quelques idées principales dominantes, un but commun, les mêmes pensées et les mêmes désirs.

“ Qu'il s'agisse des enfans, des hommes ou des vieillards, pour procurer aux premiers une éducation convenable, aux seconds du travail, et aux derniers des secours, on veut, on demande des institutions créées et entretenues par les bourses publiques de l'état ou des communes. C'est donc à cette proposition fondamentale que votre commission a dû s'attacher; c'est cette idée qu'elle a cru devoir soumettre à un examen attentif. Elle s'est demandée si le Grand-Conseil pouvait, dans ce moment, et d'après l'état actuel du Canton, désirer la réalisation d'un plan semblable, ou bien si ce n'était point là une de ces conceptions inspirées par un mouvement généreux de sensibilité, mais que la réflexion calme ne peut accueillir qu'avec une extrême réserve, et dans des circonstances tout autres que celles où nous nous trouvons actuellement. Cette dernière alternative forme l'opinion de votre commission, et nous venons la développer dans ce rapport. Nous ne nous dissimulons point que notre manière de voir offre une couleur impopulaire; nos paroles paraîtront quelquefois dures et cruelles; elles seront repoussées par les personnes qui suivent les impulsions d'une sensibilité douloureusement affectée, plutôt que les autres considérations de la raison; elles seraient condamnées également par les hommes, s'il en était dans cette enceinte, qui font de la sensibilité pour faire des phrases. Mais la vérité et le bien réel du pays ne nous ont pas permis de céder à ces séductions. Si le sujet que nous allons aborder est d'une grande importance, il présente aussi une effrayante difficulté; l'économie politique, la science de l'administration, la législation, la morale, l'histoire, toutes ces sciences auraient ici leur mot à dire. Vous ne devez donc pas attendre de nous un travail approfondi et complet. Nous ne pourrions apercevoir que les sommités des questions, et même nous nous attacherons bien moins aux principes théorétiques qu'aux considérations d'expérience puissées dans notre position et nos mœurs.

“ Une première question se présente ici, et domine le sujet dont nous sommes appelés à nous occuper: Quelles sont les causes des fléaux que l'on déplore aujourd'hui? Vous comprenez toute l'importance de cette question, et vous entrevoyez quelle lumière la solution doit répandre sur la valeur des établissemens qui sont réclamés de votre sagesse. Ecartons le point de vue religieux sous lequel on pourrait envisager la source des maux dont l'humanité est travaillée; étudions simplement les hommes et les faits, tels qu'ils se présentent dans notre Canton à l'observateur ordinaire. Certes, les causes de ces malheurs sont innombrables! Toutefois, un peu d'attention fait reconnaître que, si l'on doit renoncer à les compter une par une, il est facile du moins de les distribuer en deux grandes classes qui les comprennent toutes sans exception. Ces deux sources de nos maux divers sont l'imprévoyance et les accidens inopinés. L'imprévoyance, tantôt celle du vice qui se livre à ses coupables penchans sans en prévoir les suites funestes, ou plutôt sans vouloir les prévoir, tantôt l'imprévoyance de la passion, de l'étourderie, de la légèreté, qui obéit à tous les caprices, à toutes les fantaisies, sans en calculer les résultats bons ou mauvais.

“ Nous avons dit en second lieu *les accidens*; ce sont ces catastrophes de la nature physique, ces désastres des élémens, ces événemens indépendans de la volonté humaine, et que l'on appelle de malheureux hasards, contre lesquels échouent les forces de l'homme, que l'on ne saurait prévoir, mais qu'il est rare que l'on ne puisse réparer.

“ Maintenant, à laquelle de ces deux causes faut-il rapporter les malheurs en faveur desquels on sollicite votre commisération? On vous parle d'hommes valides, mais vagabonds, pauvres, parce qu'ils

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.M. le Prof.
Gindroz.

ne veulent point travailler. Est-ce là un de ces accidens funestes indépendans de la volonté et de la prudence? Ou plutôt, n'est-ce pas là l'imprévoyance du vice bien caractérisée?

" On vous parle de vieillards pauvres et infirmes. Ici nous ferons la part la plus large aux maux imprévus et aux accidens de la fatalité; mais qui osera cependant affirmer que, dans la plupart des cas, une jeunesse active, une vie laborieuse et sobre, dans un pays qui offre assez de ressources de travail pour l'agriculture, et surtout pour les métiers, n'eût pas préparé une vieillesse moins misérable? Qui oserait dire que l'imprévoyance n'a pas également ici une triste influence? Ces vieillards ne sont-ils point peut-être aussi les victimes de l'indifférence, de l'ingratitude, de l'abandon de leurs enfans élevés à la paresse, et accoutumés à l'indolence?

" On vous parle enfin, on vous parle surtout, d'enfans abandonnés par leurs parens, ou élevés dans le vice et dans la misère. C'est là, il faut le dire, la grande plaie, la plaie profonde et saignante! Toute pitié est due à ces infortunés enfans, et nous déplorons leur sort avec une grande amertume de cœur. L'état et les communes leur donnent déjà l'instruction nécessaire à tous les citoyens; on demande, de plus, que l'état et les communes les adoptent, les nourrissent, les habillent, en un mot, remplissent les devoirs que la nature, la religion, les lois civiles imposent rigoureusement aux pères et aux mères. Ici, surtout, nous devons demander pourquoi l'on trouve un aussi grand nombre de ces enfans malheureux, où est la cause de ce mal déplorable. C'est tantôt dans le libertinage et la débauche, tantôt dans l'imprévoyance d'un instinct que l'on ne sait pas toujours soumettre à la raison; mais c'est surtout dans ces mariages imprudens, contractés dès la première jeunesse, avant que l'on ait acquis aucun état, aucune ressource, aucun moyen d'existence.

" Ainsi, tout en faisant, nous le répétons, les concessions les plus larges dans les maux qui nous sont signalés, aux accidens et aux catastrophes inévitables, nous sommes cependant forcés de reconnaître que la grande généralité des faits, avec bien peu d'exceptions, nous montre la cause du mal dans l'imprévoyance du vice, de la passion, ou d'une inconcevable légèreté.

" On vous demande donc de décréter que l'état et les communes aient à fonder des institutions en faveur des hommes, des vieillards ou des enfans, qui subissent les tristes conséquences de ce fécond principe de nos misères: l'imprévoyance. Trois questions se présentent ici: Est-il juste d'adhérer à ces vœux? Ces vœux seraient-ils faciles à réaliser? Enfin, les institutions demandées seraient-elles véritablement utiles?

" Au premier coup-d'œil, rien ne paraît plus naturel et plus juste que de demander à la fortune publique de secourir la misère des citoyens. N'est-ce pas là une des conditions du contrat social? N'est-ce pas pour obtenir protection et appui, que les hommes forment des sociétés qui se nomment elles-mêmes civilisées?

" L'illusion spécieuse de ce premier aperçu disparaît bientôt devant des considérations plus vraies et plus relevées.

" D'abord, qu'est-ce qui constitue essentiellement la fortune publique et les ressources de l'état? Ce sont les impositions diverses qui chargent les citoyens dans leurs propriétés et leur industrie. Représentez-vous maintenant notre pays couvert, par districts, par arrondissemens, par cercles peut-être (car pourquoi s'arrêter?), d'hospices de divers genres, fondés et entretenus par l'état, c'est-à-dire, avec le produit des impositions. Ne serait-ce pas là un pays dans lequel les citoyens riches, actifs, industriels et économes seraient contraints d'entretenir les citoyens livrés à l'intempérance, paresseux, libertins, dissipateurs, avec leurs femmes, leurs vieillards et leurs enfans légitimes ou illégitimes? Serait-ce là de la justice?

" Cette bienfaisance de l'état, qui ne pourrait s'exercer qu'avec l'argent qu'il enlèverait de force aux particuliers, serait-elle désirable? Dira-t-on que chacun doit faire l'aumône, secourir les malheureux, et payer dans ce but sa part de l'impôt? Loin de nous la pensée d'affaiblir le devoir de la charité! La morale naturelle et notre sainte religion ne placent-elles pas la charité au rang des plus belles vertus? Mais c'est renverser toutes les idées que de transformer un devoir moral, une obligation chrétienne, en obligation civile, en devoir légal: la charité n'est pas juridique et légale suivant les hommes; elle est toute entière un devoir de conscience, un devoir libre, et qu'il faut remplir avec liberté. La charité légale n'est autre chose que le pillage du riche et la spoliation de l'homme industriel et économe: on verra bientôt à quelles funestes conséquences elle entraîne, sous la fausse apparence du bien public.

" Nous n'insisterons pas davantage sur ces considérations générales. Quelques personnes les rangeront peut-être dans le nombre des principes abstraits dont il faut se défier, et parmi ces théories auxquelles la pratique, dit-on, donne de si formels démentis. Eh bien, c'est le point de vue pratique que nous allons examiner; et en supposant qu'il fût juste en principe de prendre l'argent du riche pour le donner au pauvre, nous voulons rechercher s'il serait facile d'atteindre de cette manière au but que l'on se propose.

" Vous serez frappés, Messieurs, de toutes les difficultés d'exécution inséparables de la création et de l'administration des établissemens publics qui sont demandés.

" On veut des maisons de travail pour les hommes valides qui se traînent dans l'oisiveté, des hospices pour les enfans abandonnés, ou pour ceux qui ne trouvent dans leur famille qu'une école vivante d'immoralité; on demande enfin des asiles pour les vieillards. Une première question se présente ici. L'introduction dans ces établissemens sera-t-elle libre ou forcée, facultative ou contrainte? Ces institutions seront-elles des hospices où l'on attendra ceux qui viendront spontanément y chercher un refuge? Ou bien en fera-t-on des espèces de prisons pour les paresseux? Enlèvera-t-on les enfans et les vieillards à leurs familles? En un mot, quel caractère donnera-t-on à ces institutions? Si elles restent libres, le but en est manqué, car l'homme paresseux préférera sa vie vagabonde et oiseuse au travail qu'on lui réserve, et les familles dans le sein desquelles règnent en même temps la misère et le vice, attachent souvent du prix à posséder des vieillards infirmes, ou des enfans dans l'âge le plus tendre: tantôt elles en font des instrumens de mendicité, tantôt elles conservent, malgré leur dégradation, les sentimens instinctifs de l'affection paternelle ou filiale.

" Ces établissemens seront-ils donc des maisons de détention et de travail forcé? Mettra-t-on en état d'arrestation les pères dénaturés, les débauchés, les vieillards infirmes, les paresseux, les enfans mal élevés? Mais où est la loi qui permet ces actes attentatoires à la liberté individuelle garantie par notre constitution? Il faut créer une nouvelle classe de délits, afin d'appeler devant les tribunaux des hommes bien coupables sans doute, mais qui, par la nature même de leurs fautes, ne peuvent ressortir à la justice humaine, dont ils ont d'ailleurs mille moyens de tromper la vigilance.

" Une première difficulté existe donc dans la détermination du caractère à donner aux institutions proposées. Nous en trouvons une seconde, bien plus insurmontable encore, dans les dépenses que ces établissemens entraîneraient.

" Examinez,

“ Examinez, Messieurs, ce que l'on vous demande. Dans chaque district, ou bien dans chaque arrondissement militaire, ou dans toute autre circonscription plus ou moins étendue, il s'agirait de se procurer une maison suffisamment vaste, saine, distribuée d'une manière appropriée à sa destination, et sur un plan qui demanderait souvent des constructions à neuf; on y joindrait, sans doute, un jardin, peut-être quelques terres à cultiver; il faudrait un mobilier considérable, divers instrumens, machines ou métiers, pour les travaux des détenus de tous les sexes et de tous les âges. Ajoutez à ces premières dépenses de fondation, les frais annuels pour le salaire des employés et l'entretien des habitans de l'hospice. N'oubliez pas que le travail de la maison serait peu productif, car les travailleurs seraient des enfans, des vieillards ou des paresseux. Calculez cette série de dépenses, en écartant même toute idée de luxe, et dites-nous si la fortune de l'état et les biens des communes pourraient supporter un fardeau semblable. L'état n'a pas encore pu doter d'une manière suffisante toutes les institutions qui existent déjà et dont la justice et l'utilité sont incontestables, et l'on pourrait penser à des fondations nouvelles dont on peut, avec tant de raison, révoquer en doute la moralité !

“ Il existe une dernière difficulté que nous devons signaler : elle se trouve dans l'administration des institutions dont il s'agit. Sans parler de leur organisation elle-même, qui présente toujours une grande complication, les établissemens publics, tels que ceux dont on sollicite la création, sont très-difficiles à administrer, et l'on en comprend aisément la raison. Ils présentent deux caractères qui sont à-peu-près inconciliables; ils ont deux existences qui s'excluent presque l'une l'autre. Si vous les considérez comme établissemens publics, l'administration en doit être sévère et même rigoureuse. Se présentent-ils à votre attention sous le point de vue de la bienfaisance, de la charité à laquelle ils sont consacrés, vous désirez une administration douce, flexible et appropriée aux circonstances et aux besoins variables des individus. Cette dernière exigence devient même tellement impérieuse qu'elle finit presque toujours par effacer le caractère primitif et si important de l'exactitude rigoureuse; l'administration se relâche; l'ordre réglementaire s'affaiblit; les dépenses augmentent progressivement, et cependant la pensée des fondateurs est loin d'être réalisée.

“ Nous arrivons à une troisième classe de réflexions auxquelles donnent lieu les pétitions qui nous occupent. Veuillez nous continuer encore quelques momens votre attention; la longueur de notre rapport a besoin de votre indulgence; mais il nous a paru qu'il était de la dignité du Grand-Conseil de ne point traiter avec légèreté des vœux dictés par des intentions honorables, et dont un si grand nombre de citoyens se sont fait les organes.

“ Les institutions que l'on vous demande sont contraires au principe de la justice sociale; elles présentent dans leur organisation et leur entretien des difficultés administratives et financières très-graves. Cependant, nous voulons supposer que l'on franchisse toutes ces considérations, et que l'on insiste pour accomplir, coûte qui coûte, les vœux des pétitionnaires. On nous permettra sans doute encore une question à laquelle on ne doit jamais échapper lorsqu'il s'agit de fondations nouvelles: Quels seront les résultats de ces institutions? Quels effets produiront-elles? Le but auquel on veut atteindre sera-t-il réalisé?

“ Nous ne doutons pas que, au moment même où les hospices demandés seraient établis, on ne remarquât quelque changement favorable dans notre pays. On ne verrait plus peut-être un aussi grand nombre d'enfans mal soignés, mal élevés, tourmenter tout ce qui les approche. On ne verrait plus peut-être aussi souvent des hommes robustes parcourir le pays en demandant de l'ouvrage, pour le désertir lâchement dès qu'il se présente. Quelques vieillards, enfin, trouveraient un asile. Voilà, nous le croyons, le bienfait qui environnerait les fondations naissantes. Mais le législateur n'arrête pas ses regards sur le berceau des institutions dont il doit apprécier la valeur; il les étend au-delà de ces premiers momens où tout semble heureux; il interroge l'avenir, et considérant ces établissemens dans leurs rapports avec la nature humaine, avec les dispositions ordinaires des hommes, il arrive à des prévisions qui sont rarement démenties par l'expérience. Il s'agit donc d'examiner quelle influence devrait exercer peu à peu sur les opinions, les habitudes et les mœurs de notre peuple, l'établissement dans divers points du canton, de nombreux hospices pour recueillir les vieillards pauvres et malheureux, les hommes valides qui se refusent au travail, et surtout les enfans abandonnés ou mal élevés par leurs parens.

“ Veuillez rappeler à votre souvenir les réflexions que nous avons présentées sur la source de ces maux divers: nous avons établi, d'une manière qui nous semble incontestable, que pour le plus grand nombre des cas, cette source n'est pas ailleurs que dans l'imprévoyance du vice et des passions. Eh bien! si nous fondons des institutions en faveur des conséquences d'un si déplorable principe, ne sera-ce pas favoriser le développement et l'énergie de ce principe? Si nous traitons avec une généreuse bienveillance les résultats de fautes graves que la morale et la société condamnent avec une égale justice, ne sera-ce pas accorder à ces mêmes fautes protection et encouragement? Fonder des maisons de travail pour y entretenir des paresseux, c'est dire aux paresseux: persévérez dans votre lâche conduite; nous vous donnerons, quand vous le voudrez, un domicile, des alimens, des vêtemens, et vous travaillerez comme il vous semblera bon. Ouvrir des asiles pour les vieillards, auxquels leur imprévoyance, leur défaut d'activité et d'économie n'ont laissé aucune ressource, c'est évidemment encore encourager, approuver l'indolence et la prodigalité. Enfin, ils seraient surtout déplorables, les résultats qui accompagneraient la fondation d'hospices pour les enfans. Les mœurs en recevraient une funeste atteinte, par la certitude de trouver dans ces institutions un moyen d'annuler les suites les plus redoutées du libertinage; on accorderait une protection toute particulière, et comme une prime, aux liaisons illicites et aux mariages imprudens. Vous entendriez répéter, sur tous les points du Canton, ce mot si profondément immoral: ‘Faisons des enfans, les bonnes gens s'en chargeront.’

“ Telle est la tendance inévitable et plus ou moins prochaine des institutions qui ont pour but de soulager d'office les suites fâcheuses de l'imprévoyance et du vice; elles fortifient nécessairement et l'imprévoyance et le vice; elles familiarisent les hommes avec leurs conséquences les plus tristes; l'intérêt et la protection que l'état leur accorde affaiblissent la flétrissure qui doit les couvrir, et les relève dans l'opinion publique; or, il est bien certain que, à mesure que la paresse, l'imprévoyance et le libertinage prennent faveur, les vertus opposées se discréditent, et la morale publique et privée se relâche et se perd rapidement. Si aujourd'hui dix-neuf hospices suffisaient au besoin du Canton, dans vingt années il faudrait sans doute doubler ce nombre, et ainsi dans une progression effrayante, comme dans les pays où la charité légale est instituée.

“ Ajoutons à ces considérations générales quelques observations rapides sur les résultats plus particuliers des institutions demandées.

“ D'abord, les maisons de travail ont pour effet inévitable d'amener la baisse des salaires. L'état ne pouvait pas forcer l'accroissement de la consommation, ne peut pas créer un travail nouveau.

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M. le Prof.

Gindroz.

Ainsi ces institutions portent nécessairement un notable préjudice à l'ouvrier industriel, actif et économe.

“ Les maisons de refuge pour les vieillards affaiblissent les liens de famille, et les sentimens d'affection respectueuse que les enfans doivent à leurs parens âgés ; elles propagent cette idée barbare qu'un vieillard est un fardeau dont il faut chercher à se débarrasser. Vous savez comment quelques sauvages traitent les vieillards, ils les tuent.

“ Les hospices pour les enfans brisent les relations de famille ; la chaîne réciproque des devoirs est affaiblie, sinon rompue. Les jeunes gens élevés dans des institutions où tout leur est facile, où leurs besoins sont satisfaits sans peine et sans effort de leur part, où jamais une lutte, un moment d'inquiétude ne met leur énergie à l'épreuve, ces jeunes gens ne reçoivent point cette éducation de la vie qui donne de la force et de la constance au caractère, qui, portant la pensée sur l'avenir, crée et soutient l'activité, la persévérance et le dévouement.

“ Il faut même généraliser cette dernière observation, et ne pas craindre de dire, que ces institutions tendent toutes à énerver le caractère d'un peuple, à favoriser l'indolence et la paresse. Cette conviction que nos parens, nos enfans, nous-mêmes, nous trouverons une existence commode dans des établissemens publics, calme toutes les inquiétudes, flatte et caresse notre penchant à l'insouciance. Les efforts semblent superflus : la charité publique n'est-elle pas à côté de nous ? elle les remplace si agréablement. Il n'est peut-être personne dans cette assemblée qui ne puisse citer l'exemple de quelque famille qui, de père en fils, reste à la charge des bourses publiques, de familles chez lesquelles la pauvreté est héréditaire, parce que l'indolence l'est aussi, et surtout parce que le père transmet religieusement à son fils ce qu'il appelle son droit à l'assistance publique.

“ Ne négligeons pas d'observer maintenant, comme un contraste digne d'intérêt, que les fondations consacrées à soulager les malheurs accidentels présentent des caractères tous différens, et n'ont point les mêmes dangers. Elles ne multiplient pas les infortunes qu'elles veulent secourir, parce que la cause est en dehors de leur influence. On fonde des hospices pour les aliénés ; on institue des maisons d'éducation pour les enfans sourds-muets, pour les enfans aveugles ; on recueille avec respect dans des établissemens publics, les victimes de la guerre, les soldats blessés au champ d'honneur, les veuves et les enfans des citoyens morts pour le service de la patrie. On sait assez que des institutions semblables, loin d'encourager le vice et la paresse, encouragent le dévouement et enflamment le patriotisme.

“ La tâche que vous avez imposée à votre commission est accomplie. Des considérations de divers ordres nous ont servi à démontrer que les vœux des pétitionnaires ne pouvaient pas être accueillis. Nous avons traité l'importante question qui vous était soumise, dans sa plus grande généralité ; et nous devions choisir cette position élevée, puisqu'il s'agissait de notre pays tout entier, et non de telle ou telle localité isolée. Pour être fidèles à ce point de vue, nous ne pouvions nous occuper des cas particuliers, et nous nous sommes bornés à indiquer que quelques-uns, en petit nombre, sortaient peut-être de la règle générale, et paraissaient mériter une indulgence exceptionnelle. Ces circonstances rares, restreintes à une localité, à un temps, échappent à l'action générale du Gouvernement ; elles sont inappréciables dans l'ensemble de l'administration. Mais ces malheurs isolés, ces infortunes devant lesquelles on ne sait pas être sévère, et qui ébranlent la raison la plus inflexible, resteront-elles sans secours ? C'est ici que commence la bienfaisance privée ; c'est ici que la charité spontanée des citoyens se déploie. La bienfaisance privée se distingue essentiellement des institutions publiques : elle est libre ; elle commence et s'arrête où elle veut ; elle choisit ses objets avec clairvoyance ; elle est attentive, vigilante, économe, sévère, elle est indépendante, et personne, même le plus malheureux, ne peut y compter comme sur un droit ; elle ouvre et ferme la porte de ses hospices, et nul ne peut élever une voix de plainte et de reproche.

“ Il est donc conforme aux règles d'une bonne administration, et aux vrais intérêts moraux d'un peuple, que les bourses publiques s'abstiennent de créer des institutions en faveur de ces infortunes dont la source n'est pas digne d'être encouragée. Si des exceptions peu nombreuses méritent grâce et pitié, il appartient à la bienfaisance privée de s'en emparer, et certes, dans notre pays, elle n'abandonne jamais le malheur véritable.

“ Que dirons-nous donc à ces municipalités qui se sont adressées au Grand-Conseil avec une sorte d'angoisse et de désespoir ? Nous oserions, il nous semble, leur adresser ces paroles : Nous déplorons avec vous l'indigence et la paresse qui frappent vos regards ; nous plaignons le sort de ces enfans abandonnés ou élevés à l'apprentissage du vice ; toutes ces calamités qui oppressent les communes que vous administrez, et les menacent d'une ruine prochaine, excitent aussi notre douleur ; mais les remèdes que vous proposez enracineraient et propageraient le mal. Au lieu d'arrêter votre pensée sur les misères du moment, remontez plutôt à leurs principes ; attaquez et combattez les causes qui les produisent ; ainsi vous sauverez véritablement les malheureux qui excitent votre pitié, et les communes dont l'avenir vous effraie. Les attributions dont vous êtes revêtus, vous donnent une grande puissance morale, si vous savez les exercer avec courage et persévérance. Veillez avec sévérité à l'observation des réglemens de police et d'ordre public ; déployez une inspection exacte et inflexible sur tous les établissemens consacrés au plaisir, et sur tout à la boisson. Soyez fermes dans l'application des peines, dans la répression des délits, et ne vous laissez pas aller à l'indulgence de l'amitié ou de la peur. Ne cherchez pas à multiplier les occasions, les journées d'amusemens superflus, dans lesquels on apprend à aimer l'oisiveté, le bruit, et l'abandon irréflecti à tous les penchans sensuels. Nous dirons surtout aux autorités communales : il n'est pas besoin de fondations nouvelles pour arrêter le mal que nous déplorons ensemble. Notre pays n'est pas une terre sauvage dans laquelle sont inconnues les institutions qui éclairent et civilisent les hommes. Notre pays est couvert d'écoles qui offrent à la jeunesse une éducation préservatrice des fléaux que vous signalez. Voilà la ressource capitale, le bienfait fondamental que l'état doit offrir à tous les citoyens. Occupez-vous donc de l'éducation de la jeunesse dans les écoles qui lui sont destinées. Une génération formée se réforme rarement : il faut la subir telle qu'on l'a laissée grandir ; mais dans la jeunesse repose tout l'avenir de la patrie. Accordez donc à l'instruction publique l'attention qu'elle réclame. Cherchez à donner à vos écoles les développemens qui les rendront des écoles de christianisme, de patriotisme, de travail et de bonnes mœurs ; ne craignez aucune dépense dans ce but ; veillez aux devoirs des instituteurs, des familles et des enfans ; montrez-vous sévères pour assurer la fréquentation assidue des écoles ; en un mot, ne négligez dans votre administration aucun soin, quelque difficile, ou quelque minutieux qu'il puisse paraître, s'il doit contribuer à ranimer l'esprit religieux et le goût d'une instruction solide. Si vous avez le courage de saisir ainsi le mal à sa racine, vous l'extirperez, vous le détruirez, et vous vous convaincrez de plus en plus que les réformes naissent de l'amélioration de la pensée et des sentimens, sous l'influence d'une éducation chrétienne, mais que les institutions qui ne s'adressent qu'à la surface des mœurs, sont impuissantes pour faire le bonheur d'un peuple.

No. 6.

REPORT of the COMMISSIONERS appointed by an Order of the House of Representatives, Feb. 29, 1832, on the subject of the PAUPER SYSTEM of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts.

[Originally printed at Boston, U. S. 1833.]

COMMONWEALTH of MASSACHUSETTS.

House of Representatives, Feb. 29, 1832.

Ordered, That five Commissioners be appointed by this House, to meet during the recess, to prepare, digest and report to the next Legislature, such modification or changes in the present Pauper System of the Commonwealth, as they may deem expedient; and that said Commissioners be authorized to appoint an agent (if they deem such appointment expedient) to visit as extensively as shall be necessary to obtain full information on the subject, the principal establishments in the Commonwealth and elsewhere, for the public charge and support of the poor; to collect the statistics of those institutions; and to report the facts so obtained to the Commissioners: and the following gentlemen were appointed to constitute the Board of Commissioners, in pursuance of the above order, namely:

Hon. William B. Calhoun,
Hon. Henry Shaw,
Josiah Caldwell, Esq.
George A. Tufts, Esq., and
Rev. Joseph Tuckerman.

Attest.

L. S. Cushing, Clerk.

REPORT.

The Commissioners appointed by the House of Representatives on the 29th of February 1832, to "prepare, digest and report to the next Legislature, such modifications or changes in the Pauper System of the Commonwealth as they may deem expedient, with authority to appoint an agent to visit, as extensively as shall be necessary to obtain full information upon this subject, the principal establishments in the Commonwealth and elsewhere, for the public charge and support of the poor, to collect the statistics of these institutions, and to report the facts so obtained to the Commissioners;" would now respectfully Report to this House:

That in recurring to the laws of this Commonwealth respecting the poor, they find, that so early as A. D. 1639, that is, eight years after the first settlement that was made in Boston, it was "ordered by the Court" of the colony and province of Massachusetts Bay, "that any shire court, or any two magistrates out of court, shall have power to determine *all difference about the lawful settling and providing for poor persons; and to dispose of all unsettled persons into such towns as they shall judge to be most fit for the maintenance and employment of such persons and families for the ease of this country.*"*—This early provision by law for the poor in Massachusetts is hardly less remarkable than is the extraordinary power which was at the same time given for disposing of the settlement of those whose claim might be denied to a settlement in the towns in which they might apply for assistance. It is, however, to be remembered, that the civil fathers of our State had lived under the earliest operations of the famous Act of the 43d of Elizabeth, under which the poor-rates of England have been assessed, and collected to the present day. The confiscation of ecclesiastical property in England, in the reign of Henry VIII. had thrown upon the country many thousand beggars, who had previously been supported by the church; and especially by the monasteries. This very mode of supporting the poor had, without doubt, greatly increased their number; for this is the direct tendency, in every case, of the substitution of associated and general for particular and personal charity. But while so supported, these poor were not felt to be a burthen upon the community. The community indeed knew but little of them, and probably cared still less for them. When, however, they could no longer obtain supplies from these sources, they became clamorous in their demands upon private individuals and upon families. Their numbers, habits, wants and wretchedness were forced upon the public notice; and the interferences of the Legislature, for the purpose of aiding them as far as possible in obtaining a comfortable subsistence from the products of their own labour, seemed to be at once as practical and wise as it was humane. Two hundred thousand pounds were therefore appropriated by Parliament for "the support of the aged, blind, impotent and sick; for the employment of children whose parents could not maintain them; for the appren-
ticing

* See the Charters and General Laws of the Colony and Province of Massachusetts Bay, published by order of the General Court, 1814, p. 173.

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ting of poor children; and for setting the idle to work." Commendable, however, in themselves as were these purposes, they were, as far as the relief of the necessitous and impotent were concerned, the proper purposes, not of legal enactments, but of Christian humanity and charity. The acts here referred to were in truth, though they seemed not at the time of their passage to have been, direct violations of great elementary principles. And the effect of this interposition of human law, to secure obedience to a plain and oft-repeated law of God was, and has been to this day, to produce an increased and even frightfully increasing extent of the beggary and crime which it was intended to remedy. It would indeed be unjust to say that the evils of this system of provision for the poor might have been foreseen. It is easy when consequences have occurred to imagine that they might have been anticipated. But this Act of Elizabeth, and the enactment of the fathers of Massachusetts in 1639, were intended for good; and seemed to promise a good no less than the redemption of multitudes from idleness and want and debasement, and the extremest misery. Time was required to test the principle of this provision for the poor; and on this, as on many other subjects, time and experience have proved, that the best principles may be injudiciously applied, and in their misapplication be made causes of the very evils they were intended to obviate; that it is the part of true wisdom, as well with Legislatures as with subjects, in prospective plans which give even the best promise of success, to leave a way for the escape or the correction of unanticipated evils; and that great vigilance is to be maintained if we would that temporary expedients, either by neglect or a mistaken policy, be not perpetuated till they become established and unchangeable usages. The first grant of Parliament for carrying into effect the Act of Elizabeth was 200,000*l*. The amount of poor-rates assessed for the year 1828 was 7,784,356*l*.; and this sum of between thirty-four and thirty-five millions of dollars was applied in part to eke out the wages of the poor who received it,—thus acting as a bounty upon the oppression of their employers; and in part was distributed by the vestries, or by their agents, to the poor who could not obtain employment, in weekly instalments proportioned to the number of children in the families which applied for it,—thus acting directly as a bounty upon the increase of population. These solemn results are matters of history; and the consequences of the substitution of this compulsory process for the relief of the poor, for that individual and willing charity which has rarely failed to be efficient where it has been left free, stand among the records of the two last centuries as one of the most solemn and admonitory lessons which the events of those centuries suggest, for the guidance of the Legislatures of all countries, which are either yet to settle the principles on which they are to act in regard to the poor; or which have it in their power to modify any existing laws or institutions by which a country is threatened with a calamity like that of English Pauperism.

To the Act of the Legislature of our State in 1639, we trace the "Pauper System" under which we are now living. Additional enactments, which recognized the same principles which are involved in the Act referred to, were passed in 1659. Another, however, and a still more injurious measure, was adopted in 1675. "This Court," it was then said, "considering the inconvenience and damage which may arise to particular towns by such as, being forced from their habitations by the present calamity of the war, do repair unto them for succour; do order and declare that such persons, being inhabitants of this jurisdiction, who are so forced from their habitations, and repair to other plantations for relief, shall not, by virtue of their residence in such plantations they repair unto, be accounted or reputed inhabitants thereof, or imposed upon them according to law. But in such case, and where necessity requires by reason of the inability of relations, &c., they shall be *paid out of the Public Treasury*."* This, we believe, was the first enactment for supplying the poor from the Treasury of the State; and it was obviously designed to have been limited in its operations, by the exigencies of the occasion which seemed to have demanded it. In subsequent years, however, similar grants or allowances continued to be made. The principle on which they were founded had been admitted; and the exigencies were sure to arise on which they might very plausibly be required, and on which, under such circumstances, it would be very difficult and apparently unequal and unjust to refuse them. In the records made of them, they are so mixed up with allowances of military accounts, &c., that they are not easily to be separated; and the first distinct statement of them occurs in the resolves of the June session of 1792, in which it appears that their amount then was \$6,039. 54. In the year 1793 an Act was passed, intituled, "An Act ascertaining what shall constitute a legal Settlement, &c.; and for repealing all Laws heretofore made respecting such Settlement." Here it was "enacted, that a married woman shall always have and follow the settlement of her husband, if he have any within this Commonwealth; otherwise, her own at the time of marriage, if she had any, shall not be lost or suspended by the marriage. And in case the wife shall be removed to her settlement, and *the husband shall want relief from the State, he shall receive it in the town where his wife shall have her settlement, AT THE EXPENSE OF THE COMMONWEALTH.*"† The subsequent state of law upon this subject is well known. But although suspicions of abuse and evil in practice, growing out of this law, have been almost universal, the facts have been wanting, by which these suspicions could have been made available for any essential improvements in the system. Your Commissioners think that they are now able to bring the subject before the House under better advantages for a fair discussion of it, than have before this time been possessed; and they indulge the hope that principles

* Colony Laws, pp. 174-5.

† See Stearns and Shaws' General Laws of Massachusetts, vol. i. p. 431.

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principles of legislation upon it may now be recognized, and that measures in regard to it may be adopted, which will not only do much to reconcile interests, which the existing law and practice bring into perpetual conflict, but ultimately be for the best good and comfort, both of the whole community and of the poor.

First, however, your Commissioners would state, that, by the authority which was given to them, they appointed one of their number to visit such towns as he could within the Commonwealth, to collect the statistics of their institutions for the poor, and to prepare the facts so obtained for their examination. The principal part of these facts are contained in the Tables and Statements appended to this Report; and they are presented in this form, because it is believed that the legislature will wish to be in possession of the details, as well as of the general circumstances which belong to this great subject. In the discharge of the duty thus assigned to him, this agent visited as many towns as he could, within the time which he was able to give to this investigation. But as the investigation to be made was in some respects a new one, and some experience was to be acquired before the queries most pertinent to the object could be settled and arranged, the information which was wanted is not equally full in the accounts of all the towns which were visited. It is to be observed, too, that in some towns which were visited, and the general statistics of whose almshouses were obtained, it has been found impracticable to obtain their accounts of expenses and receipts for the last year. In order to save time, which could not conveniently be spared when the agent applied for them, he made arrangements that these accounts might be transmitted to him; and in towns in which he could not obtain an interview with the overseers he left his queries, with a desire that answers to them should be sent as soon as might be by mail. But although he has again applied for these accounts and answers, by letters addressed to the overseers, they have not been received. The agent, however, acknowledges the general kindness with which he was met by the overseers of the poor, in the towns in which he could obtain a conference with them, and their readiness to co-operate with him in his objects. Nor is he less sensible than any one else will be, that if another commission should be appointed, with authority to collect statistics of the poor, the work might be far better done than it has now been. But it is believed that even this partial and imperfect survey of the ground has been sufficient to furnish evidence of great evils to be remedied and prevented, and to lead to measures of very great importance to the virtue, security, well-being and happiness of many succeeding generations.

First, then, your Commissioners would observe, that in 68 towns, containing a population of 264,327 inhabitants, the whole number of poor, more or less, assisted by the overseers during the last year, estimating families, where they are so distinguished in the Tables, to have consisted each of four individuals, was 12,331; that is, supposing them all to have consisted of different individuals, about one in $21\frac{1}{2}$ of the population. It is, however, to be remarked, as will appear from the first Table, containing the statistics of the poor in towns which have almshouses and land for their employment, that in three of these towns, no account was taken of their out-door poor; and in seven towns, in which an account of these poor was taken, the distinctive numbers were not taken of State's and town's out-door poor. We refer to this circumstance, because it will account for a discrepancy in the totals given of the whole number of out-door poor in these towns, and of the number of State's and town's out-door poor. This discrepancy amounts to 636; that is, 636 of the poor assisted during the last year, are not accounted for in the comparative numbers of out-door State's and town's poor. We take the liberty, therefore, to assume, and our Tables will bear us out in the assumption, that 250 of this deficiency were State's poor, and that 386 of them were town's poor. On this ground, therefore, it will appear, that of the whole number more or less assisted during the last year, that is, of 12,331 poor, 5,927 were State's poor, and 6,063 were town's poor; making the excess of town's over State's poor to have been only 497. The proportion which it will be perceived that the State's poor bear to the town's poor, is itself a fact of startling interest. We have not the means of ascertaining the actual growth of this class of the poor. But if it may be estimated by a comparison of the State's allowance for them in 1792-3, the amount of which, in round numbers, was \$14,000, with the amount of the allowance 27 years afterwards, that is, in 1820, when it was \$72,000, it suggests matter for very serious consideration. So sensitive, indeed, to the increasing weight of the burthen had the legislature become even in 1798, when the allowance was but \$27,000, that "an Act" was passed, "specifying the kind of evidence required to accompany accounts exhibited for the support of the poor of the Commonwealth." In 1821, with a view to still further relief from the evil, the law limited its allowance to 90 cents a week for adults, and to 50 cents for children; and again, for the same end, it was enacted in 1823, that "no one over 12, and under 60 years of age, and in good health, should be considered a State pauper." The allowance is now reduced to 70 cents per week for adults, and proportionally for children; and in the cases in which the poor of this class have become an integral part of the population of towns, and in which, from week to week, through protracted sickness, or from any cause, they are for the year supported by public bounty, the expense for them is sometimes greater than this allowance. But this is comparatively a small proportion of the State's poor: far the largest part, as has been made to appear, consists of those who are but occasionally assisted, and, in some instances, of those of whom there seems to be good reason to infer, from the expence accounts, that they make a return in the products of their labour to those who have the charge of them, which might well exonerate the Commonwealth from any disbursements for their support. Even 70 cents a week, therefore, or any definable allowance, we believe has a direct tendency to increase this class of the poor; for a charity will not generally be very resolutely withheld, where it is known that, if dispensed, it will soon be refunded. And

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we leave it to every one to judge whether almsgiving, under the influence of this motive, and to a single and defined class, has not a direct tendency at once to the increase of its numbers, and to a proportionate earnestness of importunity for it.

Again. Your Commissioners would observe, that it will appear from the Tables herewith presented, that in four of the towns visited by the agent, an account was not taken of the comparative numbers of the State's and town's poor then in charge of the overseers. This will account for a discrepance also in the totals of these poor. The difference between the whole number when visited, and the totals of State's and town's poor, is 146. As the simplest method, therefore, of arriving at the nearest approximation to the truth on this subject, we apportion 50 of these 146 to the State's poor, and 96 of them to the town's poor. The numbers then will stand thus: When the towns were visited, the poor in the charge of the overseers was 2,512; and, of these, 869 were State's poor, and 1,643 were town's poor; that is, the difference between the whole number of poor in the charge of the overseers when the towns were visited, and the number more or less assisted in the same towns during the last year, was 9,319. And not only so. The whole number in the charge of the overseers, when the towns were visited, was far less than half of the number of State's poor assisted during the last year. From whence, then, arise these differences? Without doubt, in part from the circumstance, that there are permanent State's poor, who are assisted only occasionally, and principally in the winter, as many of the town's poor are assisted. In part, too, as has been conceded by many, from that prevalent willingness to which we have alluded, to give, when it is known that there will be a speedy reimbursement of the charity. But it is also not to be doubted, that a large proportion of this excess of State's poor, more or less assisted during the year, consists of those who are called in the statements herewith presented, "wandering or travelling poor." The single fact of the existence among us of this class of fellow beings, especially considered in connexion with the facts, that nearly all of them are State's poor, and that, to a great extent, they have been made what they are by the State's provision for them, brings the subject before us in a bearing, in which we scarcely know whether the call is loudest to the pity we should feel for them, or the self-reproach with which we should recur to the measures we have sanctioned, and which have alike enlarged their numbers and their misery. Nor is it a matter of mere inference from our Tables, that the number is very large of these wandering poor. To a considerable extent, and it is now regretted that it was not to a greater extent, the inquiry was proposed to overseers of the poor, "How many of the wandering, or travelling poor, annually pass under your notice?" And the answers, as will appear in the statements, were, from 10 to 50, and 100 and 200. Nor is there a more abject class of our fellow beings to be found in our country, than is this class of the poor. Almshouses, where they are to be found, are their inns, at which they stop for refreshment. Here they find rest, when too much worn with fatigue to travel, and medical aid when they are sick. And, as they choose not to labour, they leave these stopping places, when they have regained strength to enable them to travel, and pass from town to town, *demanding* their portion of the State's allowance for them as *their right*. And from place to place they receive a portion of this allowance, as the easiest mode of getting rid of them, and they talk of the allowance, as their "rations;" and, when lodged for a time, from the necessity of the case, with town's poor, it is their boast that they, by the State's allowance for them, support the town's inmates of the house. These unhappy fellow beings often travel with females, sometimes, but not always, their wives; while yet, in the towns in which they take up their temporary abode, they are almost always recognized and treated as sustaining this relation. There are exceptions, but they are few, of almshouses in which they are not permitted to live together. In winter they seek the towns in which they hope for the best accommodations and the best living, and where the smallest return will be required for what they receive. It is painful thus to speak of these human beings, lest, in bringing their degradation distinctly before the mind, we should even for a moment check the commiseration which is so strongly claimed for them. We feel bound therefore to say, that bad as they are, they are scarcely less sinned against in the treatment they receive, than they commit sin in the lawlessness of their lives. Every where viewed, and feeling themselves to be, outcasts; possessed of nothing, except the miserable clothing which barely covers them; accustomed to beggary, and wholly dependent upon it; with no local attachments, except those which grow out of the facilities which in some places they may find for a more unrestrained indulgence than in others; with no friendships, and neither feeling nor awakening sympathy; is it surprising that they are debased and shameless, alternately insolent and servile, importunate for the means of subsistence and self-gratification, and averse from every means but that of begging to obtain them? The peculiar attraction of these unhappy fellow beings to our Commonwealth, and their preference for it over the States to the south of us, we believe is to be found in the legal provision which the State has made for them. Your Commissioners have indeed but a small amount of direct evidence of this; but the testimony of the chairman of the overseers in Egremont to this fact, derived from personal knowledge, was most unequivocal, and no doubt upon the subject existed in the minds of the overseers in many other towns. But shall we therefore condemn, or even severely blame them? Considered and treated, in almost every place, as interlopers, strollers, vagrants; as objects of suspicion and dread, and, too often, scarcely as human beings; the cheapest methods are adopted of sending them from town to town, and often with the assurance given to them that *there*, and not *here* are accommodations for them, and that *there* they may enjoy the bounty which the State has provided for them. Would such a state of things, your Commissioners ask, have existed in our Commonwealth, if a specific, legal provision had not been made for this class

of the poor? Or, we do not hesitate to ask, if the Government had never recognized such a class of the poor as that of State's poor,—and, above all, if compulsory charity, in any form, had never been established by our laws, would there have been a twentieth part of the wandering poor which now exists in it, or by any means an equal proportion of poor of any kind with that which is now dependent upon the taxes which are raised for them? Your Commissioners think not.

Again. There is another fact in this connection which your Commissioners think to be deserving of distinct and serious consideration. We refer to the fact, which is sustained by the concurrent judgment of all the overseers under whose notice these wandering poor pass, that nearly all of them are able, *and if kept from ardent spirits and compelled to work*, would show themselves to be able, *to earn their own subsistence*. They are so far able-bodied that they can travel from early spring-time till the cold of the closing year forces them to seek for winter quarters, and then, while many continue in the interior of the State, from a preference of the towns in which they may be supported while they live at liberty, others seek the more comfortable asylums of warm and well-furnished almshouses. The distinction is a broad one, and should never be lost sight of, between the able idler and the impotent poor; for while the duty is most plain in regard to the latter, and enforced alike by the principles of religion and of humanity, that they are to be supported by those who have the means and opportunity of supporting them, it is equally clear, from the same principles, that the able-bodied and the idle have no claim to support from a tax upon the capacity and the property of the industrious. On the contrary, we maintain, that the idle and able may and should be compelled to work, when it is manifest that they might, if they would, live by their labour; and when they live by beggary, only because they are not disposed to labour for their subsistence. With regard to them, the rights and duties of the Government are unquestionable. A man who has not the means of living because he is idle, and might have them if he were industrious, and willing to labour in proportion to his strength, incurs a debt to the community for all that he receives from it; and if he refuses to pay this debt, the Government may of right compel him to pay it. Hence, in a community in which such idlers are found, the Government may authorize the erection of workhouses for their employment and support. They may make appropriations from their Treasury for the erection and establishment of such workhouses, and may enact the laws by which the peaceable and industrious may be defended against the encroachments of the idle, and the willing and able beggar, and by which these offenders may be made to return to the community, in such proportions as they can, for the expenditures which may have been incurred for them. The examples which will be found in the statements appended to this Report, of the amount of labour which may be done upon the highways by a select portion of the poor, and of the very class for which county or district workhouses are required, in addition to those of the success of other modes of employing them, are strikingly in point, and are great encouragements to the establishment of these institutions, in contradistinction to almshouses, which should be asylums for the impotent, and as far as possible for the virtuous poor. Few circumstances furnish more unequivocal indications of an advanced state of civilization than the good condition of those highways which are the thoroughfare of a country. Through the encouragement of workhouses, well appointed and governed, the legislature may do much for the county roads of our Commonwealth, and in this way, at once without encroaching upon any of the departments of labour in which the virtuous poor obtain their subsistence, and with a truly parental regard to the well-being of all, it may provide for many of the wandering and other able-bodied State's poor, and for some too of the town's poor, not only without intrenching upon any right or duty of religion or of humanity, but in direct accordance with one of the objects for which Christianity recognizes its appointment, that is, that it may be "a terror at once to evil-doers, and a praise and encouragement to them that do well."

Again. Your Commissioners think the fact to be deserving of the very serious consideration of the legislature, that while every town which was visited, and to which the inquiry was proposed, "Are the overseers of the poor more ready to aid those known as State's poor, because there is a State allowance for them?" disclaimed for itself the disposition in any way to abuse this provision, the exception yet scarcely occurred in which the suspicion or the conviction was not expressed, of abuses of this provision in other towns, which were freely named, and even of a far more widely extended abuse of it than would be susceptible of proof by legal evidence. Your Commissioners would express no opinion of the correctness or of the incorrectness of this judgment. They bring it before the legislature as one of the actual and great, perhaps inevitable, but certainly admonitory circumstances in the connexion which can hardly fail to exert an important influence upon the decision to be made on the subject of a State provision for the poor. Kindly disposed as our towns are towards each other, and generous as are the sentiments with which we see them regarding each other's interests, and strong as are the bonds of trade, and friendship, and kindred, by which their sympathies and interests are connected, it is yet well known that there are sometimes conflicting interests between them. And for what more important than these exigencies are the annual meetings of our legislatures required? What higher object, or duty, has the legislature of our favoured State, than to devise the means of lessening, as far as may be practicable, the causes of suspicion between towns; of reconciling differences which may arise between them; of maintaining to each one its own rights and possessions; and of guarding, with impartial fidelity, and with equal watchfulness, the rights and interests of all? With the exception of the suspicion and conviction here referred to,—for in some places it was but suspicion, while in others it was strong conviction,—your Commissioners know of no prevailing cause of unkindly feeling in the towns of our Commonwealth towards each other. But this they know to be a standing and increasing cause of far other feelings than those of

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respect or kindness. They are fully aware of all the care and caution which are required in the adoption of a remedy for so long continued and deep settled an evil as is our "pauper system" as by law established. But they not only think that the evil is not remediless, but that there is a wide-spread disposition in the Commonwealth to co-operate in a well-matured plan for as complete as possible a correction of it. The evil, it is believed, is now apprehended in its true character, as it has not before been; and the conviction of its tendency to an indefinite growth, and consequently to an entailment of an indefinite extent of want, and misery, and vice upon our prosperity, is as strong as that of its past increase, or of its immediate greatness. We wish not unnecessarily to enlarge upon this or upon any topic; but only to present each with sufficient distinctness to obtain for it the consideration which it may justly claim.

Again. Your Commissioners would call attention to the manner of disposing of the poor, as it is presented in the statements here adduced, in towns which have not land for their employment; to the comparative expenditures for the poor in these places, when they are aided or supported while at large, and when they are gathered into poor-houses; and to a comparative view of the expenditures for the poor in the towns which have provided farms, previous to and after this provision has been made for them. These are circumstances of great importance, not only for the consideration of the legislature upon the questions which the whole subject will bring before them, but not less for the instruction of towns, as to the best modes which have yet been adopted among us, for the charge of the poor.

In regard to the manner of disposing of the poor at auction to the lowest bidder for them, your Commissioners would only remark, that there is an increasing sensibility, in many of the towns where this practice is still retained, as well as to the question of its propriety, as a matter of moral right, as of its economy; and that a strong solicitude is expressed in these, as indeed it is in all towns, to know what other towns have done and are doing with their poor, and the results, both moral and pecuniary, of the experiments which have been made of the various modes of supporting them. With respect, however, to the towns first referred to, that is, in which farms have not been provided for the poor, the advantages, both moral and pecuniary, are most manifest in the cases in which the poor have been gathered into poor-houses, over the results in the same towns, when the poor were supported at large in them. For example, previous to the last nine years, when the poor in Framingham were disposed of in a mass to the lowest bidder, the annual cost for them was from 12 to \$1,400. But since that time they have been in the care of individuals who contracted for the charge of the whole of them, and who had the right to avail themselves of their capacities of labour, and the cost for them has been diminishing, till for the last three years its amount has been but \$535 a year. Again. Previous to the last 12 years, the poor in Pittsfield were boarded out by the overseers in private families, and the average cost for them then was \$1,600 a year. For the first six of these twelve years, during which they were supported by a contractor, who had provided a house for them, the cost for them was \$1,050 a year, and for the last six of these 12 years, a second contractor, who had also provided a house for those who should require the charity of the town, took the whole pecuniary responsibility for the poor for \$1,100 a year, and half of the State's allowance for the State's poor. Again. In the town of Deerfield, the poor, for the last 10 years, have been in the charge of one individual, who contracted to take them for that term for \$450 per annum from the town, with the addition of the State's allowance for the State's poor, and the amount which might be obtained from other towns, for the charge of their poor. This contract was made in consequence of the offer of the contractor to take the whole pecuniary responsibility for the poor for 10 years, at 10 per cent. less than they had cost the town during the preceding 10 years. And still more remarkable is the case furnished by the town of Sheffield, where, previous to the last five years, the poor dependent on the overseers had lived at large. In this town, for the last five years, they have been in the charge of one individual, who provided an almshouse for them, at which only, except in cases of extreme necessity, the town would assist them. During the year before this provision, 49 poor were in the charge of the overseers, and the cost for them was \$1,967. But when it was made known that the contractor would give assistance to none but at the almshouse, except in cases of illness in which they could not be removed to it, only 17 of these 49 could be persuaded on these terms to accept of aid from the town. Two of the State's poor at once removed to Egremont, an adjoining town, where they could be supported while living at large, and where they still were when the agent of your Commissioners visited that town, and where for four years they have received, and still continue to receive, the State allowance. The consequence was, an immediate reduction of expenses for the poor to a sum less than half of that which had before been required for them; and the whole cost for the poor of this town, during the last year, was \$665. It is worthy of being noted also, that when the agent of the Commissioners visited the almshouse in Sheffield, in November last, there were in it but eight inmates; nor have the moral advantages of this mode of providing for the poor, over that of setting them up at auction to the lowest bidder, been less than the pecuniary. The idle and able-bodied, who yet love liberty more than they hate labour, have been induced or compelled to work, rather than submit to the restraints of an almshouse; and the thriftless have been made provident and careful, that they might eke out a more comfortable living from their own resources. Nor is it an unimportant circumstance, that while the comfort of the permanent and impotent poor is very greatly increased by the cleanliness, the wholesome food, the clothing and beds, and the moral order of a well-regulated almshouse, their hearts and characters are equally improved by this provision for them. The beneficial effects of a similar change in other places have been less striking; but they have been real and great.

Nor less interesting and instructive are the results which have come from the experiment of

of farms for the employment and support of the poor, especially if we regard, in this connexion, the facilities which these establishments give for debarring the poor from the use of ardent spirits. For example, we refer to Salem: there, we are told, the average expense for the poor for the last ten years has been less than half of the average of the former ten years in the old almshouse, in which no work was done, and the number of poor in the house has been reduced 50 a year for the last two years, and the house far more easily governed than before. These last results are attributed principally to an entire disuse of ardent spirits in the house. In Lynn, the expense for the poor has been diminished \$500 a year, for the last four years, partly from the disuse of ardent spirits, in part from a reduction of the number of the poor, and in part from improvements made in the general discipline of the house. The average cost for the poor in Waltham before the establishment of the farm was \$675 per annum, and the balance against the town for them last year was \$239 04. In Littleton, the annual average cost for the poor, before their removal to the farm provided for them, was \$800; but the balance against the town for their support last year was \$244 38. In Lexington, the chairman of the overseers of the poor knows the cost for them, before the establishment of the farm, to have been as high as \$1,600 in a year; but the balance against the town for them last year was \$529 75. In Marlborough, the average for the poor before their removal to a farm was \$1,550 per annum; and the balance against the town for their support last year was \$310 78. For other examples we refer to the annexed statements, observing only in passing, that while the expenditures for the poor in Andover during the last year were \$1,880 03, the receipts from the farm were \$2,108 78, giving a balance to the town from the establishment of \$228 75; the farm there, however, it is important to observe, has the great advantage of a brick-yard upon it, and the last was a year of extraordinary revenue from this source. These, your Commissioners repeat, they think to be very interesting and instructive facts. For the capacities of labour among the inmates of these establishments, they refer again to the statements herewith offered. These capacities, it will appear, are very few and small, but the employment of them is a great moral as well as pecuniary good. Too great importance, indeed, can hardly be attached to the character and qualifications of a superintendent of these establishments, for on these almost wholly depend the question of the good or evil results of the institution; but where there is a well-qualified superintendent at the head of our almshouse, there is a moral order and a comfort in the house, as well as a saving from the establishment, the most gratifying to a benevolent mind. In such almshouses, the food and lodging of the inmates are as good as those of an average of their neighbours, nor are these inmates ever tasked by a service which is not alike salutary for their bodies and their minds. Generally, also, in proportion as towns are self-dependent for the charge of the poor, they are inquisitive and active upon the questions how they may at once most humanely and most economically provide for them, and the resources not only of prudence but of humanity, are more and more faithfully employed for provision for them. This is a consideration to be well weighed, in view of every expedient for a legislative provision for the poor; for in proportion as such provision shall chill, or in any way check this feeling in towns of individual responsibility for the poor, it at once ministers to the increase of abject pauperism, and of all the evil consequences which are connected with it.

Again. Your Commissioners would simply advert to the number stated in the Tables to have been brought to poverty, directly or indirectly, by intemperance, and to a comparison of this number with that of those from which it was derived, and which was the number in the charge of the overseers at the time when the towns referred to were visited by the agent of this Commissioner. In a large proportion of these towns the number thus said to have been brought to poverty was determined by a very careful examination into the subject; and the agent of the Commissioners, when seeking for information upon this subject, again and again expressed to the overseers of the poor the importance of avoiding all exaggeration upon it. On this subject we leave the facts without comment; but they are alike admonitory to the Legislature, to towns, and to every individual who is interested in the cause of human security, virtue and happiness.

These are the principal facts to which your Commissioners think it important to give distinctness in their Report, as the whole documents on the subject, in as compressed a form as could be given to them, will be laid before the Legislature. They are glad, however, in this connection, to recall attention to a very able Report on the Pauper Laws of this Commonwealth, which was made in 1821 to the Legislature by a Committee, of which Mr. Quincy, now President of Harvard University, was chairman. In that Report reference is made to all the modes described in our statements of providing for the poor. Since that time, however, the number of almshouses, with farms for the employment and support of the poor, has greatly increased; and an important change, important as well to the morals and happiness of the poor as to the wise economy of towns, has been and is going on in the Commonwealth, in the disposition made of the poor in towns which have not almshouses, or farms for employing them. Where they are still committed to the care of the lowest bidder for them, this bidder is now, far more generally than he was in former times, required to take the charge of the whole number of the poor, with, perhaps, the exception of a few individuals who require a peculiar care; to provide a house in which they may live together; and, by placing them under a superintendence, which will do something for the cause of moral restraint and moral order among them, to check the tendencies to idleness, to intemperance, and to a willing dependence on public bounty. Our towns, indeed, require only to be brought under the necessity of giving their serious attention to the question, "of the wisest methods of providing for the poor?" to secure that attention to it. Let the Legislature

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hold itself bound, by its duty of equal watchfulness over all, and of impartial justice towards all, at once to defend the peaceful and industrious in their rightful possessions, and not to take from them those possessions for the support of those who are idle, and who refuse to work; and as carefully let it recognize the principle, that for the cases of human want and suffering, for which God has himself made provision at once in his word and in the principles of our common nature, human laws are not to be interposed to prescribe the manner or the amount of that charity which want and suffering may demand in man from his fellow man; and we feel assured, that although for a time, in the transition state during which the Commonwealth's allowance for the poor shall first be considerably diminished from what it now is, and the diminution continued for a few years till it shall cease and be utterly abolished, many of the State's poor, and especially of the wandering poor of this class, may be brought under increased suffering; the number of this whole class of the poor will soon be perceived to be gradually decreasing, from the failure of the encouragements they have hitherto had to migrate into our Commonwealth for support. Let these principles be recognized and acted upon, and the whole number of poor in the State will gradually be decreasing, and the comfort both of those who shall require the aid of towns and of those who may be left wholly to private bounty will be greatly extended. A violation of these principles ever has been, and your Commissioners think ever will be, followed by disastrous consequences. Let there be no laws requiring the support of the poor, and the claims of those who need assistance, and who can do nothing for themselves, will never in our community be disregarded. Let there be no laws requiring the support of the poor, and the rights of those who have been made poor by circumstances beyond their control will be cheerfully acknowledged, and the corresponding duties towards them as cheerfully performed.

"It was impossible for your Committee," says the Report referred to of 1821, "while contemplating the effect of the existing system of poor laws in Massachusetts, not to turn their attention to the state of the same subject in England. In this part of the British nation, a system of poor laws prevails, having the same original and a similar principle with our own; and it will be found not only that the results of her experience are, in a remarkable degree, similar to our own, but also that the reasoning and opinions of her statesmen and writers on political economy, founded on that experience, are singularly coincident with the facts detailed and the opinions expressed in almost every important document obtained from the returns of the overseers of the poor in Massachusetts. In contemplating these coincidences, the anxiety of your Committee was not allayed, but, on the contrary, their sense of the vital importance to Massachusetts of adopting a just system on this subject was in an extreme degree augmented, by a comparison of the effects of their common pauper system upon the pecuniary resources of England, and upon those of this Commonwealth. The returns of the towns, under the request of the Legislature at their last session, being in point of number but a little more than half of all the towns in the Commonwealth, it is impossible for your Committee to compare the gross aggregate of all the pauper expenses of the Commonwealth with those of Great Britain. But if the proportion of the increase of the payments out of the Treasury of this Commonwealth for the last twenty years be taken as an evidence of the proportion of the increase of the pauper burthen on Massachusetts, then the proportion of the increase of the pauper burthen on Massachusetts has exceeded, in a given number of years, the proportion of the increase of the pauper burthen of Great Britain. It appears by an official statement, made in the year 1816 to The House of Commons, and published in a Report of a Select Committee of that House, on the Poor laws, that the proportion of the increase of the British poor-rate, between the years 1785 and 1815, was, in round numbers, from two millions sterling to five millions. In other words, there was *an increase of three-fifths in thirty years*. According to an annexed Statement* of the Treasurer of Massachusetts, it appears that the increase of the payments out of the Treasury of this State on pauper accounts, between the years 1800 and 1821, was, in round numbers, from \$28,000 to \$72,000; in other words, an increase of three-fifths

* We here subjoin the Statement referred to.

Years.	Amount allowed Winter Session.	Amount allowed Summer Session.	Total Amount for the Year.	REMARKS.
1801	\$ 18,395 69	\$ 9,704 39	\$ 28,100 08	Of the amount of pauper accounts allowed in the June Session 1818, and January Session 1819, there were from Massachusetts Proper - - \$54,188 70 Maine - - - - 12,883 25 \$67,071 95
1811	31,846 10	20,283 82	52,129 92	
1812	31,002 80	20,257 20	51,260 00	
1813	32,306 35	22,696 02	55,002 37	
1814	37,207 69	23,150 06	60,357 75	
1815	36,228 43	21,186 94	57,415 37	
1816	36,722 34	26,249 58	62,971 92	
1817	30,550 41	35,245 75	65,796 16	
1818	39,098 50	27,458 43	66,556 93	
1819	39,613 52	32,543 37	72,156 89	
1820	47,327 13	25,335 41	72,662 54	

A true Abstract.

(signed) Daniel Sargent, Treasurer.

* Treasury Office, January 1821.

fifths in twenty years.* Without pretending to assert that the payments out of the Treasury of the State is a true criterion of the increase of the pauper burthen in Massachusetts, your Committee do consider themselves justified by the fact, in concluding that the pernicious consequences of the existing system are palpable, that they are increasing, and that they imperiously call for the interference of the Legislature, in some manner equally prompt and efficacious."†

The radical evil of the Act of the 43d of Elizabeth, which provided for a compulsory support of the poor, and of the Order by the Court of the colony and province of Massachusetts Bay in 1639, was in the very principle of the substitution of such a provision for them, for that which God has himself made alike in the very constitution of human nature, and throughout the records of His revealed will. Nor is this all. For while the Act of Elizabeth directly required that the sum granted should be applied to the setting the idle to work, and the order of our own court was for the employment as well as maintenance of the poor, neither of them adopted any measures or prescribed any means by which the object of the enactment or of the order could be obtained. The consequence in England is well known to have been, that the idle, aware of the provision which was made for them by law, on the condition that they would work for it, were willing to offer their services for work, when it was known that no work could be given to them. They had, however, earned their share of the appropriation which had been made for them, by the offer to work, and it could not be withheld from clamorous importunity, when the failure of compliance with the terms on which the wages had been offered by the Government was wholly in those to whom it belonged to pay these wages to those who had earned them. This provision for the employment of the idle became, therefore, as a matter of course, a direct bounty upon idleness; and idleness and vagrancy, in a large part of the parent country, have grown in a fearful proportion to the poor rates of that country. To exonerate ourselves from the possible charge of exaggeration in this view of a legal and compulsory provision for the poor, we avail ourselves of a high and impartial authority. We mean that of Dr. Chalmers of Glasgow. In his Treatise on Political Economy, recently republished here, he says of "this system of legal charity," that it "is replete with all mischief." That "it has deadened the charity of relatives, the charity of immediate neighbours, and the charity of the affluent." That "in proportion to the largeness of its dispensations, we behold a more straitened and distressed, and withal a greatly suffering peasantry." "And how is it," he adds, "that indigence has been so multiplied under this system? Not alone by the imprudence which it has generated; as may be seen in the reckless marriages, and the relaxed industry and economy of the people. But also in the vice which it has generated; the low and loathsome dissipation; the profligacy of both sexes; with all the mischiefs which proceed from idleness; and through which the pauperism of England has become so deeply responsible for its immoralities, and its crimes. And, again, how is it that charity has waxed cold? Because law has endeavoured, however unsuccessfully, to cut off the occasions and the calls which nature had provided for its exercise. Hence the abandonment of children by their parents, and the desertion of parents by their children. Hence the frequent spectacle in every parish, of runaway husbands, and of nearest relatives alienated in affection because released from the obligation of duty to each other. Nor has it only weakened the cement which binds together the contiguous parts of the social edifice. It has effected a menacing disruption, or rent, between the higher and lower divisions of it. There is in England a gulf of separation between the rich and the poor, exemplified we believe in no other land; where the parties regard each other as natural enemies,—the one challenging what they feel to be their rightful allowances, and the other resisting what they fear to be interminable, and at length ruinous demands. The poor look to the rich as hard-hearted oppressors, detaining with stern gripe what nature and humanity determine to be theirs; and the rich look to the poor as so many poachers on their domain. Nor can we imagine a state of greater precariousness than that into which this system of public charity has brought us; or one which bodes more fearfully for the good order, or rather the stability of the Commonwealth. It has in fact vitiated and distempered the whole breath of society in England. There now sits an unnatural scowl on the aspect of the population; a resolved sturdiness in their attitude and gait; and whether we look to the profane recklessness of their habits, or to the deep and settled hatred that rankles in their hearts, we cannot but read in these moral characteristics of this land, the omens of some great and impending overthrow." ‡

Is

We are glad to be able, in addition to this Statement, to give the amount allowed by the Commissioners on Accounts for the support of State paupers from June 1792 to January 1801.

Years.	Amount.	REMARKS.
1793	\$ 14,424 71	These Amounts were furnished by the Secretary of the Treasury. That of 1793 comprehends the allowance in the June Session of 1792, which was \$86,639 54. The other Amounts are the Totals of the June and January Sessions, except that in 1796 there were three allowances; that is, in January, June, and November.
1794	15,735 29	
1795	17,928 87	
1796	19,886 25	
1797	20,826 53	
1798	27,028 12	
1799	25,742 11	
1800	26,394 37	

* Is not this increase nearly eight-fifths?

† Chalmers on Political Economy, p. 404-7.

‡ See printed Report, pp. 2, 3.

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.Pauper System
of Massachusetts.

Is this a true picture of the moral state of England, in view of its pauperism, and its legal provisions for the poor? May God grant that the lesson may be sent home, with power and effect, to the legislatures of the States in our Union! Solemn, in the view of your Commissioners, is the responsibility which lies upon our own Commonwealth, for its agency, however unwitting, in having created so much of the mass which is found here of pauperism and wretchedness, by the provision which has annually been granted for supporting it. And when to this consideration it is added, that every individual of the reckless and vicious poor contributes his or her share to the hardening of the heart against the best sympathies of our common nature; that every individual of them contributes a share to the diminution of the charities that would be extended to, and the comforts that would be obtained by, the virtuous poor; and that through their character and example, intemperance and profligacy are spread among other classes of the poor; we cannot doubt that the obligation will be strongly felt to admit the immediate and paramount claims of this subject; and to lose no time in the work of devising the means, and adopting the measures by which legal charity having been abolished, and every town being left free to be charitable only in the way which itself shall choose, and institute a more humane and Christian state of things in regard to the poor, and the whole poor, may be established among us.

"It forms no exception to our principle," adds the distinguished political economist whose words we have before cited, "but is rather its legitimate consequence, that while we deprecate a legal and compulsory provision for indigence, there is a certain species of public charity, which we advocate to the uttermost. There are certain distresses incidental to humanity, the inflictions of necessity and nature, which cannot be too openly or too liberally provided for. There is all the difference that can be imagined, both in principle and effect, between an institution for the relief of want and an institution for the relief of disease. The one multiplies its objects. Not so the other. The one enlists the human will on its side. The other will ever remain the object of painful reluctance and revolt to all the feelings of our nature. Open a door for the admission of the indigent, and we shall behold a crowd of applicants increasing every year, because lured thitherward by the inviting paths of indolence and dissipation. Open a door for the admission of the diseased,"—and we may add, for the deaf and dumb, the insane, the idiot, the blind,—and we shall have only a definite number of applicants. Men will become voluntarily poor. But they will not become voluntarily blind, or deaf, or maimed, or lunatic. It is thus that while an asylum for want creates more objects than it can satisfy, an asylum for disease creates none, but may meet all and satisfy all. Public charity has been profuse where it should have done nothing; and it has been niggardly where it should have done much. It is a disgrace to our philanthropic age, if infirmaries, or dispensaries, or asylums, whether for the cure of mental or bodily disease, or for the keeping of that which is incurable, are left to languish for the want of support; or are compelled to stop short ere the necessity for which they were instituted has been fully and finally overtaken."*

Other facts and considerations than we have adduced will be furnished by our Tables and Statements, which we believe will throw light upon the operations and consequences of our Poor Laws. Leaving these, as well as those of which we have here availed ourselves, to those to whose examination we are desirous that they should be submitted, we would further only briefly remark, that increased and increasing as are the expenses which are consequent upon a legal and compulsory provision for the poor, in any form which may be given to it, these are yet unworthy of a thought, when compared with the moral evils of the system. In the only body of Christians, either in our own country or in England, which has confined itself to the obligations of Christian charity, without any regard to legal and compulsory provisions for the poor, the number dependent upon charity has been as nothing when compared with the number of the same class in other sects. We refer to the Society of Quakers or Friends. And their principle and practice in this respect stand out in most honourable prominence, at once as evidence that when the law of Christian charity is left to its unchecked operation, it will be sufficient for the demands that will be made upon it; and that it is the sure and benignant effect of this charity, unlike that of law, which alienates to bind more closely together those who impart, and those who receive it. Human laws may punish crime, and they may do much beside to prevent it. But they cannot compel virtue. And, independent of this consideration, it may be remarked of all legislative provisions for the support of the poor, that however wisely in other respects they may be framed, their execution must be committed to a very numerous body of men, to be annually elected, and to a great extent to be annually changed. It therefore almost every where happens, that the majority, and not unfrequently that the whole of the Board, after each election, are to act only for the current year. The duties of the office are, however, complex; requiring not only a full comprehension of the law upon the subject, but considerable attention and experience to qualify for a just and wise application of it. And how many, pre-engaged as men are by other concerns, will give to the subject, in view of a year's service in it, the care and attention which it demands from them? On the contrary, how very large a proportion of this body, solicitous principally not to incur censure in the discharge of their trust, will get as soon as possible into the established routine, with very little regard to the nature and tendency of established usages? The high responsibilities of the office being thus divided, and proportionably lessened, are scarcely felt; and growing evils are witnessed and acknowledged without calling forth a serious effort to repress, or even

* Chalmers' Political Economy, Glasgow edition, pp. 418, 19.

even to check them. We take the ground therefore, that be compulsory laws of charity as wise as they may, and as well suited to their end as human sagacity can make them, they never can be wisely and efficiently administered. They carry within themselves the seeds or principles of their own perversion and abuse. They do much to separate, instead of connecting the classes of society, and to benumb, rather than to quicken and give force to, the sensibilities of the prospered towards the poor. And they create an indefinite amount of artificial poverty; and, through the increase of this poverty, they lead to an indefinite increase of abjectness, misery and crime.*

In view of these facts and considerations, your Commissioners propose to this House, and through this House to the Legislature of the Commonwealth;

1st. That in each of the three successive years of 1833, 1834, and 1835, the allowance now granted for the State's poor be diminished one-third of its present amount; and that after the year 1835, there shall be no longer a recognition of State's poor by the Government of this Commonwealth.

2d. That the law respecting habitancy, now established in this Commonwealth, shall be so far modified and changed, that from and after the year 1835, all the requisitions of this law respecting the charge and support of the poor shall be repealed and abolished; and every town and county in the State shall be left free upon all questions respecting the charge and support of the poor.

3d. As government was instituted for the security of the life, liberty and property of the subject, and as neither liberty, property nor life are safe while the idle and able-bodied may without restraint demand support from the industrious and the thrifty, it is therefore the duty of the government to protect the last class against the unjust demands and incursions of the first. As far, therefore, as this protection may require that any additional power should be given, in order that the able-bodied who shall apply for charity to any town or county in the Commonwealth, and shall actually receive the support applied for, may be compelled to work, your Commissioners recommend that this power be given to the overseers of the poor and the directors of workhouses, to compel the labour of such idle-bodied receivers of their bounty, to an extent to defray all expenses that may have been incurred for them, and to make a reasonable compensation for the care that may have been taken of them.

4th. As a means of checking and of preventing idleness and beggary, where there is ability for self-support, your Commissioners recommend that Government should appropriate such an amount as they may think proper, to be granted to counties or districts in the Commonwealth, upon a scale proportioned in each case to their population, provided these counties or districts, or any of them, shall agree and determine to build county or district workhouses for the employment of the idle and able-bodied who may receive aid or support in them.

5th. As it is believed by your Commissioners, and by all, as they think, who have given attention to the subject, that pauperism in its worst form, as well as crime, is increased and extended in the Commonwealth by the unsuitableness of our county gaols and houses of correction for the exertion of any useful moral influence upon those who are or may be committed to them, and even by their direct and strong tendencies utterly to destroy any remains of self-respect or of moral feeling which may be carried into them, the attention of the Government should be given as promptly as may be to the character and condition of these institutions. Your Commissioners therefore recommend, that a committee be appointed be appointed by this House for the special purpose of visiting the county gaols and houses of correction in the Commonwealth, of collecting statistics respecting them, and of reporting to the House upon the measures required to make these institutions effectual to the purposes for which they were intended.

6th. As there is not only a manifest injustice in the practice, which is but too prevalent, of sending the poor from town to town in order to be relieved from the charge of them; and as this conduct towards the poor, though it may relieve some towns from an immediate care and expense, has yet contributed largely to the increase of the class of the wandering poor, and thus to the general burthen of expense, as well as to the increase of want and wretchedness, your Commissioners recommend, that a penalty be attached to this practice sufficiently heavy, or some other provision adopted, to effect and secure its discontinuance in our State.

7th. As there is an increasing disposition in towns to establish institutions in which the poor may live together in a family, rather than at large, and in which all who have any capacity for labour may be required to employ that capacity for their own and the support of their fellow inmates; and as there is no model institution in our Commonwealth which admits of such classification as should be made and maintained at once from sympathy with the virtuous and impotent poor, for the restraint of the vicious poor, and the prevention of pauperism; your Commissioners recommend that the Legislature incur some expense for obtaining plans of almshouses and workhouses, which will supply towns and counties with a knowledge

* One of the greatest difficulties which was experienced in collecting the Statistics which are here given of the poor, arose from the fact, that the overseers from whom they were obtained had never sustained the office till the present year; that, till their election to it, they had given little or no attention to the town's accounts of the poor, or to the practice of overseers; and, in some instances, that they had not in their possession any records of their predecessors. Now and then, though not often, it occurred, that the Chairman of the Board had held the office, and perhaps some others in it, for a number of successive years; and had been allowed to bring the knowledge which their experience had given them, to bear upon its duties. And in these towns little or no difficulty was found in obtaining the information which was sought.

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.Pauper System
of Massachusetts.

a knowledge of the most effectual and at the same time the most economical modes of separating, classifying, and in other respects providing for, the poor inmates of these institutions.

8th. Your Commissioners recommend that the Legislature provide by law for an annual statistical return of the poor, and of the prisoners in every county gaol and house of correction, in every town and county in the Commonwealth.

9th. Your Commissioners would finally recommend, that a Committee be appointed, in view of this Report, and the documents accompanying it, to prepare a Bill or Bills, and such resolutions as may be required, on the basis of the principles and for the accomplishment of the purposes here proposed; and, as soon as may be, to make report of said Bill or Bills and resolutions to this House.

Respectfully submitted,

W. B. Calhoun,
H. Shaw,
J. Caldwell,
J. Tuckerman.

January 11th, 1833.

STATEMENTS.

FIRST.—Of Almshouses which have more or less Land for the employment and support of the Poor; of Expenditures and Receipts for the Poor in the Towns in which they are so provided for; with general Facts and Remarks which could not conveniently be stated in Tables.

COUNTY OF SUFFOLK.

Boston.—Boston has two distinct boards for the charge of the poor; viz. the overseers of the poor, and the directors of the house of industry. The overseers give relief only to the poor who are at large in the city. The directors of the house of industry have the charge of those only who are in the house.

The house of industry contains fifty-five lodging-rooms in the main house for the poor, and thirty-two in two out-houses. That is, it has eighty-seven lodging-rooms for the poor. It has also six cells for the punishment of refractory inmates, six dormitories for insane men, and eight for insane women. Husbands and wives are not allowed to live in the same room. The centre of the building contains apartments for the family of the superintendent, and others for the officers of the establishment. The male inmates live in the eastern wing, and the females in the western. There is also a chapel in the house, in which the inmates worship on Sunday, and a school-house in which the children are instructed.

When this establishment was commenced, it was intended for the reception and employment of the able-bodied poor, who should claim the charity of the city; and hence it was called *The House of Industry*. But it has no effectual means of detaining this class of the poor, when they are disposed to make their escape from it. They go to it, therefore, only for temporary relief, when they are worn down by intemperance or disease; and leave it as soon as they have acquired strength to return to their former indulgences in the city, or to lead a wandering life in travelling over the country. Instead of being a house of industry, the institution has therefore become at once a general infirmary, an asylum for the insane, and a refuge for the deserted and most destitute children of the city. So great is the proportion of the aged and infirm, of the sick, insane, idiots and helpless children in it, that nearly all the effective labour of the females, and much of that of the males, is required for the care of those who cannot take care of themselves. Cooking, washing and ironing, making and mending clothes, scouring the house, nursing the sick, and the charge of small children and lunatics, make a great amount of labour. For these reasons, the house of industry furnishes a very unfair specimen of the self-supporting capacities of the poor. During the spring, summer and autumn, the cultivation of the farm and garden employs most of the ablest men, and oakum picking the more infirm. There are generally two or three carpenters among the inmates, one or two blacksmiths, as many shoemakers, and sometimes a mason. For these, employment is found in making repairs within and about the buildings.

It is a great evil of the institution, that the children who are in it cannot be kept apart from its adult inmates.

The cost per week for board and clothing, is estimated to be about eighty cents for adults, and fifty cents for children.

The directors of the house of industry, and the overseers of the poor, have no salaries. The salary of the superintendent of the house, is \$1,000; of the assistant superintendent, \$650; of the farmer, \$250; of the overseer of the kitchen, \$130; of the overseer of the clothing department, \$130; of the teacher of the female children, \$159; of the instructor of the boys, \$104; of the physician, \$300; of the chaplain, \$260. Total of salaries, \$2,983 00.

In a letter of the date of October 10th, 1832, the superintendent of the house of industry says, "within the last three weeks, sixty-seven persons have been admitted here, of whom fifty-eight are state paupers. Many of them are recent emigrants, who were half starved on the passage out, and who landed without a dollar, and destitute of bodily or mental energy to provide for themselves or their children. Several are mothers with young children, who have been abandoned by their husbands and fathers."

On the 17th of January last, the adults in the house belonging to Boston, were, 170. From other towns in Massachusetts, 33; from New Hampshire and Maine, each, 15; from Rhode Island, 4; from New York, 5; from Connecticut, 1; from New Jersey, 2; from Pennsylvania, 3; from Maryland, 2; from Virginia, 4; from N. and S. Carolina, and from Tennessee, each, 1. Total of American adults, 257. And from Ireland, 111; from England, 38; from Scotland, 5; from Germany, and the north of Europe, 15; from France, 5; from India, 1; from the West Indies, 3; from Portugal, 3; from Italy, 1; from Africa, 1. Total of adult foreigners, 183. Of American and foreign adults, 440. The children in the house at the same time, belonging to Boston, were 67. From other towns in

Massachusetts,

Massachusetts, 11; from other American States, 10; from Ireland, or children of Irish parents, 79; children of other foreigners, 16. Total number of children, 183. Total of adults and children, 623.

Ardent spirits are not given to the poor.

The whole expenditures for the Poor in the house last year, were	-	-	\$ 23,524	29
Interest upon \$86,465 63, the Cost of the Establishment	-	-	5,187	94

Total Expense for the Poor in the house	-	-	\$ 28,712	23
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Expended by the Overseers for Out-door Poor	-	-	14,857	92
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Total Expense of the Poor last year	-	-	\$ 43,570	15
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RECEIPTS:

From the Farm and Labour of the Poor in the house	-	-	\$ 2,682	03
From other Towns, for aid to their Poor	-	-	716	27
For State's Poor in the house	-	-	10,840	83
From other Towns, for Poor aided out of the house	-	-	1,178	81
For State's Poor out of the house	-	-	3,786	51

Total Receipts	-	-	\$ 19,204	45
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The whole Expenditures then, having been	-	-	\$ 43,570	15
And the whole Receipts	-	-	19,204	45

The Balance against the City was	-	-	\$ 24,365	70
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COUNTY OF ESSEX.

Salem.—The farm for the poor in Salem, contains 115, or 120 acres of land. Three-fourths of the land may be profitably cultivated. The farm contains valuable ledges of rock; considerable quantities of rotten rock, so called, suitable for forming yards and garden walks; and a sand beach, from which sand is sold for paving streets. The rocks and sand are the principal sources of the revenue of the farm. The workhouse is 200 feet long, and 50 feet wide, and is five stories high. The males live in the eastern wing, and the females in the western.

The average expense for the support of the poor for the last twelve years, has been less than half the average of the former ten years in the old workhouse, although the average number of the poor supported has been increased. In the old workhouse, no work was done. The average number there for the last twenty years, from 1793 to 1816, was 120. And the superintendent of the present house gives the average in it for the last twelve years to have been 230.—See documents of the Salem Almshouse, reported by a committee of the town, and ordered to be printed, 1832.

Of the average number 230, 30 are capable on an average of half a day's work, and 20 more may perform some service. The worth of the labour of the inmates who can do the most work, compared with that of able-bodied men, is as three to one. About \$900 a year are paid for hired work, independent of salaries.

The number of poor in the house has been reduced fifty a year for the last two years, and the house has been far more easily governed than formerly. These results are attributed, principally, to an entire disuse of ardent spirits in the house.

The overseers have no salaries. The salary of the superintendent is \$650; of the foreman of the farm, \$450; of the physician, \$120; and of the chaplain, \$100.

The State poor who come to the house, leave it as soon as they have strength enough to work. When they come in winter, they are required to remain and work in the spring. But "we wink at their departure, that the fear of punishment may deter them from returning."

Since the present superintendent has had the care of the house, that is, for ten years, there have been received into it 3,000 persons, of which number, he thinks that 2,900 were brought to it directly or indirectly by intemperance.

EXPENDITURES LAST YEAR,

For the Poor-house Establishment alone	-	-	\$ 11,152	16
For the Highways	-	-	1,880	91
For the Poor out of the house	-	-	720	61
Interest on the Cost of the Almshouse	-	-	2,700	00

Total Expense	-	-	\$ 16,453	68
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RECEIPTS:

For Labour on the Highways	-	-	\$ 1,077	78
For Rocks, Gravel, and other Sales from the Farm	-	-	3,116	36
Oakum, Manufactures, &c.	-	-	782	22
From other Towns, for aid to their Poor	-	-	102	95
From the State, for State's Poor	-	-	2,290	58

Total Receipts	-	-	\$ 7,369	89
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The Expenditures for the Poor and Highways having been	-	-	\$ 16,453	68
And the Receipts	-	-	7,369	89

The Balance against the Town was	-	-	\$ 9,083	79
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Marblehead.—The almshouse measures 66 by 32 feet. It has twelve lodging-rooms for the inmates. The female poor only, and a few married couples, live in the main house. The male subjects of the institution lodge in two large rooms of another house. The farm contains 20 acres; and 8 additional acres of hired land are cultivated by the inmates. The salary of the superintendent is \$300; that of the hired man, \$140; and two shillings a week, or \$17 33 a year, are paid to a female domestic.

Twelve of the male inmates are capable of two-thirds of a day's work, and about eight more could nearly earn their living. Two-thirds of the females might earn their support, and the remaining number are incapable of any work. The work done is, repairs of the highways, farming, oakum picking, shoe-making and mending, spinning and knitting.

The overseers are surveyors of the highways.

EXPENDITURES LAST YEAR,

For the Poor in the house	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 554 03
For the Poor out of the house	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4,219 91
For the Poor alone	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$4,773 94
For the Highways	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	577 25
Interest on the Cost of the Establishment, at \$10,000	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	600 00
Total for the Poor and Highways	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$5,951 19

RECEIPTS:

For the Labour of Team and Inmates on the Highways	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 577 25
From the Sale of Oakum	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,041 06
From the State, for State's Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	116 26
From other Towns, for their Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	00 00
Total of Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$1,734 57

The Expenditures, then, for the Poor and Highways having been	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5,951 19
And the Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,734 57

The Balance against the Town was	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$4,216 62
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Lynn.—The almshouse was built in 1819. It has twelve rooms for lodging its inmates, and measures 60 feet by 40. It does not admit of a classification of the poor; and great evils result from this defect in the institution. It has a farm of fifty acres of land, and the cost of the whole was about \$12,000. The superintendent has a salary of \$200 a year, and a hired man has \$120 a year. No other salaries are given.

Eight or ten men, and six or eight women are capable of labour. Their services are worth about half those of the able-bodied. The principal work done is that of making and binding shoes, and farming. None of the inmates are employed out of the house.

Ardent spirits are never given to the inmates. The expense for the poor has diminished \$500 a year for the last four years, partly from the disuse of ardent spirits, and in part from a reduction of the number of the poor, and an improvement in the general discipline of the house.

The children belonging to the institution are educated in the district school, and are bound out by 10 or 11 years of age.

The overseers are not surveyors of the highways.

Expenditures for the Poor in and out of the house, last year	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$1,441 01
Interest on the Cost of the Establishment, at \$1,200	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	720 00
Total Cost for the Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$2,161 01

For the Poor in the house	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$605 89
For the Poor out of the house	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	835 12
	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$1,441 01

RECEIPTS:

For the Labour of the Poor on the Highways, at 50 cts. per day	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$414 09
For the making of Shoes	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	514 37
For Sales of Produce from the Farm	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	319 88
From other Towns, for aid to their Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	50 00
From the State, for State's Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	207 22
Total of Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$1,505 56

The Expenditures, then, having been	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$2,161 01
And the Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,505 56

The Balance against the Town was	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$655 45
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Beverly.—The almshouse was built in 1803. It measures 70 by 50 feet, is two stories high, and has, or admits of, accommodations for 60 inmates. It was built when the town was rapidly increasing in its population, and regard was had in its erection to an expected increase of the poor with a continued increase of inhabitants. But a check was given to the growth of the town, and its numbers are now about the same as in 1803. A few acres of land are cultivated by the poor who are able to work,

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Appendix (F.)

Foreign Communications.

Pauper System of Massachusetts.

[illegible]

The salary of the master of the house is \$ 330 per annum. That of the hired man on the farm \$ 200 per annum ; and the five overseers receive for their services, \$ 30 each, or \$ 150.

RECEIPTS :

The Balance against the Town was - - - - \$ 2,801 63

The present cost for the poor is not more than one-fourth what it formerly was, even with the additional charge of the interest on the cost of the farm. The superintendent would take the farm for five years, and give bonds to support all the out and in-door poor of the town. Salary of the superintendent, \$ 225 ; of the hired man, \$ 125.

Appendix (F.)
Foreign
Communications.
Pauper System
of Massachusetts.

The whole Expenditures for the Establishment last year were	-	-	\$ 1,300 77
Interest on the Cost of the Farm	-	-	158 73
Total Cost	-	-	\$ 2,029 50
RECEIPTS:			
For Produce sold from the Farm	-	-	\$ 1,069 15
From the State, for State's Poor	-	-	116 75
From other Towns	-	-	00 00
Total Receipts	-	-	\$ 1,185 90
The Expenditures having been	-	-	\$ 2,029 50
And the Receipts	-	-	1,185 90
The Balance against the Town was	-	-	\$ 843 60

Rowley.—The almshouse was an old dwelling-house. It measures 36 feet by 30, and has ten lodging-rooms for the poor. The farm contains 107 acres; and the cost of the establishment was \$3,000.

The present superintendent has "turned away as many as twenty State's poor within the last six months, after giving them a lodging for a night, or dismissing them as soon as they were able to travel."

Three of the women spin and weave for the house. Four of the town's poor, three of whom can each do a day's work, labour upon the farm.

The children are sent to the town school. Religious services are performed in the house on Sunday evenings.

Ardent spirits are not given to the inmates.

The salary of the superintendent is \$225. The three overseers receive each, \$8; or together, \$24.

Expenditures for the Poor last year were	-	-	\$ 1,200 08
Interest on the Farm	-	-	180 00
Total Cost	-	-	\$ 1,380 08
RECEIPTS:			
For Sales from the Farm	-	-	\$ 66 32
For aid to the Poor of other Towns	-	-	3 75
From the State, for State's Poor	-	-	873 20
Total Receipts	-	-	943 27
The Expenditures having been	-	-	1,380 08
And the Receipts	-	-	943 27
The Balance against the Town was	-	-	\$ 436 81

Newbury.—The almshouse measures 60 feet by 30. It is an old house, and has been used as an almshouse about four and a half years. There are eight rooms for the poor in the main house, and one in a separate building. The single women lodge in this outhouse, and the other inmates in the main building. The farm contains 210 acres, and the cost of the establishment was \$7,500.

The poor work on the highways, and on the farm, pick oakum, and make shoes. The females spin and weave, but do not make cloth enough for the house. Three men can do a good day's work; two, a half of a day's work; and five, about a fourth of a day's work. No one of the State's poor did any work here during the last summer.

Magistrates send here those convicted of idleness and intemperance. Two of those now in the house were so sent.

The children are instructed in the town school. There are occasional religious services in the house in the evening.

The Expenditures for the Poor last year were	-	-	\$ 2,568 96
Interest on the cost of the farm	-	-	450 00
Total Cost	-	-	\$ 3,018 96
RECEIPTS:			
For Sales from the Farm	-	-	\$ 105 00
For Oakum	-	-	64 06
From other Towns for aid to their Poor	-	-	179 27
For the Board of an Inmate, paid by his friends	-	-	36 40
From the State for State's Poor	-	-	1,021 78
Total Receipts	-	-	\$ 1,406 51
The Expenditures, then, having been	-	-	\$ 3,018 96
And the Receipts	-	-	1,406 51
The Balance against the Town was	-	-	\$ 2,612 45

Newburyport.—The almshouse was built in 1793. It is of brick. The main house measures 80 feet by 30; and an addition has been made to it of 40 feet by 30. There are 25 rooms for lodging the inmates. The men live in one wing, and the women in the other. About 20 acres of land belong to the establishment, and the cost of the whole was \$11,800.

Employments. Working on the highways, and on the farm, and picking oakum. The oakum pickers, the feeblest of the workers, are 15; and 10 work on the highways and land. Of these workers, no one is a State's poor.

The whole number of State's poor aided by the overseers in and out of the house last year, was 82. Of these, 59 were Americans, and 23 were foreigners.

Magistrates commit to the house for idleness and intemperance. Of those now in the house, five were so sent to it. If they abscond, and are recommitted, they are punished with solitary confinement.

No ardent spirits are given to the inmates. It was ascertained by careful inquiry, that, of the whole poor in the house in 1827, seven-eighths were brought to poverty by intemperance.

Very young children are instructed in the house; and when of a suitable age, are sent to the town school. Religious services are performed in the house on Sunday evenings.

The overseers are surveyors of the highways.

Gross Cost for the Poor in and out of the house last year	-	-	-	\$ 6,368 12
Cost for the Highways	-	-	-	1,800 85
Interest on the Cost of the Establishment	-	-	-	708 00
Total Cost for Poor and Highways	-	-	-	\$ 8,876 97
RECEIPTS:				
For the labour of the Poor and team on the Highways	-	-	-	\$ 1,200 85
For Oakum	-	-	-	877 94
For sundries sold	-	-	-	317 75
For individuals boarded by friends	-	-	-	119 43
From other Towns for aid to their Poor	-	-	-	313 32
From the State for State's Poor	-	-	-	1,352 22
Total Receipts	-	-	-	\$ 4,181 51
The whole Cost for the Poor and Highways, then, having been	-	-	-	\$ 8,876 97
And the whole Receipts	-	-	-	4,181 51
The Balance against the Town was	-	-	-	\$ 4,695 46

Essex.—The Almshouse measures 50 feet by 30. It was an old dwelling-house, a part of it having probably been built a century ago. It has seven lodging rooms for the poor. In the farm are 100 acres of upland, and 50 of marsh. The cost of the whole was \$5,000.

Magistrates send idlers and the intemperate to the almshouse: No ardent spirits are given to the inmates. The inmates work on the farm, make their own cloth, and pick oakum. Three men and six women are each capable of a day's work. Few of the State's poor apply here for assistance.

The salary of the superintendent is \$ 200; that of a hired man for two months, \$ 30.

The whole Expenditure for the Poor, last year, was	-	-	-	\$ 714 69
Interest on the cost of the farm	-	-	-	300 00
Total Cost	-	-	-	\$ 1,014 69
RECEIPTS:				
From the labour of the Poor, and sale of Produce from the Farm	-	-	-	\$ 667 89
From the State for State's Poor	-	-	-	40 80
From other Towns	-	-	-	00 00
Total Receipts	-	-	-	\$ 708 69
The Expenditures having been	-	-	-	\$ 1,014 69
And the Receipts	-	-	-	708 69
The Balance against the Town was	-	-	-	\$ 306 00

Andover.—The almshouse is very old, and was a farm-house. It measures 42 by 32 feet, and has eleven lodging rooms for the poor. Considerable evils result from the impracticability of separating and classifying its inmates. The farm contains 170 acres, a considerable part of which is wood land. It was purchased in 1807, and cost \$ 4,000.

The inmates work on the farm, do the light work in a brick-yard belonging to the farm, pick wool and spin. Only three males and five females are capable each of half a day's work. Almost all the State's poor who come to the house leave it as soon as they are able to travel; although more than half, if detained after they have been refreshed by rest, and kept from ardent spirits, and compelled to work, might earn their own subsistence. The children belonging to the house do not go to any school. They are generally placed in families by eight years of age. Ardent spirits are not given to the inmates, nor are any used in the house.

The overseers of the poor have \$ 1 per day for their services, amounting, for them all, to about \$ 50 a year. The salary of the superintendent is \$ 170 per annum. Religious instruction is given to the inmates generally by the students of the Theological Institution.

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.
—
Pauper System
of Massachusetts.

EXPENDITURES:

By Orders drawn on the Treasury last year	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 1,081 71
Paid for labour in the brick-yard	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	289 64
Salary of Superintendent	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	170 00
Allowance to Overseers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	50 00
Repairs	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	48 68
Interest on the farm	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	240 00
Total Cost	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 1,880 03

RECEIPTS:

From the Sale of Bricks made on the Farm	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 1,821 13
From other Towns for aid given to their Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	111 73
From the State for State's Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	175 92
Total Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 2,108 78
The Receipts having been	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 2,108 78
And the Expenditures	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,880 03
The Balance in favour of the Town was	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 228 75

Haverhill.—The almshouse measures 63 by 34 feet. Half of it is an old house, and half is new, and is built of brick. It has eight lodging rooms for the poor. Great difficulties are experienced from the impracticability of classifying the inmates. The farm contains 96 acres of land, and the cost of the establishment was \$5,483 88. Only four men are capable of half a day's work, and these are town's poor. The females who have capacity for labour, card and spin, and the men work on the farm.

There were no receipts from the farm beyond what were consumed upon it. When the superintendent makes any sale of produce, with the proceeds he purchases other provisions for the house. Before the poor were removed to the farm, the average cost for them was \$1,500 per annum. It is also an additional advantage of the farm, that idlers and intemperate persons have been sent to it by magistrates, and expense for them in the county house of correction has been saved to the town. Ardent spirits are given to the working men.

The overseers receive 75 cents a day for their services; that is, about \$12 each a year. The salary of the superintendent is \$200 a year.

The Cost for the Poor, last year, was	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 924 06
Interest on the Farm	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	329 03
Total Cost	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 1,253 09

RECEIPTS:

From other Towns for their Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 18 06
From the State for State's Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	151 00
Total Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 169 06
The Expenditures having been	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 1,253 09
And the Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	169 06
The Balance against the Town was	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 1,024 03

COUNTY OF MIDDLESEX.

Charlestown.—The almshouse in Charlestown is 100 feet long, and 46 feet wide. It has three stories above the basement, and contains 38 rooms for the inmates. From four to six lodge in a room. The cost of the house, with three acres of land, was \$18,000.

The salary of the keeper is \$500; and that of the chairman of the overseers, \$400 per annum.

Ten acres of land are hired, in addition to the three belonging to the establishment. The work done is oakum-picking, gardening and farming, labour on the highways, shoemaking, tailoring, blacksmithing and spinning. Cloth is purchased for the inmates, but all their clothing, except socks, is made in the house.

The almshouse is sometimes used as a house of correction. The children are instructed in the house by one of the inmates.

The average Amount assessed and raised by direct Taxation for the Poor and Highways of Charlestown, during the last five years, has been, per annum	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 5,944 20
To this is to be added in the estimated Cost, average from the State	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4,976 48
Making the Cost per annum to have been	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 10,920 68
Deduct from this the Amount received from the State	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4,976 48
„ and the estimated Proceeds of Labour	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,600 00
	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 7,576 48
And the annual average cost to the Town for the Poor Department for five years, has been	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 3,344 20

The expenditures and receipts of the last year could not be obtained.

Cambridge.

Cambridge.—The main house of Cambridge almshouse was built in 1818, and measures 55 by 36 feet. The cost of the whole, with 12 acres of land, was \$7,725 77. The number of lodging rooms for the inmates is 18. No assistance is given to any out of the house, except in cases of extreme necessity. Ardent spirits are given to the poor who work.

Forty acres of land are hired for cultivation, beside the twelve belonging to the establishment. The work done is picking hair; all the shoemaking, blacksmithing and tailoring of the establishment; labour on the highways; and wood sawing for the town-house, meeting-houses and schools. Wood is also sold from the establishment, sawed and split; but only to the poor, and at the cost, as a means of aiding the poor out of the house.

Of 104 in the house when it was visited, 92 were State's poor; and, of these, five were Americans, and 87 were foreigners. Seventy-five were capable of more or less work.

The whole amount drawn from the Treasury last year for the Poor and	
Highways was	\$ 5,434 98
The Interest on the Cost of the Establishment was	463 55
And the rent of 40 Acres of Land	191 00
Total Expense for the Poor and Highways last year	\$ 6,089 53
The estimated Worth of the Labour of the Poor, and of the Teamster	
and hired Man of the Almshouse on the Highways last year was	\$ 1,763 00
Receipts for the Labour of the Poor, independent of Work on Highways	793 65
From other Towns for aid to their Poor	37 00
From the State for State's Poor	4,096 47
Total Receipts	\$ 6,690 12
The Receipts having been	\$ 6,690 12
And the whole Expense for the Poor and Highways	6,089 53
The Balance in favour of the Town was	\$ 600 59

The salary of the warden is \$350; of the teamster, \$250; of the hired man, \$192; and of the physician, \$50. Total of salaries, \$842 00.

Medford.—The almshouse is 40 feet square. It has six lodging rooms for the poor, and from four to ten sleep in a room. It does not admit of a classification of its inmates. The farm contains only 11 acres of land; and the cost of the establishment is estimated to have been \$5,000. The inmates pick oakum, and work upon the farm and highways. They did 318 days' work on the roads last year, at 50 cents a day. Four men and one woman are capable each of a day's work. Aid is sometimes given to the State's Poor to carry on their way; but only at the almshouse, if they remain in the town.

Magistrates send idlers and drunkards to the almshouse as to a house of correction, for any term short of six months; and if they abscond, and are re-committed, they are punished with solitary confinement. The four working men above named were so sent. There has been no increase of poor in the town for the last five years. The effect of abolishing the use of ardent spirits in the house has been, a diminution of the number of applicants for admission to it. There has therefore been a diminution of expense for the poor. Children are sent to the town school. Average proportion of children in the house for five years, five.

The overseers give assistance to none out of the house. The keeper's salary is \$250. Other salaries, \$75.

The amount drawn from the Treasury last year for the Poor and	
Highways was	\$ 1,662 64
For the Poor alone	1,122 07
For the Highways alone	540 57
Interest on the Cost of the Establishment	300 00
Total Cost for Poor and Highways	\$ 1,962 64
RECEIPTS:	
From the Labour of the Poor on the Highways	\$ 159 00
From other Income from the Labour of the Poor	91 00
From other sources	50 00
From the State for the State's Poor	321 94
Total Receipts	\$ 621 94
The Expenditures for the Poor and Highways having been	\$ 1,962 64
And the Receipts	621 94
The Balance against the Town was	\$ 1,340 70

Malden.—The almshouse is of brick, and measures 68 feet by 40. It has nine lodging rooms for the poor, and from two to eight sleep in a room. The house does not admit of a classification of the inmates; and there is great cause for the apprehension of evil from this circumstance. The farm contains 82 acres of land, and the cost of the establishment was \$5,500. The poor are employed in making shoes, in work upon the farm, and in labour upon the highways. Some are sent to the house by magistrates for idleness and intemperance; and if they abscond, and are re-committed, they are punished with solitary confinement.

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.Pauper System
of Massachusetts.

The salary of the superintendent is \$ 300 ; and that of a hired man, \$ 180. The farm was purchased by the town five years ago. The cost of the poor each per week is thought to be \$ 1.

The Expenditures for the Poor last year were	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 2,116 26
Interest on the Cost of the Establishment	-	-	-	-	-	330 00
Total Cost	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 2,446 26

The Income from the Farm and Labour of the Poor was	-	-	-	-	\$ 1,502 00
„ from other Towns for aid to their Poor	-	-	-	-	20 92
„ from the State for State's Poor	-	-	-	-	251 06
Total Receipts	-	-	-	-	\$ 1,773 98

The Expenditures having been	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 2,446 26
And the Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	1,773 98

The Balance against the Town was	-	-	\$ 672 28
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Watertown.—The almshouse was built in 1824. It is two stories high, and measures 54 by 32 feet. It has five lodging rooms for the poor, besides a spacious and comfortable garret, in which the single men sleep. The females lodge in the rooms below, and from four to six sleep in a room. There are no special accommodations for the insane. The farm contains 32 acres of very good land. Four of the inmates work on the farm, and two of them are State's poor. The establishment has been in operation eight years, and cost \$ 3,500. The inmates work on the farm, and on the highways. Three men and two women are capable each of a day's work ; three men of half a day's work each, and three of a fourth of a day's work each. The number of days' work done by the superintendent, teams and poor, of the establishment on the highways last year, was 607. Of the workers on the highways, six were State's poor, and three were Town's poor. Children are instructed in the town school, and the poor go to church on Sundays. No religious instruction is given in the house. Of the State poor who call for occasional aid, nearly all, if compelled to work, could earn their living. Ardent spirits are given to the poor who work. The superintendent feels the difficulties which arise from this practice, and wishes its discontinuance. But its allowance is a rule of the house. The average cost for the poor before their removal to the farm was \$ 1,500 per year. None are aided out of the house.

The salary of the superintendent is \$ 270 a year. A hired man has \$ 14 a month, for six months, or \$ 84 ; and the overseers charge for their services upon the highways, of which they are the surveyors.

None are sent by magistrates.

Cost for the Poor last year, including Salaries and Wages	-	-	-	\$ 1,510 00
Interest on the cost of the Establishment	-	-	-	510 00
Total Cost for the Poor	-	-	-	\$ 2,020 00

RECEIPTS:

For the labour of the Superintendent, Poor and Team on the Highways,	\$ 355 50
For Sales of Produce of the Farm	220 96
From other labours of the Poor	133 22
From other Towns for their Poor	00 00
From the State for State's Poor	81 31

Total Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 790 99
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The Expenditures, then, having been	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 2,020 00
And the Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	790 99

The Balance against the Town was	-	-	\$ 1,229 01
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Waltham.—The almshouse was an old mansion-house. It is 40 feet square, and two stories high. It has five lodging rooms for the poor. It neither admits of a classification of the inmates, or has any provision for the care of the insane. The farm contains 130 acres of land, and the soil is generally good. It has a good peat bog. It has been owned by the town four years ; but during the three preceding years the poor were kept upon a farm. The cost of the establishment was \$ 3,066 67.

The poor work on the farm, and on the highways. One is capable of a day's work, and three of half a day's work. About 250 days' work were done by the establishment on the highways last year. This work was done by the town's poor as far as the poor are employed. Few of the State's poor come to the house for aid. Of the wandering State's poor who are seen passing through the town, it is believed that three-fourths are able to earn their living.

The overseers are not surveyors of the highways. But it is annually voted at the March meeting, that every one who shall pay to the overseers 75 cents on a dollar of the sum which he is taxed for the highways, shall be exempted from further charge for the highways during the year ; and his tax shall be worked out by the poor of the almshouse.

Ardent spirits are allowed to the workers during the summer months.

THE COMMISSIONERS ON THE POOR LAWS.

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Appendix (F.)

Foreign Communications.

Pauper System of Massachusetts.

The average cost for the Poor before the establishment of the Farm was,								
per annum	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$675 00
Expenditures for the Poor in and out of the house last year	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	805 39
Interest on the cost of the Establishment	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	184 00
Total Cost	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$989 39
								RECEIPTS :
For produce sold from the Farm	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$533 77
From individuals for Highway Taxes worked out by the Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	193 18
From the State for State's Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	23 40
Total Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$750 35
The Expenditures last year for the Poor having been	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$989 39
And the Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	750 35
The Balance against the Town was	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$239 04

Littleton.—The almshouse was a farm-house, and is probably seventy-five years old. It measures 40 by 30 feet, and is two stories high. The main house contains four sleeping rooms for the inmates, and there is an out-house which contains four sleeping rooms. The farm measures about 140 acres, and has upon it about 30 acres of woodland. The soil is merely of a tolerable quality, and it has no particular advantages for revenue. The establishment has been in operation since 1825, and cost \$3,600.

No man on the farm is capable even of a quarter of a day's work. Two women are capable each of a day's work ; one of half, and another of a fourth of a day's work.

Of the wandering poor who call for occasional aid, nine-tenths, if detained and kept from ardent spirits, and compelled to work, could earn their own subsistence.

Ardent spirits are not allowed to the inmates. Children are sent to the town school. No poor were aided out of the house last year. None are aided at their houses except in cases of illness, which prevents their removal to the farm.

The salary of the superintendent is \$ 200. No other salary is given.

The annual average expense for the poor before their removal to the farm was, for the five preceding years, \$ 800 00.

The whole Expenditures for the Poor last year were	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$555 33
Interest on the cost of the Establishment	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	216 00
Total Cost	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$771 33
RECEIPTS :								
For Sales from the Farm	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$520 05
From the State for State's Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6 90
Total Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$526 95
The Expenditures having been	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$771 33
And the Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	526 95
The Balance against the Town was	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$244 38

Lexington.—A part of the almshouse was formerly an old farm-house, which measures 28 feet by 20. An addition was made to it in 1819, which measures 31 by 22 feet. The old part of the house is one story, and the new is two stories high. There are eight lodging rooms for the inmates, and from one to three sleep in a room. Great care is required for security against immoralities. The farm contains 80 acres. The soil is generally good, but has no particular advantages for income. The land has been owned by the town nearly from the date of its incorporation. The estimated value of the establishment is \$2,500.

No work, which brings any income, is done by the inmates in the house. One woman is capable of a day's work; and one man and one woman each of half a day's work. Ardent spirits are not allowed in the house; none are sent to it by magistrates. The children are instructed in the town school.

The salary of the superintendent is \$ 180. No other salary is given.

The average cost for the poor before the establishment of the farm is not known. The chairman of the overseers, however, knows the cost to have been as high as \$1,600 in a year.

The Expenditures for the Poor on the Farm last year were	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 649 02
— - - for out-door Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	54 45
Total Expense for the Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 703 47
RECEIPTS :								
For Sales from the Farm	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 171 72
From other Towns for aid to their Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2 00
From the State for State's Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	00 00
Total Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 173 72
The Expenditures having been	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 703 47
And the Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	173 72
The Balance against the Town was	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 529 75

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
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Marlborough.—Almshouse: a part of it was an old farm-house, which measures 40 feet by 30. An addition has been made to it, by which it measures 62 by 40 feet. It is two stories high; has ten lodging rooms for the poor, and from two to five sleep in a room. The house does not admit of a classification of its inmates. The farm contains 160 acres. Some of the soil is extraordinarily good, and nearly all of it is susceptible of good cultivation. Four men do more or less work on the farm. The establishment has been in operation ten years, and the cost of the whole was \$4,000.

The female poor spin and knit. With the proceeds of the spinning, all the weaving is obtained from the neighbours; and from the cloth so woven, all the inmates are clothed. One man and two women are capable each of a day's work; two men of half a day's work; and one woman and two men of a fourth of a day's work. No other of the inmates is capable of any service. The increase of the inmates in winter is occasioned by the necessities of the intemperate, who live as they can in the summer, but who must be provided for in the winter. Ardent spirits are not allowed to be in the house. Few of the wandering poor come here. Those who come are required to labour, and therefore prefer to leave the house: those of this class who call at the house are quite able to support themselves; and in case they remain any number of days, as they then actually earn as much as they receive, no charge is made to the State for the care of them. The practice is to aid no poor out of the house, except in cases in which they cannot be removed to it. The average cost for the poor, before their removal to the farm, was \$1,550.

The whole Expenditures incurred for the Poor last year, including Money paid for additional Stock, Farming Tools, the Salary of the Superintendent, and interest on the cost of the Farm, was	-	-	-	-	\$ 939 39
The whole Receipts of the last year for sales from the Farm, Labour, &c. were	-	-	-	-	628 61
Making the Balance against the Town to have been	-	-	-	-	<u>\$ 310 78</u>

There were no receipts for State's poor.

Concord.—The Almshouse was built in 1826. It is two stories high, and measures 60 feet by 30. It has eight lodging rooms for the poor, in one of which is a commodious apartment, made by a partition of bars of wood, for the confinement of an insane woman whom it is necessary to deprive of liberty.—The apartment has a full-sized window in it, and is well warmed. From two to seven of the inmates sleep in a room.

The farm contains 50 acres, and its soil is of an ordinary quality. The establishment has been in operation six years. The land was long since left to the town for the support of the poor by Captain Cargill. The estimated worth of the establishment is \$3,000.

No one of the inmates is capable of a day's work. One man and two women may do each half a day's work; and no others can perform any service. Ardent spirits are not allowed in the house. Children are sent to the town school. Of the wandering poor who call for assistance upon the overseers or for rest at the house, nine-tenths could, if compelled to work, earn their own subsistence.

The salary of the superintendent is \$200. No other salary is given.

The annual average expense for the poor for five years before their removal to the farm was, \$800 per annum. The expenditures and receipts of Concord for the poor during the last year could not be obtained.

Chelmsford.—The almshouse was a farm-house, and measures 40 feet by 30, with the addition of a kitchen, washroom, &c. It has also an out-house for the insane, which is warmed by a stove in the cellar, with an aperture in the floor for the admission of warmed air. The main house has eight lodging rooms for the poor. The farm contains 100 acres. It was bought in 1823, and cost \$3,500.

"Strolling beggars" frequently pass under the notice of the overseers, nearly all of whom, it is thought, "if compelled, could earn a good living." When there are children in the house, they are instructed in the town school.

The whole Expenditures for the Poor in the House last year were	-	-	\$ 790 00
" " for the Poor out of the House	-	-	10 00
			<u>\$ 800 00</u>

RECEIPTS:			
For Sales from the Farm	-	-	\$ 455 60
From the State for State's Poor	-	-	44 50
Total Receipts	-	-	<u>\$ 500 10</u>
The Expenditures having been	-	-	\$ 800 00
And the Receipts -	-	-	500 10
The Balance against the Town was	-	-	<u>\$ 299 90</u>

Westford.—The almshouse is nearly a century old. It was a farm-house, is two stories high, and measures about 40 feet square. It has also an out-house, with chambers, and an apartment for refractory subjects. There are six lodging rooms for the poor, and from two to six sleep in a room. Immoralities have resulted from the impracticability of classifying the inmates. The farm contains 170 acres. The soil is good, but has no peculiar advantages for revenue. The establishment has been in operation seven years, and cost \$3,000. No work is done by the inmates but upon the farm. One man and one woman are capable of a day's work; five women of half a day's work, and three men of a fourth of a day's work. No others are capable of any service.

Magistrates commit to the house for intemperance. Two were so committed last year. No ardent spirits are given in the house. State's poor seldom call for aid here; and no town's poor are assisted by

by the overseers, except at the almshouse. The average expenditures for the poor before their removal to the farm were from \$ 10 to \$ 1,200. The salary of the superintendent is \$ 240.

Expenditures for the Poor, last year	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 1,077 46
Interest on the Cost of the Establishment	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	180 00
Total Cost	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 1,257 46

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RECEIPTS:								
For Sales from the Farm	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 462 00
Due for Teaming and Labour done by the Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	78 15
From other Towns and from the State	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	00 00
Total Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 540 16
The Expenditures having been	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 1,257 46
And the Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	540 16
The Balance against the Town was	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 717 30

Groton.—Almshouse. Part of it is nearly a century old. It measures 32 feet by 30, is two stories high, and has a new adjoining part, one story high, and measuring 30 by 14 feet. There are five lodging rooms for the poor, and from two to six sleep in a room. Great care is necessary for security against immoralities. The farm contains 170 acres, 50 of which are good interval land, and the remainder pretty good. The establishment has been in operation since 1827, and cost \$ 2,357 04.

No work is done by the inmates for profit, except upon the farm. No man or woman is capable of a day's work. One man, and five women, can do half a day's work, and no others are capable of any service.

The children are instructed in the town school, and religious services are performed in the house once a fortnight on Sunday evenings by the ministers of the town.

There are inmates for whom the most disagreeable services are to be performed; and ardent spirits are given only when these services are rendered, and to those who render them. Of the wandering poor who are seen here, nearly all, if compelled to work, could earn their own subsistence.

The salary of the superintendent is \$ 225.

The cost for the poor before the establishment of the present system was \$ 1,050, per annum.

EXPENDITURES:								
For the Poor on the Farm last year	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 662 85
For out-door Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	65 00
Interest on the Cost of the Farm	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	141 42
Total Cost	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 869 27

RECEIPTS:								
For Sales from the Farm	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 286 38
From other Towns for aid to their Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	25 25
From the State for State's Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	62 10
Total Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 373 73
The Expenditures having been	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 869 27
And the Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	373 73
The Balance against the Town was	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 495 54

COUNTY OF NORFOLK.

Roxbury.—The almshouse measures 100 feet by 40. It has, besides its apartments for the keeper's family, 12 lodging rooms for the poor, and space sufficient for finishing 12 other lodging rooms for them. The males live in one wing, and the females in the other. Husbands and wives are not allowed to live together, and the sexes are kept quite apart from each other. This circumstance has brought the house into disfavour with some who would otherwise have taken up their abode in it. The farm contains 32 acres of land. About 20 acres are used for tillage and mowing, and about 12 are principally valuable for the pudding-stone that is upon them, and which is used in repairing the highways. The old Almshouse had no farm connected with it. A farm, connected with repairs of roads by the poor, is found to be very profitable. The present establishment has been in operation one year, and the cost of the whole was \$ 20,000.

The number of poor now capable of work is five. Their average number is seven, and their service is worth 50 cents a day. Beside the work done on the highways and farm, between 20 and 30,000 skewers for butchers are made in the house; and, when the material can be obtained, wool and hemp are picked by the inmates. The females, who are capable of work, are hired out for day service.

The number in the house last year was smaller than it has been for many preceding years, principally in consequence of the new regulations, which forbid the use of ardent spirits, and require an entire separation of the sexes. All aid is refused to the State's poor, except at the house; and they continue there but for a day or two, except in winter. No State's poor were employed either on the farm or roads during the last year.

The average number of young children is about eight or ten. They are sent to the town school. Divine service is performed in the house every Sunday evening by the clergy of the town.

Drunkards and idlers are sent to the house by magistrates; and if they abscond, and are re-committed, they are punished with solitary confinement.

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The salary of the keeper is \$275; of the hired man, \$313; overseers, for services as surveyors of highways, \$150.

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The whole Expenditures for the Poor last year, both in and out of the house, were - - - - -	\$ 3,824 12
The Expenditures for the Highways - - - - -	2,067 72
Interest on the Cost of the Establishment - - - - -	1,200 00
Total Cost for the Poor and Highways - - - - -	\$ 7,091 84

RECEIPTS:

For the labour of the Poor and Teams on the Highways - - - - -	\$ 1,061 00
From other work of the Poor - - - - -	398 75
From other Towns for aid to their Poor - - - - -	8 75
From the State for State's Poor - - - - -	1,026 18
Total Receipts - - - - -	\$ 2,494 68

The Expenditures for the Poor and Highways having been - - - - -	\$ 7,091 84
And the Receipts - - - - -	2,494 68

The Balance against the Town was - - - - -	\$ 4,597 16
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Dorchester.—The almshouse measures 62 by 33 feet, and has seven rooms for the poor, each 16 feet square, and a large garret which is the sleeping room of a number of the male inmates. There is also in the yard a building for the insane and for idiots. The farm contains 33 acres of land, 15 of which are cultivated for vegetables and hay. The estimated cost of the establishment is \$5,000. The principal labour of the poor is done upon the roads. They also work upon the farm. Two are employed in shoe-making, and the females spin and knit. The worth of the labour of the poor on the roads may be fairly estimated at 50 cents a day, independent of their board. The labourers who are permanent poor are made so by the want of capacity to provide for and to take care of themselves. Two are able to do a day's work, and six or seven two-thirds of a day's work. About eight men are incapable of any service. No State's poor were employed last year. Children are sent to the town school. Ardent spirits are given to those who labour. Inmates are sometimes sent by magistrates for a term not exceeding six months.

The salary of the Keeper is \$250. No other salary is given, except \$85 to the Overseers as surveyors of the highways.

The Expenditures for the Poor in the House last year were - - - - -	\$ 2,018 33
For the Poor out of the House - - - - -	121 27
For the Highways - - - - -	1,187 66
For Overseers' services as Surveyors of Highways - - - - -	85 00
Interest on estimated value of the Establishment - - - - -	300 00
Total Cost - - - - -	\$ 3,712 26

RECEIPTS:

For Work done by the Establishment on the Highways - - - - -	\$ 1,181 25
From other Labours of the Poor - - - - -	213 55
From other Towns for aid to their Poor - - - - -	197 41
From the State for State's Poor - - - - -	47 10
Total Receipts - - - - -	\$ 1,639 31

The Expenditures for the Poor and Highways having been - - - - -	\$ 3,712 26
And the Receipts - - - - -	1,639 31

The Balance against the Town was - - - - -	\$ 2,072 95
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Quincy.—The almshouse was built in 1815. It measures 40 feet by 30, and is two stories high. There are nine lodging rooms for the poor, and from two to four lodge in a room. Separate from the main house is a work-shop, and a place of confinement for refractory subjects. The farm contains 50 acres of land of a very ordinary quality; but there is on it a sand hill, which gives some revenue. The cost was \$3,000. Five men are capable of doing a day's work, and one of a fourth of a day's work. Three of the women are capable each of half a day's work. The overseers are surveyors of the highways, and the poor work upon them. Ardent spirits are given to the men who work. None are sent by magistrates.

The salary of the superintendent is \$300 per year; and the wages and board of a hired man for three months are estimated at \$71 42.

Expenditures for the Poor in the House last year - - - - -	\$ 1,240 00
Interest on the Cost of the Establishment - - - - -	180 00
Total Cost - - - - -	\$ 1,420 00

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RECEIPTS:							
For Work on the Highways	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$415 00
From the Sale of Oakum	-	-	-	-	-	-	125 00
For Shoemaking and Carpenters' Work	-	-	-	-	-	-	150 00
For other Labour of the Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	90 00
From other Towns for aid to their Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	6 00
From the State for State's Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	13 10
Total Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$799 10
The Expenditures having been	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$1,420 00
And the Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	-	799 10
The Balance against the Town was	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$620 90

The chairman of the overseers gives it as his opinion that, but for extraordinary circumstances within the past year, which need not here be stated, the balance against the town probably would not have exceeded \$ 520.

COUNTY OF BRISTOL.

Taunton.—The main house of the almshouse was built in 1827, and measures 42 by 36 feet. Contiguous is the farm-house, which was purchased with the farm, and which measures 36 by 26 feet. The main house is two stories high; the adjoining house is but one story high. There are 12 lodging rooms for the inmates, and from two to six sleep in a room. The house does not admit of classifying the inmates, and great care is required to guard against immoralities. The farm contains 130 acres of land. The soil is generally light and sandy. It has about 30 acres of wood land, and about 25 of which are good for tillage and grass. The establishment has been in operation five years, and cost \$ 5,000. The inmates make tubs and baskets, pick oakum, sometimes work on the roads, and are sometimes hired out for day's work. Two women are capable of a day's work; and six men and two women of half a day's work. No others are capable of service. Of the wandering State's poor who apply for occasional aid, it is believed that the exceptions are few of those who, if kept from ardent spirits and compelled to work, could not earn their own subsistence. Till the farm was purchased, the poor were put up at auction to the lowest bidder. Great immoralities were consequent upon this manner of disposing of them; and the new provision made for them has been greatly favourable to their comfort and their virtue. Ardent spirits are given only in haying time, and then to those only who work in the wet meadows.

The salary of the superintendent is \$ 200; and the overseers receive about \$ 50.
The average cost for the poor before their removal to the farm was \$ 1,340.

Expenditures for the Poor last year, in the House	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$663 86
" for the Poor out of the House	-	-	-	-	-	-	400 00
Interest on the Cost of the Establishment	-	-	-	-	-	-	300 00
Whole Cost	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$1,363 86
RECEIPTS:							
For Sales from the Farm	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$45 86
For the Labour of the Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	70 00
From other Towns for aid given to their Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	54 65
From the State for State's Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	378 83
Total Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$549 34
The Expenditures having been	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$1,363 86
And the Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	-	549 34
The Balance against the Town was	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$814 52

Fairhaven.—The almshouse was a farm-house. It is one story high, and measures 32 feet by 30. It has four lodging rooms for the poor, and from one to three sleep in a room. There is only one fire-place for the inmates in the house. In their lodging rooms, there is neither a fire-place nor a stove; and these lodging-rooms are about eight feet square. There are only six acres of land belonging to the establishment. The soil is poor. The cost of the whole was \$ 548 25. The place was purchased by the town in 1824.

The poor work on the land, and pick oakum. No one of them is capable of a day's work. Two women and one man are capable of half a day's work, and one man of a fourth of a day's work. Ardent spirits are not given to the inmates. None are sent here by the magistrates. Of the State's poor who apply for occasional aid, nearly all, if compelled to work, might earn their own subsistence.

The salary of the superintendent is \$ 200. No other salary is given.
The cost for the poor before the purchase of the almshouse was about \$ 1,000 a year.

The Expenditures for the Poor out of the House last year were	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$600 00
" for the Poor in the House	-	-	-	-	-	-	995 07
Interest on the Cost of the Establishment	-	-	-	-	-	-	32 89½
Total Cost	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$1,627 96½

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RECEIPTS:									
From other Towns for aid to their Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 112 06
From the State for State's Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	246 76
Total Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 358 82
The Expenditures for the Poor having been	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 1,627 96½
And the Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	358 82
The Balance against the Town was	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 1,269 14

New Bedford.—The almshouse is about 12 years old. It measures about 50 feet by 40, and is two stories high, with a basement. Adjoining the house is a shed, 40 feet by 18, over which are chambers; and there is another building, the original farm-house, which measures 40 by 25 feet. The whole contains 24 rooms for the poor. The establishment does not admit of a classification of the inmates. The farm contains 96 acres of land, which is washed by the sea, and the soil is generally good: 5,500 feet of salt-works, at \$1 a foot, have been built upon it, principally within the last year. The farm was bought in May 1828, and the cost of the establishment is estimated to have been \$13,000. The salt works, it is believed, will hereafter contribute much more than they have yet done to the support of the poor.

The poor work on the farm, pick oakum, and assist in the charge of the salt-works. One woman, and no man, is capable of a day's work; one woman, and no man, of half a day's work; and four men, and no woman, of a fourth of a day's work. Ardent spirits are not allowed to the inmates. Before the purchase of the farm, rum was allowed to the poor; and the old almshouse, where they then were, was a common nuisance. The superintendent thinks he could not control the subjects in the house if the permission to use ardent spirits were given to them. Of the State's poor who call for occasional aid, 9 out of 10, if compelled to work, could earn their own subsistence. They are dismissed as soon as may be, from a desire to keep down the numbers in the house.

The salary of the superintendent is \$325; and a hired man has \$14 a month through the year.

The Expenditures for Stock, Labour, &c. on the Farm last year were	-	\$ 303 01
„ for the Poor in the House	-	1,246 34
„ for the Poor out of the House	-	620 18
„ for erecting Salt-works	-	1,647 43
Total Cost	-	\$ 3,816 96

RECEIPTS:									
For labour on the Highway	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 17 00
For Oakum	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	154 12
For Sales from the Farm	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	235 37
From the Sale of Salt	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	220 94
From other Towns for aid given to their Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	197 53
From the State for State's Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	992 00
Total Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 1,816 96

The Expenditures having been	-	\$ 3,816 96
And the Receipts	-	1,816 96
The Balance against the Town was	-	\$ 2,000 00

The Town has for some years appropriated \$ 2,000 a year for the Expenditures of the Overseers of the Poor. With this appropriation they have obtained the present establishment, which promises soon to relieve the town of much of its present cost for the poor.

COUNTY OF PLYMOUTH.

Middleborough.—Till one year preceding last April, the poor of this town were bid off at auction to him who would take the charge of them for the smallest sum. The present establishment was begun on the 4th of April 1831. The almshouse was a farm-house. It is an L house, two stories high, and contains eleven lodging-rooms for the poor. But it does not admit of classifying its inmates. The farm contains 112 acres, about 30 of which are good for grain and grass. The cost of the whole was \$ 4,500. Of the poor, one man and three women are capable each of a day's work. One woman is capable of half a day's work, and three men of a fourth of a day's work. No others are capable of any service. The poor work on the farm, and are hired out to work for individuals, and upon the roads. Of the 24 State's poor in the house last year, nine were Indians, five were blacks, and two were Irishmen. Children are instructed in the town school. Magistrates do not send any to the house. Ardent spirits are given to the working men and women. The salary of the superintendent and his sister is \$ 246. The average expense for the poor for the five years preceding their removal to the farm was, \$ 1,919 25 a year.

The whole Expenditure for the Poor in the House last year was	-	\$ 902 24
„ for the Poor out of the House was	-	150 00
Salary of the Superintendent and Sister	-	246 00
Allowance to Overseers	-	55 00
Interest on the Cost of the Establishment	-	270 00
Total Cost	-	\$ 1,623 24

RECEIPTS:

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RECEIPTS:							
For the Labour of the Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 25 00
From other Towns for aid to their Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	18 00
From the State for State's Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	654 57
Total Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 697 57
The Expenditures having been	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 1,623 24
And the Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	-	697 57
The Balance against the Town was	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 925 67

Abington.—The main house of the almshouse measures 40 by 38 feet. It was a farm-house. Two additions have been made to it; one for cooking and eating rooms, and the other for a shoemaker's work-room, and a place of confinement for the insane. The house is two stories high, and contains six lodging-rooms for the inmates. From four to six sleep in a room. Great care is required to secure the orderly conduct of the inmates. The farm contains 50 acres, and the land is good for grain and grass. It was bought four years ago, and cost \$2,500. The children are sent to the town school, and on an average are put into families at eight years old. Ardent spirits are not allowed to the inmates.

EXPENDITURES:							
By orders on the Treasury	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 230 00
Superintendent's Salary	-	-	-	-	-	-	250 00
Shop Rent	-	-	-	-	-	-	15 00
For Poor out of the House	-	-	-	-	-	-	143 00
Unpaid Debts of the year	-	-	-	-	-	-	48 00
Interest on the Farm	-	-	-	-	-	-	150 00
Total Cost	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 836 00

RECEIPTS:							
The Labour of the Poor and Superintendent	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 219 61
From the State for State's Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	81 40
Total Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 301 01
The Expenditures having been	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 836 00
And the Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	-	301 01
The Balance against the Town was	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 534 99

COUNTY OF WORCESTER.

Worcester.—The almshouse was a farm-house, but has been enlarged. It is two stories high, and measures 78 by 36 feet. There is a small out-building which contains two lodging-rooms for the blacks. The establishment has 18 lodging-rooms for its inmates, and from one to four sleep in a room.—The farm contains 227 acres; and the soil, taken together, is light. The establishment has been in operation 14 years, and cost \$7,000. No one of the inmates is capable of a day's work. Two men and one woman can do half a day's work, and three men a fourth of a day's work. No others are capable of any labour. None are sent by magistrates. Children go to the town school. The ministers in the town alternately preach in the house once in a month. The salary of the superintendent is \$350. The expense of hired help on the farm is \$174. Ardent spirits are not given to the inmates. Of the wandering State's poor who call for occasional aid, two-thirds, if detained and kept from ardent spirits, and compelled to work, could earn their own subsistence. About thirty-five thus annually call for aid. The average cost for the poor for five years before the establishment of the farm was annually \$2,000. The expenditures and receipts for the poor during the last year could not be obtained.

Shrewsbury.—The almshouse was a farm-house. It is two stories high, and measures 36 feet by 30. It has six lodging rooms for the poor, and from one to five sleep in a room. The farm contains 119 acres, about 22 of which are wood land. The establishment has been in operation three and a half years, and cost \$4,200. The poor work on the farm, and bind shoes. One woman is capable of a day's work; and one man and one woman of half a day's work. No others are capable of any service. Ardent spirits are not allowed to the inmates. None are sent by magistrates. Children are instructed in the town school. Of the wandering State's poor, nearly all could earn their living. About 30 call in a year. The average cost for the poor for five years previous to their removal to the farm was \$700. The salary of the superintendent is \$265. No other salary is given.

Expenditures for the Poor in the House last year	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 534 93
“ for the Poor out of the House	-	-	-	-	-	-	78 57
Interest on the cost of the Establishment	-	-	-	-	-	-	252 00
Total Cost	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 865 00

APPENDIX TO THE FIRST REPORT FROM

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RECEIPTS :

For Sales from the Farm	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 411 08
From other Towns for aid to their Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	27 52
From the State for State's Poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	43 52
Dower of a Widow supported by the Town	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	30 00
Donation for the Poor by a Citizen of the Town	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	15 00
Total Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 527 12
The Expenditures having been	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 865 50
And the Receipts -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	527 12
The Balance against the Town was	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 338 38

Lancaster.—The almshouse is two stories high, and measures 50 by 25 feet. It has twelve lodging rooms for the poor, and from two to four sleep in a room. The farm contains 150 acres, the soil of which is generally good. It was bought seven years ago last spring, and cost, with the stock, \$4,406 12. No work is done by the inmates except upon the farm. One woman is capable of a day's work, and three men of a fourth of a day's work. No others are capable of any service. Ardent spirits are not allowed to the inmates. Children are instructed in the town school. Religious services are performed in the house every Sunday. Few of the wandering State's poor are seen here. But of those who are, nearly all seem to be capable of earning their own subsistence. Of the 21 now in the house, 10 are there from a natural incapacity to provide for or to take care of themselves; and nine of these can do little or nothing even under the direction of others. The town has a fund of \$500, left to it by Samuel Ward, Esq., the interest of which is given to poor widows. The salary of the superintendent is \$225, and the three overseers receive each \$15. The expenditures and receipts of Lancaster for the poor during the last year could not be obtained.

Bolton.—The almshouse was a good farm-house. It is two stories high, and measures 40 feet by 30. There is also an out-building for the insane, which is warmed by a stove. There are six lodging rooms for the inmates, and from one to five sleep in a room. The farm contains 75 acres, the soil of which is of an average quality with that of the town. The establishment has been in operation nearly six years, and cost, with its stock, \$3,600.

The female inmates spin, knit and weave. One man and one woman are capable each of a day's work; four women and one man, of half a day's work, and no others are capable of any service. Ardent spirits are not allowed to the inmates. The children go to the town school. Religious services are performed in the house every Sunday. Few of the wandering poor come to the house. But those who apply for aid here, could, without exception, if kept from the use of ardent spirits, earn their own subsistence. When they come, they are set to work, and therefore soon leave the house. The rule and practice of the overseers is, to aid none out of the house. The average cost for the poor before their removal to the farm was about \$750.

Expenditures for Food, Clothing, Medical attendance and Superintendent	-	\$ 377 95
Interest on the Cost of the Farm	-	216 00
Total Cost	-	\$ 593 95
Receipts.—For produce and labour from the Farm	-	329 63
„ From other Towns for aid to their Poor	-	30 51
	-	\$ 360 14
The Expenditures having been	-	\$ 593 95
And the Receipts -	-	360 14
The Balance against the Town was	-	\$ 233 81

Westminster.—Before the purchase of the farm, the poor were annually put up at auction to be taken by the lowest bidder for them. A farm was purchased for them on the 15th of March 1830. The almshouse was a farm-house; it measures 38 feet by 30, and an addition which has been made to it, which measures 24 feet by 18. It has but four rooms for the inmates, and from two to five sleep in a room. The farm contains 100 acres, the soil of which is good. Its cost, with the stock, was \$3,500. Of the adults, only one woman is capable of half a day's work. Straw is braided by five children. Ardent spirits are not given to the inmates. The children are instructed in the town school. The overseers assist none in the town except in the house. The salary of the superintendent is \$200, and \$20 are paid for hired work in getting in hay.

The whole Expenditures for the Poor last year were	-	\$ 140 00
Interest on the Farm	-	210 00
Total Cost	-	\$ 350 00
The only Receipts were, for Sales from the Farm	-	\$ 221 28
Balance against the Town	-	\$ 128 72

Templeton.—

Templeton.—The almshouse is two stories high, and measures about 42 feet by 34. It has seven lodging rooms for the inmates. The farm contains 200 acres, the soil of which is good. There are upon it about 20 acres of fine timber. The establishment has been in operation six years, and cost, with the stock, \$3,200. Of the inmates, only two men and two women are capable each of half a day's work. Worsteds is taken into the house for spinning, and the two men above referred to work upon the farm. Ardent spirits are not given to the inmates. When children are in the house, they are instructed in the town school, and are bound out by nine or ten years old. Few of the wandering poor are seen here; but those who occasionally apply for aid, seem to be quite capable of earning their subsistence. The overseers would be glad to receive 20 of them into their almshouse for the avails of their labour, without any State allowance for them. None in the town are assisted by the overseers out of the house. The salary of the superintendent is \$200; and \$20 a year are appropriated for medical attendance. The average cost for the poor before their removal to the farm, was \$700.

Expenditures for the poor last year - - - - -	\$ 305 33
Receipts:—From sales from the farm - - - - -	\$ 70 00
For supporting one of the poor of another town - - -	43 33
Total Receipts - - -	\$ 113 33
The Expenditures having been - - - - -	\$ 305 33
And the Receipts - - - - -	113 33
The Balance against the Town was - - -	\$ 192 00

COUNTY OF HAMPDEN.

Springfield.—The almshouse is a very old building, and was formerly a farm-house: it was probably built a century ago; it is two stories high, and about 40 feet square; it has nine lodging-rooms for the poor, and from four to eight sleep in a room. No classification can be made of the inmates. Immoralities have resulted from this circumstance, but not recently. Only five acres of ground—a good garden spot—belong to the establishment. Six or seven of the inmates were more or less employed on this ground during the last year. This has been the residence of the poor for 30 years, and it is supposed that it might have cost \$1,200. No work is done but upon the land, except by one of the inmates, the proceeds of whose labour are about \$30 a year. Two are capable of half a day's work, and five of a fourth of a day's work. State's poor are always sent away as soon as possible. Of the wandering State's poor, nearly all could earn their living. About three a week of these call at the house. Ardent spirits are not allowed to the inmates. None are sent to the house by magistrates. Children are instructed in the town school. Religious services are performed in the house every Sunday. The salary of the superintendent is \$140. No other salary is given.

Expenditures for the poor in and out of the house last year - - -	\$ 1,762 72
Interest on the cost of the establishment - - - - -	72 00
Total Cost - - -	\$ 1,834 72
Receipts:	
From other towns, for aid given to their poor - - - - -	\$ 74 25
Proceeds of work - - - - -	30 00
From the State for State's poor - - - - -	418 18
Total Receipts - - -	\$ 522 43
The Expenditures having been - - - - -	\$ 1,834 72
And the Receipts - - - - -	522 43
The Balance against the Town was - - -	\$ 1,312 29

COUNTY OF HAMPSHIRE.

Northampton.—The almshouse was a farm-house. It was purchased by the town, with the farm, in 1824. It is two stories high, and measures about 60 feet by 30. There is an out-building, which contains a work-room, a school-room, and lodging-rooms. This building measures 60 by 20 feet. There are 10 rooms for the inmates, and from one to ten lodge in a room. There is also a room for the insane, which is warmed by the funnel of a stove which passes through it. The sexes are effectually separated. The farm contains about 20 acres of poor soil; but it gave last year 100 bushels of corn, 125 of potatoes, 75 of peas for the market, and 10 of beans. Three or four cows are also pastured upon it. The establishment has been in operation eight years, and cost \$4,600. Three men and two women, of the inmates, are capable of half a day's work; and three men and three women, each of a fourth of a day's work. The increase of inmates in winter is ascribed, in part, to the increased necessities of the town's poor in that season; and in part to the calls and demands of the wandering poor, who have done some work, and received some aid elsewhere in the summer, and at the approach of winter have been sent off to find a shelter and a home where they might. Ardent spirits are not allowed to the inmates. Children are instructed by one of the inmates in the house. Religious services are performed in the house every Sunday evening. Of the wandering poor, as many as a hundred call at the house in a year, and not less than two hundred are annually seen by the overseers. Of these three-fourths might earn their own subsistence. The State poor are encouraged thus to apply for aid by their knowledge of the provision which the State has made for them; and "they trouble the town's poor, by telling them

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that they, the State's poor, support them, the town's poor." The selectmen are overseers of the poor and assessors of the taxes. They also nominate the surveyors of highways, and the town uniformly elects those who are so nominated.

The cost for the poor in the house last year was	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 1,811 67
For the out-door poor	-	-	-	-	-	465 99
Interest on the cost of the establishment	-	-	-	-	-	276 00
Whole Cost	-	-	-	-	-	<u>\$ 2,553 66</u>

Receipts :

For sundries sold, and work on the highways	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 141 25
From other towns for aid to their poor	-	-	-	-	-	21 99
From the State for State's poor	-	-	-	-	-	1,165 37
Total Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	<u>\$ 1,328 61</u>
The Expenditures having been	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 2,553 66
And the Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	1,328 61
The Balance against the Town was	-	-	-	-	-	<u>\$ 1,225 05</u>

COUNTY OF FRANKLIN.

Greenfield.—This town has for many years had a poor-house, with a single acre of land belonging to it. It is a one-story building, which measures 30 feet square. It has four rooms for the inmates below, and a garret the length of the building. The females sleep below and the males above. It is a standing rule to aid none, except at the house, but in extraordinary cases, as of mental derangement, and when a few families may need few and small supplies for their comfort. The poor in the house are in the charge of a female housekeeper, whose wages are \$1 25 per week. One of the overseers is required to be often at the house, for the superintendence of its concerns, for which he receives \$10 per annum. Two females are capable of a day's work. No other of the inmates is capable of any work. The State's poor demand aid on the ground of the State allowance for them, and refuse to go to the poor-house, pleading that they have a right to that which is supplied by the State. The chairman of the overseers thinks that he sees more than a hundred of the wandering poor annually; and of these he has seen few, during the eight years in which he has been an overseer, who, if kept from ardent spirits, and compelled to work, could not earn their own subsistence. The children are instructed in the town school, and are bound out by 12 years old. The average cost for the poor for the last five years has been \$355 50.

The cost for the poor last year was	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 394 97
Received from other towns for aid to their poor	-	-	-	-	-	50 28
„ from the State for State's poor	-	-	-	-	-	86 19
Total Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	<u>\$ 136 47</u>
The Expenditures last year having been	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 394 97
And the Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	136 47
The Balance against the Town was	-	-	-	-	-	<u>\$ 258 50</u>

STATEMENTS.

SECOND.—Of the manner of disposing of the Poor, of Expenditures for them, &c. in Towns which have neither Almshouses nor Farms for employing and supporting them.

COUNTY OF NORFOLK.

Canton.—Canton has not had an almshouse since 1823. After that time the poor were sometimes put up at auction to the lowest bidder, and sometimes were boarded out in families by the overseers. This last disposition is now made of them, and they are boarded at 85 cents per week, the town taking the expense of clothing them.

The whole Cost for the poor last year was	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 1,101 12
Received from the State for State's poor	-	-	-	-	-	\$92 85
„ from other towns for aid to their poor	-	-	-	-	-	43 66
Total Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	<u>\$ 136 51</u>
The Expenditures having been	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 1,101 12
And the Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	136 51
The Balance against the Town was	-	-	-	-	-	<u>\$ 964 61</u>

Stoughton.—The poor of this town are annually sold at auction to the lowest bidder. He to whom they are so disposed of agrees to take all who shall be sent to him by the overseers within the current year, at the cost for each for which he takes those who are immediately committed to his care. Some are

are partially assisted by the overseers, the cost for thus aiding them being less than would be incurred by putting them up at auction. Within 12 years past the expense of supporting the poor who were sold has varied from 62 cents to \$1 a week for each of them. The sum for which they were taken last year was 99 cents per week for each of them. The town owned an almshouse and farm six years ago, and sold it with a view to the more economical mode of providing for the poor, by the disposition which is now made of them. The farm contained 30 acres of land, and the establishment was sold for \$750. The person who now takes the charge of them for 99 cents per week incurs every expense for them, not only for clothing and support, but, in case of death, for their burial.

The whole Expense for the poor last year was	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 797 16
Received from other towns for aid given to their poor	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 5 00
„ from the State for State's poor	-	-	-	-	-	36 40
Total Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 41 40
The Expenditures having been	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 797 16
And the Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	41 40
The Balance against the Town was	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 755 76

COUNTY OF PLYMOUTH.

East Bridgewater.—The overseers of this town contract with one man to take the charge of five or six of the poor who are wholly supported by the town. A certain number are also partially aided in private families. The worth of the labour of all the poor supported by the town would not exceed \$50. The average cost for supporting the poor during the last five years has been \$880.

The whole Expense for the poor last year was	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 1,000 00
Receipts:						
From other towns for aid to their poor	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 20 00
From the State for State's poor	-	-	-	-	-	427 02
From labour of the poor	-	-	-	-	-	50 00
Total Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 497 02
The Expenditures having been	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 1,000 00
And the Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	497 02
The Balance against the Town was	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 502 98

COUNTY OF MIDDLESEX.

Framingham.—Previous to the last nine years the poor were disposed of in a mass to the lowest bidder for them. Since that time they have been placed at board in different families. For the first five of these nine years they were in the charge of one individual, who contracted to keep them for that time at \$1,000 per annum; he to have, besides any proceeds of their labour, whatever sums should be paid by other towns for the charge of their poor, and the State allowance for the State's poor. In the succeeding year they were contracted for by another individual, who agreed, with the same privileges in regard to their labour, to the poor of other towns, and to the State's poor, to take them for \$750 a year. And for the three following years they were taken by another individual, with the same privileges, for \$535 a year. This contract extends to the 19th of next April, at which time the poor will be removed to a farm which has been purchased for them by the town. For some years previous to the last nine years, the annual cost for the poor was from 12 to \$1,400 a year. The children in the charge of the overseers have been sent to the town school. Of the wandering State's poor, nearly all, if compelled to work, could earn their own subsistence. Cost for the poor last year, independent of the State allowance, \$535. The State allowance for State's poor, \$68 18. Total cost for the poor, \$603 18.

COUNTY OF WORCESTER.

Brookfield.—The poor of this town were first collected into an almshouse upon a farm on the 10th of the last April. As opportunity has not yet been had here for a trial of the self-supporting system, it was not thought proper to place this among the towns to which reference might be had for a knowledge of the character and value of that system.

The average cost for the poor of this place per annum, for the last five years, ending April 10th, 1832, has been	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 1,444 49
The whole cost for the poor during the year preceding the establishment of the farm was	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 1,544 80
Its allowance for the charge of State's poor was	-	-	-	-	-	49 17
Balance against the Town	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 1,495 63

The town have adopted the rule and practice, that no one shall be aided by the overseers, except under circumstances of peculiar urgency, but at the farm. It is also a rule, that no ardent spirits shall be given to the inmates of the house. The wandering poor "appear to be able to earn their subsistence. When directed to the almshouse for relief, and told that they must labour there, they have kept on their way."

Leominster.—

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Leominster.—The permanent poor of this place are boarded, nursed, clothed and attended by a physician, if necessary, with a contractor, who takes them for three years. This has been the practice for the last ten years. The present contractor has taken this class of the poor for 70 cents per week. These permanent poor consist of those adults who, it is known, must always be a charge to the town. In case of the death of either of them, the contractor is allowed \$10 for the expenses of his or her funeral. Small children are boarded out in families till they are eight years old, at which average age they are bound out. The cost for these is 40 cents per week. The poor who require only occasional relief receive it, as it is required, from the overseers. Only one man of the permanent poor is capable of half a day's work.

The average Expense for the poor for the last five years has been	-	\$ 1,100 00
Expense for the poor during the last year was	- - - - -	\$ 997 50
Received from other towns for aid to their poor	- - - - -	139 07
Balance against the Town	- - -	<u>\$ 858 43</u>

COUNTY OF HAMPDEN.

Brimfield.—The poor of this town are disposed of to those who will take them at the lowest price, regard being had by the overseers to those by whom they will be most justly and kindly treated. In the cases of permanent State's poor, the practice is to board them in families which will take them for the sum allowed for them by the State. Two State's poor were so boarded in the town last year. Of the poor taken by the lowest bidder, the average cost per week for adults is 75 cents. For children, 35 cents. The children in the charge of the overseers are bound out between the ages of 8 and 12 years, till they are 16 years old, at which time it is thought they may provide for themselves. They are instructed in the town school. Of the wandering State's poor, about 20 pass in a year, and nearly all, if detained and compelled to work, could earn their own subsistence.

The Cost for the adults last year was	- - - - -	\$ 480 25
For the children	- - - - -	142 75
Total Cost	- - - - -	<u>\$ 633 00</u>
Received from the State last year for State's poor	- - - - -	\$ 115 39
Balance against the Town	- - -	<u>\$ 517 61</u>

Monson.—Previous to the last two years the poor were disposed of to the lowest bidder. During the last two years they have been placed with different individuals with whom they could be boarded at the lowest cost. Of the poor taken by the lowest bidder, the average cost for adults has been 60 cents per week, for children 30 cents per week. The practice in regard to children is to bind them out as soon as possible. They are instructed in the town school. Three of the children will be permanently poor from blindness. Of the wandering State's poor, not more than ten are seen by the overseers in a year; but "half of these could earn their living."

Cost for the poor last year	- - - - -	\$ 780 04
Received from other towns for aid to their poor	- - - - -	\$ 18 00
„ from the State for State's poor	- - - - -	\$ 174 63
		<u>\$ 192 63</u>
Balance against the Town	- - -	<u>\$ 587 41</u>

West Springfield.—Previous to the last six years the poor were separated into lots, and bid off at auction to those who would take them for the lowest sum. They were then, however, neither well fed nor well clothed, and a change was found necessary in the manner of disposing of them. The plan was therefore adopted of contracting with an individual to take the charge of them for a sum which was thought adequate to their comfortable support. Two individuals thus took them, each for a year. Another then took them for the three succeeding years; and, sixteen months ago, another contracted to take the charge of them for five years for \$1,000 a year, he to be liable for expenses of every kind for the town's poor. The average cost for the poor for the last five years has been \$1,000 per annum. The State's poor are annually boarded with those who will take them for the State's allowance; the town being obliged to pay between 20 and 30 dollars a year, in addition to this allowance, for their clothing, and for medical attendance upon them. Of the poor when visited, one woman was capable of a day's work, one man of half, and two men of a fourth of a day's work. Of the wandering poor, not more than six call in a year. But they could all earn their living.

Cost for the town's poor last year	- - - - -	\$ 1,000 00
For the State's poor, the State allowance for them	- - - - -	223 36
Additional for clothing and medical attendance for them	- - - - -	35 00
From other towns for aid to their poor	- - - - -	35 37
Total Cost	- - - - -	<u>\$ 1,293 73</u>
The actual Cost to the Town was	- - -	<u>\$ 1,035 00</u>

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Granville.—Till the present year, the practice of this town has been to place the poor with those who would take the charge of them for the smallest sum. They have all, this year, been taken by an individual. Those who take the State's poor receive the whole of the State's allowance for the charge of them. It is not thought desirable thus to obtain the charge of the State's poor, but, on the contrary, it is difficult to find boarding places for them upon these terms.

The average Cost for the whole poor, during the last five years, has been	- \$ 630 00
The Cost for the whole, during the last year, was	- 610 66
The Receipts for State's poor were	- \$ 134 23
For the poor of other towns	- 00 00
The Balance against the Town therefore was	- \$ 476 43

Westfield.—Previous to the last four years, the poor here were generally placed at board with those who would take them for the smallest sum, regard being had to the consideration that they were to be faithfully provided for. Four years ago they were contracted for by an individual who agreed to take the town's poor to his own house, to feed, lodge and clothe them, in case of need to provide a physician for them, and if they should die, to bury them. For this charge of the town's poor he received \$ 448 50. In the three succeeding years they were disposed of at auction to the lowest bidder. A part of the State's poor are boarded with those who will take them for the amount per week allowed by the State; and to a part of them this allowance is given for their support. Five thus receive this allowance; two of whom are a mother and her daughter, and the three others, also females, are single persons. Of the poor now in the charge of the overseers, only one man is capable of a day's work; and two of a fourth of a day's work. Poor children go to the town school, and are bound out by 12 years of age. The average cost for the poor during the last five years has been \$ 950 00.

The whole Cost for the poor last year was	- \$ 928 43
Receipts:—From the State for State's poor	- \$ 417 43
From other towns for aid to their poor	- 15 00
Total Receipts	- \$ 432 43
The Cost having been	- \$ 928 43
And the Receipts	- 432 43
The Balance against the Town was	- \$ 496 00

COUNTY OF BERKSHIRE.

Sandisfield.—There has been no uniform mode of providing for the poor of this town. The general practice has been to place them in families in which they will be kindly treated. Till within 20 years there was no tax for the poor in this town. The average cost for the poor for the last five years has been \$ 375 00. The average cost for boarding adults and children, in the charge of the overseers, has been, for each, \$ 37 50. No wandering State's poor pass through this place. Poor children are bound out as soon as they are capable of any service. They are instructed in the town school.

The Cost for the poor last year was	- \$ 350 00
Receipts from the State for State's poor	- \$ 63 48
Balance against the Town	- \$ 286 52

New Marlborough.—The poor of this town have usually been boarded with different individuals. They are now with one who has contracted to take the entire charge of them. The cost for boarding and clothing adults during the last year was \$ 40 each. For boarding and clothing children \$ 20 each. The average cost for the poor for the last five years has been \$ 637 42.

The whole Expenditures for the poor last year were	- \$ 650 87
Receipts:—From the State for State's poor	- \$ 23 34
From other towns for aid to their poor	- 4 00
Total Receipts	- \$ 27 34
The Expenditures having been	- \$ 650 87
And the Receipts	- 27 34
The Balance against the Town was	- \$ 623 53

Few of the wandering State's poor are seen here, and no expense to the State is incurred for them.

Tyringham.—The overseers contract with different individuals for the support of the poor. Of the State's poor, 11 are Americans, and four are foreigners. Two are from New York; one from Connecticut; one from Rhode Island, and seven belong to Massachusetts. Four are blacks. Of the number of poor now in the charge of the overseers, two are capable of doing a day's work; three of half a day's work;

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work; and three of a fourth of a day's work. The average cost for the poor for the last five years has been \$765 00.

The whole Cost for the poor last year was - - - - -	\$ 647 00
The only Receipt of the last year was the State allowance - - - - -	371 57
Balance against the Town - - - - -	<u>\$ 275 43</u>

Sheffield.—The poor here were formerly boarded in the families of different individuals. For five years past they have been in the charge of one individual, who has provided an almshouse, and has kept the poor together. During the year before this provision for them, 49 poor were in the charge of the overseers, and the cost for them was \$1,967 00. When it was made known that the contractor who had engaged to take the support of them would give assistance to none except at the almshouse, but in cases of illness in which they could not be removed to it, only 17 of the 49 could be persuaded on these terms to accept of aid from the town. The indolent were excited to exertion, and the self-indulgent to self-denial. This individual took the poor for the first of these five years, for \$825; for the second, for \$750; for the third, for \$625; for the fourth, for \$575; and for the last year, for \$475. The whole number in the charge of the overseers when this almshouse was visited, on the 27th of November last, was eight; not one of whom was capable of any service.

The largest number of the State's poor who come here are foreigners. The American States' poor come from New York and Connecticut. The State's poor are provided for with, and in the same manner as, the town's poor.—The contractor takes the whole for a given sum, agreeing to exonerate the town from all cost, except for one of the State's poor who cannot be removed to his almshouse. Of the wandering State's poor, two-thirds, if kept from ardent spirits, and compelled to work, could earn their own subsistence. As many as thirty of them have called at the house during the past year.—Some of them have pleaded their right to be assisted, on the ground of the State allowance for them. Children are instructed in the town school, and are furnished with all necessary books. They are bound out by 10 or 12 years old.

The whole Cost for the poor last year, including \$ 25 for some extraordinary expenses, was - - - - -	\$ 665 00
The only Receipt was the State allowance - - - - -	185 01
Balance against the Town - - - - -	<u>\$ 479 99</u>

Egremont.—The poor of this town are put up at auction to the lowest bidder. Of fourteen now in the charge of the overseers, seven are State's poor. Of the State's poor, four are Americans, and three are foreigners. Of the foreigners, who are all Irish, two came to this place four years ago, from Sheffield, because they would not go to the almshouse there, and could here be supported when at liberty. Probably twenty of the wandering poor call on the poor-master in a year, three-fourths of whom could earn their own subsistence. They are principally foreigners. The travelling poor are encouraged to come into the State by their knowledge of a State provision for them. In the adjoining county of Columbia, in New York, no poor are aided but at the poorhouse. They therefore prefer to live in Massachusetts. The average cost for the poor here, for the last five years, has been \$407 60.

The Cost for the poor last year was - - - - -	\$ 427 55
The allowance for State's poor last year was - - - - -	266 04
Balance against the Town - - - - -	<u>\$ 161 51</u>

Great Barrington.—During the last five years the poor have once been put up at auction to the lowest bidder, and at other times have been contracted for by an individual; the selectmen having advertised for proposals to take the whole who may then be, and in any way shall through the year become, a charge to the town. It is not agreed in this contract that the individual who takes the poor shall receive the amount of the State allowance for such State poor as he may have to assist or to support. This allowance goes into the town treasury. The keeper of the poor renders an account to the overseers of the arrivals, departures and deaths of the State's poor who go to him for assistance, who from this make out their account against the State. The State poor are accustomed to refer to the State allowance for them as a ground of their right to the aid of the overseers. But it is the policy of the overseers, and one of the stipulations of the bond given by the keeper, that he shall dismiss all State's poor from his charge as soon as possible. Of the wandering State's poor, as many as fifty come annually under the notice of the overseers, nearly all of whom could earn their own subsistence. The average cost for the poor during the last five years has been \$950.

The cost for the poor last year was - - - - -	\$ 890 75
Received from other towns for aid to their poor - - - - -	27 50
From the State for State's poor - - - - -	322 17
Total Receipts - - - - -	<u>\$ 349 67</u>
The whole Cost having been - - - - -	\$ 890 75
And the Receipts - - - - -	349 67
The Balance against the Town was - - - - -	<u>\$ 541 08</u>

Stockbridge.—The overseers here contract with an individual to take the charge of the whole of the poor, with the exception of two; one an aged and respectable female, and the other an insane woman. The poor of this place have never been put up at auction to the lowest bidder. The contractor takes all who

who shall come upon the town for aid. The State allowance passes into the town treasury. The State's poor have applied here for aid, and have demanded it, on the ground of their right to it, a provision having been made for them by the State; but no aid is given to them on this ground. They have proposed to the overseers to secure the town from all expense for them, on the condition of a payment to them of the allowance granted by the State. But very few, not more than eight or ten, of the wandering poor pass through this place. Of these, nearly all might earn their own subsistence. The average cost for the poor for the last five years has been, \$600; that is, the annual cost for these years has been, \$800, 575, 575, 525, 525.

The whole Cost for the poor last year was	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 525 00
Receipts:—From other towns for aid to their poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 16 00
From the State for State's poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	229 50
Total Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 245 50
The Cost having been	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 525 00
And the Receipts	-	-	-	-	-	-	245 50
The Balance against the Town was	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 279 50

West Stockbridge.—For the five years previous to the last year, the poor were disposed of together in a lot to the lowest bidder; the person so taking them agreeing to take the entire charge of all then dependent upon the town for aid, both State and town's poor, and of any additional poor whom it might be necessary to assist during the term of his contract. Should any additional State's poor come into the town, for whom assistance should be required, the contractor was to receive whatever the State might allow for them. Probably 40 of the wandering poor pass through this town; and, of these, "about all," if debarred from the use of ardent spirits, and compelled to work, could earn their own subsistence. The travelling poor are encouraged to a life of beggary by their knowledge of the State provision for them. The sum for which the poor have been bid off averages for each about \$38 50 per annum.

The average Cost for the poor for the last five years has been	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 506 00
The Cost for the poor last year was	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 580 00
The only Receipt of the last year was, the allowance for State's poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	396 81
Balance against the Town	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 183 19

Lenox.—The poor of this town, as far as it is known to the overseers, have never been put up at auction. A part of them are aided in their own families, and a part of them are boarded in the families of others. This course is taken alike with State's and town's poor. For boarding the State's poor, the State allowance is always given in cases in which they may be so provided for. Frequently an increased expense is incurred for them by reason of sickness, &c. Of the travelling State's poor, as many as 50 pass annually; and "all, if set to work, might earn their living. We hurry them on to other towns as fast as we can." They claim the support of the town as a right, on the ground of the State allowance for them. The State's poor "talk of their rations, and ask if any are yet behind?" The average cost for the poor for the five last years has been \$650 00.

The Cost for the whole, last year, was	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 742 83
The only Receipt was the State allowance	-	-	-	-	-	-	380 83
Balance against the Town	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 362 00

Pittsfield.—For twelve years past the poor of this place were contracted for by two individuals, each for a term of six years. Each of these individuals agreed, for a specified sum, to exonerate the town from all charge, both for State's and town's poor, during the term of his contract. The first contractor received from the town \$1,050 per annum, he to receive in addition all that might be due from other towns for the charge of their poor, but nothing from the State on account of the State's poor. The second contractor received \$1,100 per annum, all that was received from other towns for their poor, and half of the State's allowance for State's poor; the poor to be supported to the satisfaction of the overseers for the time being. Each of these contractors provided a house exclusively for the poor, where all were kept together, except those who could be placed with their friends for a smaller cost than would have been incurred for them in the house. In the first case, the town had the exclusive benefit of the State allowance. In the last, it was divided between the contractor and the town. It cannot be estimated what was the gain to either by this arrangement. In the year preceding these twelve years, the cost for the poor was \$1,600. They were then boarded out by the overseers in private families. A farm was last year purchased by the town, to which the poor are now removed. About 100 of the wandering poor annually pass under the notice of the overseers; and, of these, three-fourths appear to be able to earn their own subsistence. The State's poor claim assistance on the ground of the State allowance for them.

The whole Cost for the poor last year was	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 1,380 92½
The only Receipt for the poor was the State allowance	-	-	-	-	-	-	561 85
Balance against the Town	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 819 07

Appendix (F.)
 Foreign
 Communications.
 Pauper System
 of Massachusetts.

Lanesborough.—The poor here are either boarded out in families by the overseers, who make private bargains with those who will take them for the smallest sum, and treat them kindly; or in case partial aid is needed in a family, it is given there by the overseers. Few of the wandering poor are seen here; but those who are seen appear to be capable of labour. The State's poor are encouraged to apply for aid by their knowledge of a State provision for them; and as soon as persons of this description become dependent, there is a disposition to avail of the State allowance for them. The average cost for the poor for the last five years has been \$498 20.

The Cost for the poor last year was	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 490 00
The only Receipt for the poor was the State allowance	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	452 01
								<u>37 99</u>
Balance against the Town	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 37 99

COUNTY OF FRANKLIN.

Deerfield.—For the last ten years the poor of this place have been in the charge of one individual, who contracted to take the charge of them for that term; he to receive \$450 per annum from the town, and, in addition, for the State's poor, all that the State should allow for them. He was also to receive from other towns whatever might be due from them for the charge of any of their poor. The term of this contract expired on the 1st of October last. The town is now looking anxiously for some plan for the future charge of the poor, which shall be at once the most humane and the most economical. The above contract was made in consequence of the offer of the contractor to take the poor for ten per cent. less than they had cost the town during the preceding ten years. The poor had formerly been boarded out in families by the overseers; but the contractor built a house for them, and determined to aid none except at the house he had provided. Several, therefore, who had been a town charge, were no longer aided by the town.

The Cost for the town's poor last year was	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 450 00
For State's poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	81 64
								<u>531 64</u>
For the whole	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 531 64
								<u>450 00</u>
The Balance against the Town was	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 450 00

Of the wandering State's poor about twenty-five or thirty annually pass under the notice of the overseers, nearly all of whom might earn their own living. The State's poor "come with the story that they are entitled to support from the State allowance."

COUNTY OF HAMPSHIRE.

Worthington.—The practice here has been, and is, for the overseers of the poor personally to give such assistance to families which may be in want, as they shall think to be proper. When individuals who have not families must be provided for, they are placed in families by the overseers, to be boarded for the time during which they may require the charity of the town. The cost for the poor in this town has been, in 1827, \$75; in 1828, \$00; in 1829, \$75; in 1830, \$137; in 1831, \$84. These sums have been voted to the overseers from year to year, and the expenses for the poor have been kept within them. Total cost for the poor for five years, \$371.

Hadley.—Previous to the two last years, the overseers assisted personally those who had need of the aid of the town. When single individuals required assistance, they were boarded in families in which their service would conduce to their support. For the last two years the poor have been put up at auction; that those thus bidding them off, by availing themselves of their capacity to work, might take them for a smaller cost than that for which they had before been supported. Of the wandering State's poor, as many as a hundred are seen annually by the overseers, and of these, 8 out of 10, if kept from ardent spirits, and compelled to work, could earn their own subsistence. The average cost for the poor for the last five years, has been \$706 03.

The Cost for the poor last year was	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 663 20
The only Receipt for them was the State allowance	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	40 81
								<u>622 39</u>
Balance against the Town	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 622 39

Amherst.

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Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.

Pauper System
of Massachusetts

Amherst.—For two, within the last 10 years, the poor of this place were disposed of at auction to the lowest bidder. In the other of these years the overseers have boarded single persons in private families; have sometimes aided families at their homes; and have sometimes committed a certain number of families, and of single persons, to an individual, who agreed to provide a house for them, where they might live together, cook for themselves, and otherwise do what they could for each other. No distinction has been made in the provision for State and town's poor. This is the manner in which the poor are now provided for. The average cost for supporting the poor is estimated to be from 70 to 75 cents per week. The chairman of the overseers thinks that he sees a hundred of the wandering poor pass through this place in a year, and that three-fourths of them might earn their own subsistence. Children are instructed in the town school, and are generally bound out by nine years old.

The whole Expense for the poor last year was	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 750 00
The only Receipt for the poor was the State allowance	-	-	-	-	-	128 52
Balance against the Town						\$ 621 48

TABLE I.—STATISTICS of the POOR in Towns which have - - - - -

COUNTIES and TOWNS.	POPULATION by the Census of 1830.	Average Number in the Almshouse during the last Five Years.	Of these were		Whole Number, more or less assisted in the House last Year.	Of these were		Whole Number in the House when visited.	OF THESE LAST WERE					
			States Poor.	Towns Poor.		States Poor.	Towns Poor.		States Poor.	Towns Poor.	Men.	Women.	Children.	Insane.
SUFFOLK:														
Boston - -	61,392	496	263	233	1,428	913	515	499	293	206	170	179	150	51
ESSEX:														
Salem - -	13,886	230	-	-	457	197	260	155	33	122	68	66	21	19
Marblehead -	5,150	105	7	98	181	12	169	109	1	108	22	77	10	4
Lynn - -	6,133	65	6	59	50	6	44	52	6	46	22	13	17	-
Beverly - -	4,065	30	6½	23½	58	1	57	27	1	26	10	12	5	3
Gloucester -	7,501	75	10½	64½	128	5	123	82	4	78	21	40	21	2
Ipswich - -	2,951	50	4	46	54	9	45	47	1	46	22	25	-	1
Rowley - -	2,044	42	-	-	60	45	15	27	11	16	14	10	3	2
Newbury - -	3,603	65	26	39	107	34	73	49	12	37	18	18	13	-
Newburyport -	6,388	99	-	-	147	30	117	85	-	-	39	38	8	6
Essex - -	1,346	18	-	-	22	1	21	20	-	-	4	13	3	1
Andover - -	4,540	32	4	28	65	15	50	33	2	31	10	17	6	3
Haverhill - -	3,912	33	-	-	50	8	42	30	-	-	11	13	6	3
MIDDLESEX:														
Charlestown -	8,787	184	115	69	325	240	85	150	97	53 { adults } 106	-	-	44	3
Cambridge - -	6,073	100	-	-	305	289	16	104	92	12	63	20	21	5
Medford - -	1,755	30	10	20	42	8	34	25	7	18	8	11	6	4
Malden - -	2,010	30	20	18	40	16	24	24	10	14	8	11	5	2
Watertown - -	1,641	25	8	17	54	16	38	30	12	18	11	11	8	1
Waltham - -	1,851	12	1	11	15	4	11	7	1	6	7	-	-	1
Littleton - -	947	16	1	15	23	2	21	15	-	15	3	6	6	2
Lexington - -	1,541	33	less than 1 in 5 yrs.	more than 32	26	-	26	14	1	13	4	4	6	-
Marlborough -	2,074	28	2	-	40	-	40	24	-	24	8	10	6	-
Concord - -	2,017	30	2	28	38	1	37	18	-	18	5	12	1	3
Chelmsford - -	1,387	10	1	9	15	1	14	3	-	3	1	2	-	-
Westford - -	1,329	25	1	24	31	-	31	12	-	12	4	8	-	2
Groton - -	1,925	32	2	30	36	4	32	24	-	24	6	10	8	1
NORFOLK:														
Roxbury - -	5,259	50	-	-	66	6	60	36	18	18	20	12	4	4
Dorchester - -	4,064	46	7	39	52	11	41	37	7	30	17	16	4	5
Quincy - -	2,193	22	-	22	20	4	16	16	3	13	7	9	-	-
PLYMOUTH:														
Middleborough -	5,008	76	21	55	75	12	63	30	1	29	6	13	11	1
Abington - -	2,423	23	1	22	27	1	26	18	-	18	5	7	6	3
BRISTOL:														
Taunton - -	6,045	40	3	37	59	5	54	28	4	24	9	14	5	-
Fairhaven - -	3,034	12	4	8	15	3	12	14	2	12	4	4	6	1
New Bedford -	7,592	40	more than half	-	120	75	45	39	14	25	23	9	7	4
WORCESTER:														
Worcester - -	4,172	25	5 in 5 yrs.	20	55	9	46	24	6	18	12	8	4	-
Shrewsbury - -	1,386	12	2 in 5 yrs.	-	16	2	14	13	-	13	5	5	3	2
Lancaster - -	2,016	25	1	-	27	-	27	21	-	21	6	13	2	1
Bolton - -	1,258	16	-	16	19	-	19	16	-	16	2	7	7	1
Westminster -	1,695	11½	-	-	12	-	12	13	-	13	3	3	7	-
Templeton - -	1,551	10	-	10	11	-	11	7	-	7	2	4	1	1
FRANKLIN:														
Greenfield - -	1,540	7	3	4	22	5	17	8	3	5	6	2	-	-
HAMPDEN:														
Springfield -	6,784	29	6 to 7	{ 22 to 23 }	33	13	20	17	4	13	8	9	-	1
HAMPSHIRE:														
Northampton -	3,613	127	109	18	109	94	15	30	13	17	13	8	9	1
TOTALS - -	215,881	2,466½	654	1,138	4,535	2,097	2,438	2,032	659	1,238	813	769	450	144

Almshouses, WITH LAND for the Employment of the Poor.

OF THESE LAST WERE									Whole Number, more or less, aided out of the House last Year.	OF THESE WERE	
Idiots.	Blind.	Between 60 & 70 Years old.	70 & 80.	80 & 90.	90 & 100.	Inmates for Life.	Brought to Poverty, directly or indirectly, by Intemperance.	More in Winter than in Summer.		STATES POOR.	TOWNS POOR.
28	2	over 70 29	—	—	—	300	Excluding Idiots & Insane. 3-4	1-3	{1,237 fam. of which 104 are city pensioners}	3-5ths or 741 families	2-5ths or 494 families.
18	5	21	23	4	1	—	9-10	{about 1-10}	60 families	9	51
1	1	38	—	2	—	{Nearly all except the children.}	3-4	1-10	30 —	1	29
—	1	over 70 5	—	—	—	18	17	—	{20 indiv. and a few aged couples}	—	—
1	—	5	2	3	—	17	3-4	6 or 8	35 fam. & some ind.	12 ind. & 1 fam.	34 families.
1	2	—	—	—	—	56	3-4	16	52 fam. & 4 ind.	12 fam. & 1 ind.	40 fam. & 3 ind.
1	1	9	10	6	1	33	23	—	12 families	—	All.
2	—	7	5	—	—	13	20	about double	4 fam. & 10 ind.	1	4 fam. & 9 ind.
2	—	5	5	4	1	25	40	1-3	15 fam. & 18 ind.	3 ind. & 3 fam.	12 fam. & 12 ind.
2	1	12	9	5	1	62	3-4	1-8	124 families	52 families	72 families.
1	—	10	—	—	1	17	11	—	8 —	—	—
2	1	5	3	2	—	20	—	—	20 fam. & 18 ind.	1 family	19 families.
2	2	5	3	3	1	24	—	6 or 7	3 fam. & 19 ind.	—	—
2	—	33	16	7	2	50	{more than 3-4}	1-4	90 —	50	40
1	—	17	10	2	—	20	3-4	1-3	20 —	—	20
—	—	1	4	1	—	18	—	1-4	—	—	—
2	—	3	—	2	—	17	—	1-4	—	—	—
—	1	2	3	1	—	11	{11 men & all the female State Poor}	less	{10 families and 52 individ.}	—	—
—	—	3	1	—	—	7	3	—	6 —	—	6
1	1	3	—	2	—	10	5	—	—	—	—
—	—	1	2	1	—	8	5	—	{4 families and 12 individuals}	—	All.
—	—	1	4	7	1	18	15	1-3	—	—	—
—	1	3	5	3	—	17	16	10	4 fam. & 8 indiv.	—	All.
—	—	1	1	—	—	3	2	—	2 —	—	2
1	—	3	—	—	—	6	6	3	—	—	—
—	—	—	5	3	—	16	10	—	2 fam. & 4 indiv.	2	2 fam. & 2 ind.
1	—	6	1	5	—	12	2-3	1-3	28 ind. & 8 fam.	15	—
1	1	13	4	1	—	30	18	1-4	10 families —	2 families	8 families.
1	1	2	2	1	—	15	8	3 or 4	2 families —	—	2 families.
2	1	5	6	3	—	19	15	1-4	12 —	7	5
—	—	1	8	—	—	12	15	6	5 —	2	3
2	—	4	5	5	—	19	9-10	—	20 families.	—	—
—	1	1	—	1	—	5	3	10 or 12	6 fam. & 1 indiv.	1 family	5 fam. & 1 ind.
3	—	4	5	2	—	9	20	—	—	—	—
2	1	4	1	6	—	15	12	75 p'cent	12 families —	1	{11 1 fam. & 1 ind.
—	—	4	3	—	—	8	11	3	1 fam. & 3 indiv.	2	—
3	1	8	6	—	1	20	4	—	—	—	—
1	—	2	2	—	—	9	10	2 or 3	—	—	—
—	—	3	1	—	—	6	3	—	1 —	—	1
1	1	1	—	—	—	6	2	—	—	—	—
1	—	—	2	1	1	6	2	—	5 families.	—	—
1	2	3	5	4	1	16	16	6 to 8	{20 families and 33 individ.}	—	—
—	—	4	6	—	—	26	3-4	1-3	—	—	—
87	28	253	202	87	12	1,019	—	—	{398 individuals and 1,666 fam.	106 individ. & 813 fam.	216 individ. and 713 fam.

TABLE II.—STATISTICS of the Poor in Towns which have not Land on which to employ them.

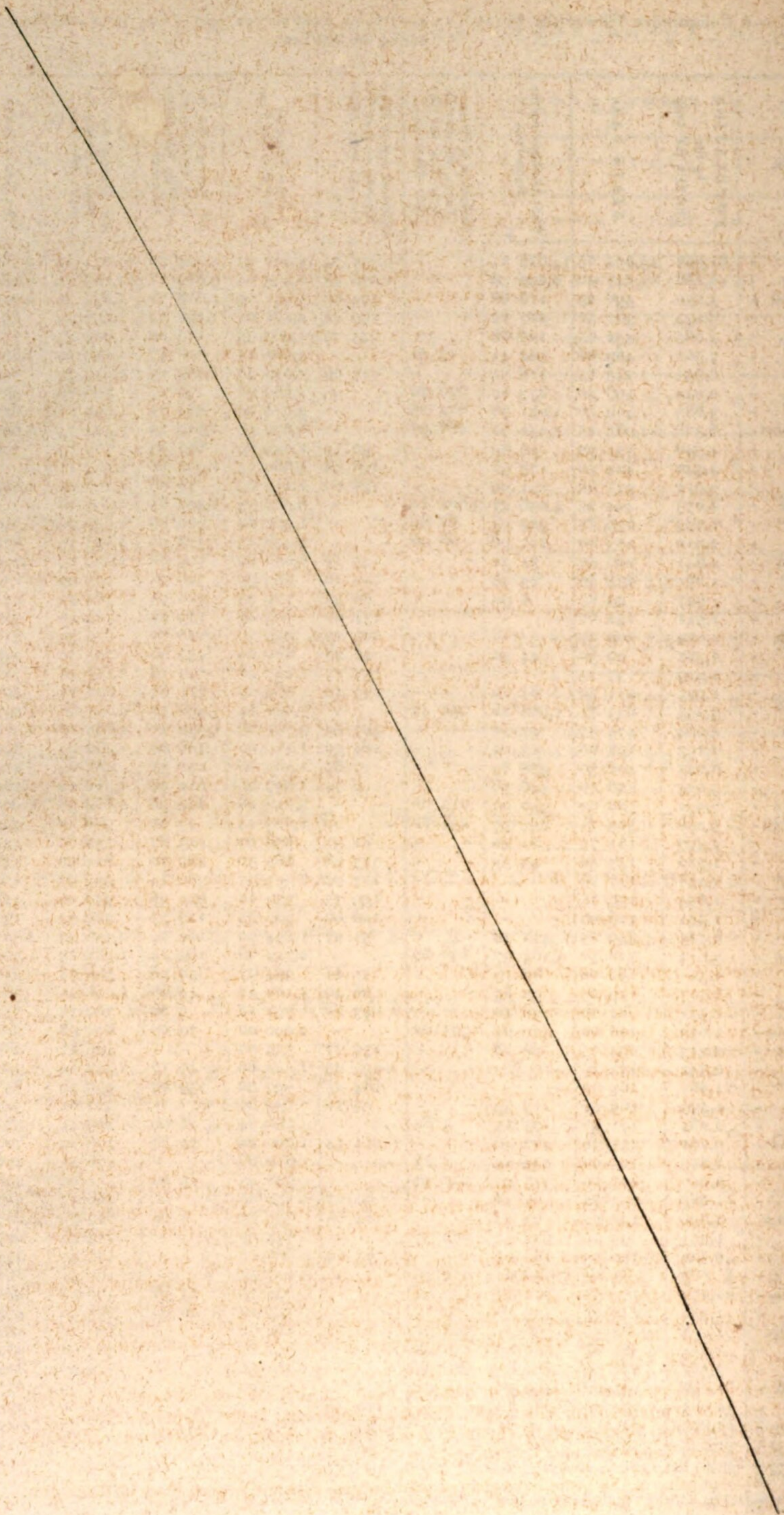
COUNTIES and TOWNS.	Population by the Census of 1830.	Average Number aided by the Town, during the last five Years.	Of these were		Number aided, more or less, during the last Year.	Of these were		Of these were		In the Charge of the Overseers when visited.	States Poor.	Towns Poor.	Adults.	Children.	Insane.	Idiot.	Blind.	Between 60 and 70 Years.	70 and 80.	80 and 90.	Above 90.	Permanently Poor, or Poor for Life.	Brought to Po- verty directly, or indirectly, by Intemper- ance.
			States Poor.	Towns Poor.		States Poor.	Towns Poor.	States Poor.	Towns Poor.														
NORFOLK:																							
Canton -	1,517	-	-	-	43 17 indivi- duals and 3 families	7	36	17	16	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	8	4	1	-	-	7
Stoughton -	1,591	-	-	-		1	19	11	11	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
PLYMOUTH:																							
East Bridgewater	1,653	25	9	16	35	10	25	33	18	7	26	15	15	15	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	27
MIDDLESEX:																							
Framingham -	2,313	44	3	41	32	4	28	15	-	2	13	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
WORCESTER:																							
Brookfield -	2,342	54	2	52	80	2	78	26	22	26	26	22	4	3	3	1	-	3	2	8	1	-	11
Leominster -	1,862	26	-	26	26	-	26	27	24	27	27	24	3	3	2	-	1	2	4	4	-	17	17
HAMPDEN:																							
Brimfield -	1,599	25	4	21	33	7	26	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	11	11
Monson -	2,264	30	12	18	42	20	22	15	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	14	3
West Springfield -	3,270	32	7	25	47	7	40	30	22	22	22	22	8	8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	22	21
Granville -	1,649	15	3	12	23	5	18	20	4	4	16	20	-	-	1	1	-	6	1	-	-	17	2
Westfield -	2,940	25	10	15	44	15	29	28	24	12	16	24	4	4	2	1	-	-	-	-	-	22	14
BERKSHIRE:																							
Sandisfield -	1,665	10	3	7	14	7	7	10	7	8	2	7	3	3	1	1	-	2	4	-	-	7	1
New Marlborough	1,656	15	13	13	18	1	17	18	15	17	1	15	15	3	-	5	-	4	4	-	-	14	8
Tyringham -	1,351	25	10	15	34	15	19	26	11	11	15	17	9	9	1	1	-	1	3	4	-	20	16
Sheffield -	2,392	15	8	7	20	12	8	8	4	4	4	7	7	1	-	-	-	6	2	1	-	7	1
Egremont -	889	17	10	7	15	8	7	14	13	7	7	13	1	1	-	2	-	6	-	1	-	-	2
Great Barrington	2,276	41	15	26	41	13	28	26	16	16	10	20	6	6	1	3	1	7	5	1	1	20	11
Stockbridge -	1,581	16	7	9	14	6	8	19	13	8	11	13	10	10	2	-	1	2	2	-	-	12	8
West Stockbridge	1,208	13	10	3	19	14	5	13	5	5	8	10	3	3	-	2	-	1	2	-	-	6	8
Lenox -	1,355	21	15	6	26	15	11	21	11	7	14	11	10	10	2	1	2	-	2	-	-	8	4
Pittsfield -	3,561	35	23	12	45	30	15	35	18	15	20	17	17	17	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	18	17
Lanesborough -	1,192	16	12	4	19	14	5	13	9	3	10	4	4	4	-	1	-	1	8	-	-	9	-
FRANKLIN:																							
Deerfield -	2,003	16	3	13	12	2	10	13	12	12	1	12	12	1	1	2	-	4	3	2	-	12	8
HAMPSHIRE:																							
Hadley -	1,686	18	1	17	25	1	24	17	13	16	1	16	13	4	1	-	-	2	4	-	-	13	13
Amberst -	2,631	15	4	11	27	6	21	25	17	21	4	21	17	8	2	2	1	2	3	2	2	15	13
TOTALS - - -	48,446	549	172	376	754	222	532	480	309	339	160	309	111	24	24	24	11	51	52	24	4	262	-

TABLE III.—A Comparative View of the STATE TAX and STATE ALLOWANCE, and of the State and Town Expenses for the Poor, during the last Year.

TOWNS.	POPULATION by the CENSUS OF 1830.	STATE TAX.	State Allowance for the States Poor.	Difference in favour of Towns, between the State Tax and the State Allowance.	Difference against Towns between the State Tax and the State Allow- ance.	Gross Expenses for the Poor last Year.	All Receipts for the Poor last Year, ex- cepting the States Allowance.	Net Expense for the Poor, deducting the States Allowance.	Net Cost to Towns for the Poor.	Number of States Poor for whom the States Expense was incurred.	Number of Towns Poor for whom the Towns Expense was incurred.
Boston -	61,392	25,004 25	14,627 51	-	10,376 74	44,402 03	5,207 70	29,774 52	24,566 82	3,880	2,493
* Salem -	13,886	3,547 50	2,290 58	-	1,256 92	16,453 68	5,079 31	14,163 01	9,083 79	233	464
* Marblehead -	5,150	596 25	116 26	-	479 99	5,951 19	1,618 31	5,834 93	4,216 62	13	198
Lynn -	6,133	367 50	207 22	-	160 28	2,161 01	1,298 34	1,953 79	655 45	6	64
Beverly -	4,065	452 25	106 88	-	345 27	1,009 35	150 00	902 47	752 47	17	220
Gloucester -	7,501	489 00	502 31	13 31	-	4,000 41	696 47	3,198 10	2,801 33	54	286
Ipswich -	2,951	243 75	116 75	-	127 00	2,029 50	1,069 15	1,912 75	843 60	9	93
Rowley -	2,044	196 50	873 20	676 70	-	1,380 08	70 07	506 88	436 81	46	40
Newbury -	3,603	409 50	1,021 78	612 28	-	3,018 96	384 73	1,997 18	1,612 45	49	133
* Newburyport -	6,388	1,085 25	1,352 22	266 97	-	8,876 97	2,829 29	7,524 75	4,695 46	238	405
Essex -	1,346	131 25	40 80	-	90 45	1,014 69	607 09	273 89	366 80	1	29
Andover -	4,540	424 50	175 92	-	248 58	1,880 03	1,932 86	1,704 11	-	19	126
Haverhill -	3,912	327 00	151 00	-	176 00	1,253 09	18 06	1,102 09	1,084 03	8	73
* Cambridge -	6,073	494 25	4,096 47	3,602 22	-	6,089 53	2,593 65	1,993 06	-	290	125
* Medford -	1,755	239 25	321 94	82 69	-	1,962 64	300 00	1,640 70	1,340 70	8	34
* Malden -	2,010	183 00	251 06	68 06	-	2,446 25	1,522 92	2,195 19	672 27	16	24
* Watertown -	1,641	226 50	81 31	-	145 19	2,020 00	709 68	1,938 69	1,220 01	16	130
Waltham -	1,851	235 50	23 40	-	212 10	989 39	726 95	965 99	239 04	4	17
Littleton -	947	95 25	6 90	-	88 35	771 33	520 05	764 43	244 38	2	21
Lexington -	1,541	132 00	-	-	132 00	703 47	173 72	703 47	529 75	-	54
Marlborough -	2,074	209 25	-	-	209 25	939 39	628 61	939 39	310 78	-	40
Chelmsford -	1,387	90 90	44 50	-	46 40	800 00	455 60	755 50	299 90	1	16
Westford -	1,329	137 25	-	-	137 25	1,257 46	540 16	1,257 46	714 24	-	31
Groton -	1,925	211 50	62 10	-	149 40	869 27	311 63	807 17	495 54	6	42
* Roxbury -	5,259	633 75	1,026 18	392 43	-	7,091 84	1,468 50	6,065 66	4,597 16	21	60
* Dorchester -	4,064	474 75	47 10	-	427 65	3,712 26	1,592 21	3,665 16	2,072 95	19	73
* Quincy -	2,193	198 00	13 10	-	184 90	1,420 00	786 00	1,406 90	620 90	4	24
Taunton -	6,045	406 50	378 83	-	27 67	1,363 86	170 51	985 03	814 52	5	54
Fairhaven -	3,034	256 50	246 76	-	9 74	1,627 96½	112 06	1,381 20	1,269 14½	7	33
New Bedford -	7,592	780 00	992 00	212 00	-	3,816 96	824 96	2,824 96	2,000 00	75	45
Middleborough -	5,008	399 75	654 57	254 82	-	1,623 24	43 00	968 67	925 67	19	68
Abington -	2,423	162 75	81 40	-	81 31	836 00	219 61	754 60	534 09	3	29
Shrewsbury -	1,386	157 50	43 52	-	113 98	865 50	483 60	821 98	338 38	4	19
Bolton -	1,258	117 00	-	-	117 00	593 95	360 14	593 95	233 81	-	19
Westminster -	1,695	159 75	-	-	159 75	350 00	221 28	350 00	128 72	-	13
Templeton -	1,551	126 00	-	-	126 00	305 33	113 33	305 33	192 00	-	11
Springfield -	6,784	449 25	418 18	-	31 07	1,834 72	104 25	1,416 54	1,312 29	13	133
Northampton -	3,613	328 50	1,165 37	836 87	-	2,553 66	163 24	1,388 29	1,225 05	94	15
Greenfield -	1,540	162 00	86 19	-	75 81	394 97	50 28	308 78	258 50	5	17
Canton -	1,517	119 25	92 85	-	26 40	1,101 12	43 66	1,008 27	964 61	7	36
Stoughton -	1,591	84 00	36 40	-	47 60	797 16	5 00	760 76	755 56	1	19
East Bridgewater -	1,653	126 00	427 02	301 02	-	1,000 00	70 00	672 98	502 98	10	25
Framingham -	2,313	203 25	68 18	-	135 07	535 00	-	466 82	466 82	4	28
Brookfield -	2,342	233 25	-	-	233 25	1,544 80	49 17	1,544 80	1,495 63	2	78
Leominster -	1,862	164 25	-	-	164 25	997 50	139 07	997 50	858 43	-	26
Brimfield -	1,599	169 50	115 39	-	54 11	633 00	-	517 61	517 61	7	26
Monson -	2,264	171 00	174 13	3 60	-	780 04	18 00	605 41	587 41	20	22
West Springfield -	3,270	337 50	223 36	-	114 14	1,000 00	70 37	776 64	706 27	7	40
Granville -	1,649	129 00	134 23	5 23	-	610 66	-	476 43	476 43	5	18
Westfield -	2,940	225 00	417 43	192 43	-	928 43	15 00	511 00	496 00	15	29
Sandisfield -	1,665	153 75	63 48	-	90 27	350 00	-	286 52	286 52	7	7
New Marlborough -	1,656	138 00	23 34	-	114 66	650 87	4 00	627 53	623 53	1	17
Tyringham -	1,351	99 00	371 57	272 57	-	649 00	-	277 43	277 43	15	19
Sheffield -	2,392	200 25	185 01	-	15 24	665 00	-	479 99	479 99	12	8
Egremont -	889	65 25	266 04	200 79	-	427 55	-	161 51	161 51	8	7
Great Barrington -	2,276	171 75	322 17	150 42	-	890 75	27 50	568 58	541 18	13	28
Stockbridge -	1,581	140 25	229 50	89 25	-	525 00	16 00	295 50	279 50	6	8
West Stockbridge -	1,208	88 50	396 81	308 31	-	580 00	-	183 19	183 19	14	5
Lenox -	1,355	122 25	380 83	258 58	-	742 83	-	362 00	362 00	15	11
Pittsfield -	3,561	277 50	561 85	284 35	-	1,380 92½	-	819 07½	819 07½	30	15
Lanesborough -	1,192	135 00	452 01	317 01	-	490 00	-	37 99	37 99	14	5
Deerfield -	2,003	192 00	81 64	-	110 36	531 64	-	450 00	450 00	2	10
Hadley -	1,686	145 50	40 81	-	104 69	663 20	-	622 39	622 39	1	24
Amherst -	2,631	183 75	128 52	-	55 23	750 00	-	621 48	621 48	6	21

Note 1.—In the Towns which have an asterisk before them the Overseers of the Poor are Surveyors of the Highways.

2.—The amount of the State Tax is \$ 75,000. The State Allowances of the last year, during seven months of which they were reduced to 70 cents a week for adults and proportionally for children, amounted to \$ 60,455 62.



No. 7.

UNITED STATES.

STATE OF NEW YORK.

[First printed at Albany, New York, 1834.]

REPORT of the Secretary of State, giving an Abstract of the REPORTS of the
SUPERINTENDENTS of the POOR.

Made to the Legislature, February 19, 1834.

TO THE LEGISLATURE.

Albany, 8th February 1834.

IN obedience to provisions of sec. 79, title 2, chap. 20, part 1st, of the Revised Statutes, the Secretary of State has the honour to present "An Abstract of the Returns and Reports" of the superintendents of the poor of the several counties in the State.

The Tables marked (A.) (B.) (C.) and (D.) contain the required Abstract, and it will appear by a reference thereto, that the reports have been regularly received from the superintendents of all the organized counties in the State, fifty-five in number. The county of Chautauque has just completed its poor-house, and the report of the superintendents is in some respects defective, from the temporary confusion arising from the change of system.

It will be seen, by referring to Abstract (A.) that the whole number of paupers relieved or supported during the year ending at the date of the reports, was 35,777. Of these, 33,525 were county paupers, and 2,252 town paupers. The aggregate expense of relieving and supporting the whole number was \$295,239.13. During the preceding year, the whole number supported in 51 counties, was 34,094, and the aggregate expense of their support was \$267,767.80.

By Abstract (B.) it will appear that the sum of \$4,856.83 has been paid for the transportation of paupers; to superintendents for their services, \$11,313.96; to overseers of the poor, \$10,932.56; to justices, \$2,774.46; to the keepers and officers of the poor-houses, \$21,247.64; to physicians, for attendance and medicine, \$10,593.83; that the value of the labour of the paupers amounted to \$31,217.20; the amount saved in consequence of the labour of the paupers, \$23,670.15; and that the average expense of supporting each pauper, at the poor-house, was \$32.21 per annum, or 61½ cents per week. During the preceding year the expense of supporting each pauper was \$32.41½ per annum, or 62½ cents per week.

Abstract (C.) shows that there are attached to the poor-houses 5,776½ acres of land, and that the aggregate value of all the poor-house establishments in the State, amounts to \$865,770.89; that the number of paupers received into the poor-houses during the year, was 10,494; that there were born in the poor-houses during the same period, 312; died, 1,138; bound out, 802; discharged, 6,833; and that 930 absconded. The number of females in the poor-houses, on the 1st December 1833, was 2,821, and of males, 3,106—total of both sexes, 5,927. Of the number relieved during the year, 4,525 were foreigners; 602 lunatics; 219 idiots; and 48 mutes.

The Table marked (D.) shows the number of children in the poor-houses, under 16 years of age, to be 1,982, of which number, 1,429 have been instructed an average period of nine months, under the direction of teachers at the poor-houses or at the district schools. In nine counties no instruction is reported; but there is reason to believe that the omission in some of these cases was accidental, and in almost all, the number of children is extremely small.

The following thirty-seven counties have abolished the distinction between town and county poor, viz.: Albany, Allegany, Broome, Cattaraugus, Cayuga, Chautauque, Clinton, Columbia, Delaware, Dutchess, Erie, Essex, Franklin, Genesee, Greene, Herkimer, Kings, Livingston, Madison, Montgomery, New-York, Niagara, Oneida, Ontario, Orange, Orleans, Otsego, Putnam, Saratoga, Seneca, Saint Lawrence, Sullivan, Warren, Washington, Wayne, Westchester, and Yates.

The following counties, eighteen in number, have not abolished the distinction between town and county poor, viz.: Chenango, Cortland, Jefferson, Lewis, Monroe, Onondaga, Oswego, Queens, Rensselaer, Richmond, Rockland, Schenectady, Schoharie, Steuben, Suffolk, Tioga, Tompkins, and Ulster.

All the counties in the State have erected poor-houses, with the exception of Cattaraugus, Queens, Rensselaer, Rockland, Steuben and Suffolk.

Appendix (F.)
 Foreign
 Communications.
 —
 New York.

The practical operation of the poor-house system demonstrates satisfactorily that it has a decided advantage, on the score of economy, over every other existing mode of supporting indigent persons; and that the expense of the system, in proportion to the number of paupers supported, is regularly diminishing, as those who are engaged in its management become better acquainted with its details. In 1830, the annual expense of maintaining each pauper was \$37.03; in 1831, \$33.28; in 1832, \$32.41 $\frac{1}{2}$; and it is now reduced to \$32.21. The inducement to adopt the poor-house system is in each county in ratio of the number of persons to be permanently supported; for the expense of superintendence and management is not augmented in proportion to the increase of the number of paupers. Notwithstanding its superiority over the former plan, however, there are several counties which have not adopted it. Among these is the county of Rensselaer, which still continues to support its paupers at a house of industry, at the expense of \$1.25 per week each, in addition to the labour which they may perform. Until the last year the amount paid was \$1.50 per week. A very brief statement will serve to exhibit the loss which this county has sustained during the last three years, by omitting to establish a poor-house. During the year 1831 the expense of the paupers supported by the county was \$6,007.23, which sum, divided by the sum annually paid for each, would give an average of 75 paupers supported during the whole year. At \$1.50 per week, the expense of supporting each pauper would amount to \$78. The average expense, during the same period, of supporting a pauper at a county poor-house, was not more than \$33.28, making a loss to the county of Rensselaer, of \$44.72 for each pauper, or an aggregate of \$3,353, for the year 1831. A similar estimate for the year 1832, would make an aggregate loss to the county of \$3,737.86; and for 1833, after making allowance for the reduced cost of supporting a pauper, a loss of \$2,925.31. The county has, therefore, sustained an aggregate loss in three years of \$10,016.17, for want of a poor-house; a sum exceeding by more than fifty per cent. the average value of the poor-house establishments in all the counties in the State, excepting that of the city of New York.

It is very desirable, on the score of public convenience, that a uniform system of supporting the poor, should prevail throughout the State; and it is equally desirable on the score of economy. From the imperfect nature of the returns received from the counties in which the towns support their own poor, the whole annual expense is not often exhibited with certainty; and it is believed, that if the exact expenditure in every case could be shown, the counties would all adopt the poor-house system, and abolish the distinction between town and county poor. The county of Steuben is now engaged in making arrangements for that purpose.

Although the management of the poor-house establishments is not subject to such supervision as to bring all the details of their actual condition under the notice of the Legislature, enough is disclosed by the annual reports of the superintendents to afford just reason for believing that they are in general as well conducted under the direction of the county authorities, both as regards economy of expenditure and the comfort of the poor supported in them, as they could be under any other system of inspection. With respect to the aged and infirm, humanity dictates that every comfort should be provided for them. But with respect to those who are able to work, the system ought not, in justice to individuals or the public, to be so relaxed in its requirements, or so alluring on the score of its comforts, as to present a temptation to those to rely on it, who, with suitable exertions might provide for their own support by the labour of their own hands. If these establishments secure to the persons maintained in them, a more abundant or comfortable support than a labouring man can procure for himself and his family, the inevitable result is to offer to the indolent a premium, to be paid out of the earnings of the industrious. While, therefore, a humane and liberal regard is due to the wants and comforts of those who, from their youth, bodily infirmities, or the accumulation of years, are incapable of providing for their own support, the system should for all the others be one of unceasing employment. It should not, by holding out the prospect of greater comfort or less labour, present to any one an inducement, other than that of necessity, to exchange his independent industry for a dependence on a public establishment.

By a reference to the abstract marked (C.) it will appear that 602 lunatics have been relieved or supported during the year, embraced in the returns of the superintendents. The greater part are maintained at the county poor-houses, and it is well known that these establishments have no means of doing more than to provide for their security and mere personal comfort. It must frequently happen, therefore, from the want of necessary accommodations, that those, who require personal restraint, are so secured as to aggravate the mental disease under which they are labouring. Alienations of mind, which are but partial and which might with proper medical treatment be restored, frequently become incurable from the necessity of adopting, with a view to the personal security of the individuals affected by them, measures which are of themselves calculated to prolong the disease and render its eradication hopeless. So far as is known, no curative process is adopted at any of the poor-houses with regard to insane paupers, and it is hardly possible that it can be with much prospect of success. On the contrary, it is believed, that their condition is often of a nature the most unfavourable to their recovery. So far as it is in the power of the keepers and officers of the poor-houses to ameliorate it, the duty is doubtless faithfully performed; but their ability to accomplish the object is limited by extremely limited means. The evil is the fault of the system, and cannot be justly imputed to those who are charged with its execution.

Under

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Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.

New York.

Under every advantage of medical treatment, and with every convenience for promoting a restoration of the mind to a state of sanity; with all the mitigation which attention and sympathy can afford, the deprivation of reason is the greatest calamity which can befall our species. But it becomes infinitely more deplorable when all these alleviations are wanting, and when indigence and neglect conspire to aggravate the disease and render it perpetual. This consideration is not mitigated by the fact, that a great majority of the insane poor now reported, might, with proper medical treatment, have been restored to health and to the discharge of their social duties. It is believed, that a disclosure of their actual condition would lead to some effective measures for their relief.

It was recommended in the last annual report of the Secretary of State, that the failure on the part of the supervisors of towns in those counties in which all the poor are not a county charge, to make their annual reports, should be passed by without being reported for prosecution, as required by section 78, of the title of the Revised Statutes, providing "for the relief and support of indigent persons," inasmuch as the pamphlet edition of the Poor Laws had but recently been sent out for distribution. The delinquencies during the last year are fewer in number, excepting in reporting the number of tavern licenses and the amount of excise money in the several towns; but as the system has only been in operation for a short period, and as there is reason to believe that the delinquencies may be owing in some instances to a failure on the part of the proper officers to distribute the Poor Laws as directed, it is respectfully submitted to the Legislature, that the prosecutions to which the supervisors are liable should not be commenced at this time. This suggestion would not be made, if the Secretary of State were not confident that by taking proper measures at an early day, the reports of next year may be procured from all the persons who are required to make them, and that future punctuality may be secured.

John A. Dix, Secretary of State.

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.

New York.

DOCUMENTS.

(A.)

ABSTRACT of the RETURNS from the SUPERINTENDENTS of the POOR of the several Counties, exhibiting the whole Number of Town and County Paupers, relieved or supported, during the Year ending December 1, 1833, and the Amount expended for their Support.

COUNTIES.	Whole Number of Paupers relieved or supported, during the Year ending Dec. 1, 1833.	Number of County Paupers relieved or supported.	Number of Town Paupers relieved or supported.	Whole Expense of Support of County and Town Paupers, for the Year ending Dec. 1, 1833.
Albany - - - - -	911	911	- -	9,090 63
Allegany - - - - -	85	85	- -	1,400 00
Broome - - - - -	85	85	- -	1,358 07
Cattaraugus - - - - -	143	143	- -	3,536 52
Cayuga - - - - -	274	274	- -	5,038 63
Chautauque - - - - -	-	-	-	-
Chenango - - - - -	119	38	81	1,432 89
Clinton - - - - -	310	310	- -	3,748 09
Columbia - - - - -	553	553	- -	7,231 82
Cortland - - - - -	25	25	- -	1,187 73
Delaware - - - - -	124	124	- -	2,712 69
Dutchess - - - - -	513	513	- -	9,490 00
Erie - - - - -	283	283	- -	3,115 20
Essex - - - - -	104	104	- -	1,342 46
Franklin - - - - -	117	117	- -	2,618 93
Genesee - - - - -	210	210	- -	2,813 20
Greene - - - - -	151	151	- -	5,380 90
Herkimer - - - - -	220	220	- -	2,850 65
Jefferson - - - - -	416	187	229	6,033 42
Kings - - - - -	401	401	- -	3,057 59
Lewis - - - - -	50	20	30	1,287 41
Livingston - - - - -	124	124	- -	1,234 47
Madison - - - - -	182	182	- -	3,187 51
Monroe - - - - -	888	508	380	9,913 45
Montgomery - - - - -	329	329	- -	4,228 04
New York - - - - -	22,584	22,584	- -	92,040 17
Niagara - - - - -	180	180	- -	1,394 41
Oneida - - - - -	380	380	- -	5,539 05
Onondaga - - - - -	261	147	114	2,475 00
Ontario - - - - -	220	220	- -	4,809 27
Orange - - - - -	680	680	- -	11,776 61
Orleans - - - - -	96	96	- -	1,139 39
Oswego - - - - -	116	78	38	1,999 76
Otsego - - - - -	427	427	- -	5,122 43
Putnam - - - - -	110	110	- -	1,889 51
Queens - - - - -	285	61	224	7,128 79
Rensselaer - - - - -	619	333	286	6,968 50
Richmond - - - - -	49	20	29	995 46
Rockland - - - - -	135	14	121	2,358 30
Saratoga - - - - -	308	308	- -	4,554 09
Schenectady - - - - -	45	10	35	1,667 00
Schoharie - - - - -	57	30	27	1,943 97
Seneca - - - - -	127	127	- -	1,062 66
St. Lawrence - - - - -	300	300	- -	7,429 06
Steuben - - - - -	169	92	77	4,820 00
Suffolk - - - - -	227	8	219	5,073 67
Sullivan - - - - -	111	111	- -	1,953 41
Tioga - - - - -	112	76	36	2,262 56
Tompkins - - - - -	210	125	85	3,033 92
Ulster - - - - -	269	149	120	2,816 13
Warren - - - - -	98	98	- -	1,600 00
Washington - - - - -	286	286	- -	5,676 00
Wayne - - - - -	241	241	- -	2,962 00
Westchester - - - - -	388	388	- -	8,250 20
Yates - - - - -	70	70	- -	1,207 51
	35,777	33,646	2,131	\$ 295,239 13

(B.)

The following TABLE shows the Amount paid in the respective Counties, for the transportation of Paupers, to Superintendents, Overseers, Justices, Keepers, &c., and also the Value of the Labour of the Paupers, the average Cost of supporting each Pauper, for one Year, and one Week.

COUNTIES.	Amount paid for transportation of Paupers for the year ending December 1, 1833.	Allowance to Superintendents.	Allowance made to Overseers.	Allowance made to Justices.	Allowance made to Keepers and Officers.	Actual Value of the Labour of the Paupers.	Amount saved in consequence of Labour of Paupers.	Sum actually expended over and above the Labour and Earnings of the Paupers, for each Person during the year.	Actual weekly Expense of keeping each Person.	Allowance to Physicians.
Albany -	-	\$500 00	\$ 500 00	-	\$300 00	\$359 43	\$4,300 00	\$ 34 32	66 c.	
Allegany -	\$ 80 00	161 00	-	-	350 00	50 00	75 00	43 75	85	\$ 125 00
Broome -	23 44	98 50	78 00	\$ 14 47	-	-	-	25 26	48.6	
Cattaraugus -	-	207 00	27 00	11 50	-	-	-	24 73	47.5	209 59
Cayuga -	176 75	246 16	1,186 81	157 94	365 00	732 36	400 00	16 82	32.3	784 02
Chautauque -	121 12	-	-	-	261 00	250 00	354 00	29 76	62	
Chenango -	70 05	93 00	-	-	350 00	397 05	397 05	20 80	40	
Clinton -	139 75	147 77	180 31	89 28	324 50	2,181 29	2,181 29	33 80	65	94 69
Columbia -	223 11	413 78	243 72	400 20	520 00	1,200 00	1,200 00	20 80	40	136 67
Cortland -	-	139 57	8 75	5 88	-	-	-	-	-	31 43
Delaware -	150 43	70 75	130 00	66 00	557 00	200 00	250 00	32 76	63	175 09
Dutchess -	142 73	708 00	301 25	182 64	640 00	1,500 00	-	22 88	44	150 00
Erie -	109 00	189 00	313 87	14 13	400 00	-	-	35 55	62.5	258 88
Essex -	97 79	126 64	34 59	10 00	525 00	750 00	1,535 56	-	-	
Franklin -	42 96	70 00	67 63	32 57	340 00	350 00	350 00	19 76	38	
Genesee -	114 35	175 00	-	-	300 00	250 00	350 00	32 33	62.1	149 00
Greene -	-	-	-	-	-	883 00	883 00	29 78	57.3	
Herkimer -	60 98	99 75	103 73	34 01	335 72	120 00	120 00	22 36	43	152 63
Jefferson -	104 25	116 75	553 72	190 47	604 00	150 00	150 00	29 00	56	677 27
Kings -	50 00	600 00	309 00	47 50	433 55	-	-	25 48	49	
Lewis -	10 75	45 00	19 05	16 62	350 00	150 00	150 00	51 48	99	
Livingston -	64 08	126 75	116 47	6 81	297 50	-	-	30 54	59	141 98
Madison -	99 13	188 00	170 71	41 81	400 00	310 00	310 00	25 89	49	110 00
Monroe -	98 49	246 25	719 90	221 25	445 00	300 00	450 00	25 36	48.7	210 00
Montgomery -	67 94	222 00	296 08	69 43	531 50	500 00	400 00	22 00	41.5	248 49
New York -	589 62	1,600 00	-	-	3,907 82	14,043 00	-	51 22	98	4,081 46
Niagara -	80 75	114 35	-	-	510 00	624 07	762 00	28 17	54	
Oneida -	130 00	261 04	1,346 25	114 80	770 00	-	-	24 26	46	175 00
Onondaga -	248 42	213 00	-	-	550 75	-	500 00	27 50	53	200 00
Ontario -	141 25	120 00	320 83	89 53	300 00	1,100 00	1,727 00	31 97	61	150 00
Orange -	280 35	350 00	471 78	200 88	700 00	1,600 00	1,700 00	22 11	42.5	760 27
Orleans -	37 54	279 00	72 78	19 19	325 00	50 00	50 00	21 91	42.1	
Oswego -	94 27	233 81	-	-	300 00	92 00	189 25	43 16	83	156 13
Otsego -	158 35	227 85	222 42	77 41	-	550 00	697 00	22 88	44	136 00
Putnam -	8 34	99 00	32 43	28 75	301 80	400 00	350 00	26 61	51	
Queens -	91 62	75 00	411 75	240 15	-	-	-	45 50	87.5	303 13
Rensselaer -	7 00	400 00	-	-	500 00	-	-	-	-	
Richmond -	10 50	29 00	7 25	99	242 00	-	-	48 88	94	25 00
Rockland -	-	73 50	61 75	36 41	-	-	-	-	-	104 69
Saratoga -	156 66	100 00	-	-	632 00	500 00	500 00	33 73	65	125 00
Schenectady -	-	50 00	-	-	-	-	-	41 50	79.8	
Schoharie -	24 37	52 00	161 69	34 88	-	-	-	46 28	88	
Seneca -	49 88	131 50	62 99	50	325 00	250 00	419 00	34 45	66	73 33
St. Lawrence -	136 00	263 75	-	-	-	-	559 00	31 20	60	
Steuben -	-	192 00	346 00	70 00	-	-	-	33 62	62	
Suffolk -	-	-	146 92	17 18	-	-	-	-	-	38 06
Sullivan -	55 50	97 00	32 00	27 00	223 88	20 00	20 00	45 88	88	
Tioga -	71 21	275 50	51 31	14 75	356 12	-	-	74 88	1 44	200 00
Tompkins -	69 03	141 62	144 27	26 13	400 00	150 00	150 00	33 83	65	152 69
Ulster -	-	207 87	605 70	-	408 50	400 00	300 00	21 41	41	175 33
Warren -	-	49 00	-	-	275 00	325 00	325 00	29 91	57.5	
Washington -	104 45	210 00	366 95	69 52	400 00	-	-	21 63	41.6	
Wayne -	69 49	160 00	175 00	53 00	400 00	420 00	706 00	27 58	53	83 00
Westchester -	157 13	233 00	*450 15	-	550 00	-	800 00	34 84	67	
Yates -	38 00	84 50	80 75	40 88	240 00	60 00	60 00	50 30	97	
	\$ 4,856 83	11,313 96	10,932 56	2,774 46	21,247 64	31,217 20	23,670 15	32 21	61.8	10,593 83

* Overseers and Justices.

(C.)

COUNTIES.	Acres of Land attached to Poor-House.	Value of Poor-House Establishment.	Number of Paupers received into the Poor-House during the Year.	Born in the Poor-House during the Year.	Died during the Year.	Bound out during the Year.	Discharged during the Year.	Absconded during the Year.	Number of Persons in the Poor-House, Dec. 1, 1833.			Of the Persons relieved or supported during the Year, there were			
									Females.	Males.	TOTAL.	Foreigners.	Lunatics.	Idiots.	Mutes.
Albany -	60	27,000 00	614	8	136	34	385	21	170	157	327	516	18	6	
Allegany -	180	5,000 00	47	4	2	8	24	2	25	13	38	2	1	4	2
Broome -	130	4,000 00	54	-	5	2	7	12	20	8	28	7	3	5	
Cattaraugus -	-	-	-	-	7	8	73	-	-	-	-	-	5	4	
Cayuga -	83	5,000 00	274	9	12	12	-	10	30	40	70	39	5	9	
Chautauque -	90	5,988 00	66	2	3	-	22	5	21	15	36	2	4	3	1
Chenango -	173	4,500 00	47	2	5	-	52	-	38	26	64	6	11	4	
Clinton -	90	4,021 00	310	11	21	6	179	2	60	44	104	259	6	6	3
Columbia -	200	14,200 00	241	16	29	30	90	50	92	78	170	33	4	2	
Cortland -	-	-	-	-	3	4	-	2	43	30	73				
Delaware -	102	5,000 00	76	2	5	3	43	5	34	26	60	7	2	4	
Dutchess -	107	16,000 00	358	15	22	51	181	98	70	91	161	85	7	10	1
Erie -	80	13,412 69	233	7	21	6	181	41	12	28	40	112	5		
Essex -	100	3,800 00	102	2	8	6	47	2	23	18	41	21	4	1	
Franklin -	106	2,000 00	99	3	4	-	28	22	34	22	56	34	3		
Genesee -	120	4,000 00	126	1	14	13	89	11	35	48	83	19	7	9	1
Greene -	111	5,000 00	266	8	13	9	31	15	47	54	101	37	4	4	1
Herkimer -	25	1,500 00	170	7	14	12	50	58	40	25	65	5	3	3	2
Jefferson -	153	2,500 00	196	3	9	7	129	-	27	30	57	77	5	1	
Kings -	70	16,657 92	305	5	21	11	199	21	56	80	136	150	2	1	2
Lewis -	55	2,600 00	30	3	1	1	26	5	8	10	18	11	3	3	
Livingston -	136	7,000 00	69	1	3	6	53	8	23	31	54	21	3	3	
Madison -	125	7,000 00	118	-	8	11	50	49	15	27	42	3	10	2	1
Monroe -	47	4,500 00	243	5	14	42	122	11	23	35	58	83	2	1	2
Montgomery -	150	7,000 00	137	5	13	15	89	12	51	69	120	49	7	13	3
New York -	248	550,000 00	3,434	87	500	278	2,900	81	754	944	1,698	1,830	321	10	3
Niagara -	94	2,109 00	119	2	11	1	97	25	18	28	46	92	3	4	
Oneida -	115	7,000 00	-	9	13	10	185	17	84	66	150	-	11	2	
Onondaga -	140	5,500 00	203	5	10	18	140	12	34	53	87	70	10	3	1
Ontario -	212	13,000 00	129	3	7	9	78	58	38	30	68	32	10	11	4
Orange -	158	13,500 00	327	18	39	44	198	12	106	123	229	51	20	15	5
Orleans -	93 $\frac{1}{2}$	7,704 28	70	1	1	6	47	1	12	11	23	15	2	7	1
Oswego -	61 $\frac{1}{2}$	3,250 00	66	7	3	1	79	-	17	16	33	31	3	3	
Otsego -	157	10,225 00	205	8	8	12	162	16	60	47	107	18	16	6	1
Putnam -	196	7,500 00	7	-	4	8	5	10	24	30	54	2	-	1	5
Queens -	-	-	40	1	1	3	10	1	6	18	24	13	1		
Rensselaer -	-	-	430	18	31	30	-	15	105	115	220	300			
Richmond -	96	4,500 00	25	1	11	-	7	13	6	12	18	12	4		
Rockland -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	25	25	50	1	2		
Saratoga -	178	7,000 00	173	3	13	13	112	21	71	58	129	17	8	11	
Schenectady -	80	3,000 00	62	2	6	-	38	15	19	34	53	38	3	-	1
Schoharie -	115	2,000 00	27	1	5	2	16	10	16	14	30	3	1	2	1
Seneca -	126 $\frac{1}{2}$	5,053 00	98	1	4	6	29	40	11	16	27	28	4	1	
St. Lawrence -	80	2,500 00	153	2	3	6	92	-	42	29	71	200	1	1	
Steuben -	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	49	47	96	3	1	2	
Suffolk -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	61	36	97	2	7	-	3
Sullivan -	100	2,300 00	28	2	2	-	25	1	5	13	18	5	3	4	
Tioga -	50	1,000 00	32	-	6	3	19	4	7	12	19	6	-	1	
Tompkins -	100	5,000 00	71	2	3	-	62	6	19	25	44	30	3	2	1
Ulster -	148	7,000 00	125	7	15	8	94	21	51	74	125	21	5	15	
Warren -	180	1,800 00	42	-	6	-	34	2	25	30	55				
Washington -	140	8,500 00	87	2	10	11	59	7	44	43	87	23	23	4	
Wayne -	150 $\frac{1}{4}$	6,650 00	114	4	6	11	62	21	31	33	64	4	2	3	1
Westchester -	140	18,000 00	196	5	26	18	91	54	74	103	177	78	10	13	2
Yates -	125	4,000 00	50	2	1	6	32	5	10	16	26	22	4		
	5,776 $\frac{1}{2}$	\$865,770 89	10,494	312	1,138	802	6,833	930	2,821	3,106	5,927	4,525	602	219	48

(D.)

THE following TABLE shows the Number of Children in the Poor Houses under Sixteen Years of Age, and the Number instructed during the Year.

COUNTIES.	Females under 16, December 1.	Males under 16, December 1.	TOTAL of Both Sexes.	Number instructed during Year.	Time of Instruction.
Albany - -	54	48	102	45	12 months.
Allegany - -	9	3	12	11	11 ditto, 9 at district school.
Broome - -	8	3	11	-	No instruction reported.
Cattaraugus - -	-	-	-	-	No poor-house.
Cayuga - -	6	14	20	15	Sent to district school.
Chautauque - -	8	5	13	-	No instruction reported.
Chenango - -	13	11	24	-	12 months.
Clinton - -	27	20	47	35	7 ditto.
Columbia - -	35	25	60	30	12 ditto.
Cortland - -	-	-	-	-	No instruction reported.
Delaware - -	12	15	27	22	9 months.
Dutchess - -	22	33	55	45	12 ditto.
Erie - -	3	12	15	33	3 ditto.
Essex - -	8	12	20	12	8 ditto.
Franklin - -	17	13	30	25	7 ditto.
Genesee - -	19	23	42	58	10 ditto.
Greene - -	22	28	50	50	10 ditto.
Herkimer - -	10	8	18	9	4 ditto, sent to dist ^t school.
Jefferson - -	7	10	17	17	4 ditto - ditto.
Kings - -	20	36	56	23	12 months.
Lewis - -	2	5	7	2	3 ditto.
Livingston - -	7	9	16	16	6 ditto.
Madison - -	3	4	7	-	No instruction reported.
Monroe - -	8	14	22	52	8½ months.
Montgomery - -	8	7	15	33	12 ditto.
New York - -	194	360	554	300	12 ditto.
Niagara - -	8	16	24	10	Sent to dist ^t school 5 months.
Oneida - -	31	19	50	100	12 months.
Onondaga - -	14	21	35	37	12 ditto.
Ontario - -	10	13	23	20	4 ditto.
Orange - -	24	42	66	130	12 ditto.
Orleans - -	9	8	17	17	9 ditto, to district school.
Oswego - -	5	7	12	18	8 ditto.
Otsego - -	56	66	122	-	No instruction reported.
Putnam - -	10	17	27	25	12 months.
Queens - -	3	2	5	1	Sent to district school.
Rensselaer - -	25	30	55	35	12 months.
Richmond - -	-	2	2	1	3 ditto to district school.
Rockland - -	-	-	-	-	No poor-house.
Saratoga - -	13	24	37	40	12 months.
Schoharie - -	3	3	6	-	No instruction reported.
Schenectady - -	6	14	20	20	3 months.
Seneca - -	1	3	4	7	12 ditto.
St. Lawrence - -	20	10	30	-	No instruction reported.
Steuben - -	-	-	-	-	No poor-house.
Suffolk - -	-	-	-	-	- ditto.
Sullivan - -	-	5	5	4	6 months at district school.
Tioga - -	1	4	5	2	6 ditto.
Tomkins - -	8	8	16	-	No instruction reported.
Ulster - -	23	16	39	-	- ditto.
Warren - -	8	11	19	15	12 months at district school.
Washington - -	17	21	38	38	11 ditto.
Wayne - -	13	18	31	34	9 ditto.
Westchester - -	20	30	50	40	12 ditto.
Yates - -	1	3	4	4	Sent to district school.
	851	1,131	1,982	1,431	9 months general average.

(E.)

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.

New York.

REMARKS of SUPERINTENDENTS, accompanying their ANNUAL REPORTS.

Chautauque.—Items included in the following average of expense of paupers at the poor-house, are the salaries of keeper and physician, provisions, groceries, clothing, &c. including all and only the expense at the poor-house. Our poor-house went into operation the first day of January last, and consequently the expense of transportation has been more than it will probably be hereafter, therefore, we have thought proper to make the average as below stated; and not having all the items necessary for making the second average, we have wholly omitted it; and we think the number of paupers have decreased about half, and the expense of maintaining the remainder reduced by the poor-house system, since our poor-house went into operation.

Columbia.—I am instructed by the superintendents to say, that they have undiminished confidence in the poor-house system. They are, however, at the same time of opinion, that the magistrate is not clothed with sufficient authority in relation to the drunken wretch that utterly neglects to provide for his family. He neither runs away, nor threatens to run away, but greedily devours the pittance procured by the industry of the wife or children, or furnished by the charity of neighbours. Larger expenditures for the support of persons out of the county poor-house of this description are made, than from any other. The magistrate should be clothed with authority to compel the father or mother, as the case may be, to contribute their labour to the support of their children, &c.

Cortland.—Annexed to this report is an abstract of the reports of the supervisors, received by the superintendents. The supervisors' reports are very imperfect, and not specific enough for us to arrive, with any degree of accuracy, at the correct sums expended in the different towns for the support or relief of the poor, nor for the various items of such expenses. The foregoing statement of the number of paupers and expenses, relates exclusively to the county paupers relieved and supported under our care as superintendents.

The distinction between town and county poor has not been abolished in this county, and this, together with the inaccuracies and imperfections in the reports of the supervisors, renders it very difficult for the superintendents to possess the information requisite to make a perfect and full report.

Erie.—The first item being the number of paupers relieved or supported during the year, includes those only that have been supported at the poor-house. We might ascertain and report the whole number relieved in the county during the year, but for the purpose of making or showing an expense of support by the year or week, it would be of little consequence or afford but little information. Our reasons are the following:—The city of Buffalo, which is in this county, being the termination of the Erie canal, and, therefore, a common receptacle for a large share of the poor and foreign population, it has been found expedient, and in the opinion of the overseers of the poor and superintendents, for the interest of the county, to afford partial relief to many families, which is continued only for a short time and which is sufficient only for part of their support. This is more particularly the case during the severity of winter, and when some one member of a family is sick and the others mostly able to take care of themselves. Sometimes it has been thought advisable to aid families or individuals on their journey when destitute, and wishing to join their friends where they have the means of obtaining a support, but if detained must unavoidably go to the poor-house. In addition to this, there are many persons in the city of Buffalo in the course of a year who do not require or receive aid from the overseers of the poor until after death, but are then dependent on public or private charity for interment. They, by some means, get provided for and taken care of until they die, and then their friends, being perhaps very poor themselves, are unwilling or unable to defray any further charges or procure the necessary articles for their burial. Under these circumstances, the overseers of the poor are applied to, and the funeral expenses become a public charge. This frequently happens when transient persons or parents die, and sometimes families are not able to bury their children. In many instances, therefore, and especially in this city, the only charge for a pauper is for his burial.

In reference to the actual value of the labour of the paupers and the amount saved in consequence of this labour, we would remark, that the paupers are almost entirely employed on the farm and in labouring in the garden and about the house providing firewood, &c. It is, therefore, difficult to ascertain with much certainty what their labour is worth, or how much is saved in consequence of what they do. The poor-house farm is a new one, and requires much labour to bring it into a state of good cultivation and make it productive. The paupers are kept at work as much as they are able in making such improvements as are necessary, and in cultivating the land for the purpose of raising produce. In this way, all the labour of the pauper, as well as all the produce of the farm, goes for the general support and benefit of the establishment, and lessens the average expense of support by the year or week, but it would be difficult to determine to what amount. We have no regular productive employment for paupers at the poor-house, and, indeed, most who stay for any length of time are enfeebled and debilitated subjects that cannot do much work if they would, and those that are able to work or would be if they could be kept a sufficient length of time, such as *drunkards*, *vagrants* and *idle persons*, committed to the poor-house as a punishment, are sure to abscond as soon as they are sufficiently recruited to take care of themselves, and renew their depredations upon the community.

Genesee.—The superintendents further report, that they are unable to ascertain the number of persons who have received temporary relief, as no account of that part was taken in settling with the different overseers of the poor in the county. The whole amount expended for temporary relief was \$ 1,954.08, of which amount \$ 387.45 was for services of overseers of the poor, \$ 67.39 for services of justices of the peace, and \$ 1,499.24 for necessities furnished for paupers who could not at the time be removed to the poor-house. This last sum includes physicians' bills and medicines.

The superintendents would further report, that it is very difficult to state with any accuracy the value of labour performed by paupers at the poor-house, or the amount saved by their labour, as those who are healthy are generally employed in taking care of those that are sick and infirm. There are but very few who are able to labour upon the farm at any time, or to do any business except about the house.

Kings.—Our official situation has enabled us to make some practical observations on the principal causes of pauperism. We have to state our belief, that about three-fourths of the adult paupers under our charge are habitual drunkards, and that three-fourths of the children are sent to the house in consequence of the intemperance of their parents.

We

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Appendix (F.)
Foreign
Communications.
New York.

We have had some difficulty with some of the overseers of the poor on the subject of their compensation. The law says they shall have one dollar a day for every day actually and necessarily employed, &c. Some of them say, this entitles them to one dollar, for signing an order for a person to be received into the poor-house, or for furnishing a pauper, on the order of a justice, with fifty cents, or more. We have not considered, heretofore, that they were entitled to a dollar for such service. We are also of opinion, that the intervention of a justice is in this county unnecessary.

Dr. A. C. Zabriskie, the physician of the poor-house, having furnished us with some remarks on the diseases and deaths that have occurred during the year, we thought it might be useful to append them. They are as follows:—

“ There have been 464 cases of disease subject to medical treatment between the 20th of April 1832, and the 10th April 1833. Of these, 34 have died. The deaths are of the following diseases :

Cholera, malignant	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8
Cholera, infantile	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Cholera Morbus	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Consumption	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5
Dropsy	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Frozen	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Inflammation of the bowels	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Ditto - of the desophagus	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Ditto - of the lungs	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Intemperance	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Jaundice	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Lumber abscess	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Marasmus	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
Old Age	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Tetanus or Lock-jaw	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Typhus Fever	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Total									34

Of those who died with cholera, four were brought in sick and two in a collapsed state. The number of deaths among the inmates of the house of this disease, four, is smaller than might have been expected, when we consider that there were at this time in the institution more than 100 individuals, nine out of ten of whom are brought there by intemperance; that the constitutions of such persons are already broken in many cases, so as to predispose them to diseases of the bowels; that it is the receptacle of the aged and infirm; and that in similar institutions in cities where the cholera has prevailed, the mortality has always been great. During the prevalence of this disease there were many cases of common cholera morbus, and almost all the paupers laboured more or less under the premonitory symptoms and the diarrhœa which prevailed so extensively through the country. At this time a number of infants who had lost their mothers, or whose parents were sick with cholera, were brought into the house. They were from the ages of three weeks to three months. These, from the change of diet, being deprived of the milk of their mothers, and from the epidemic influence of the season, when cholera was raging around them, were all immediately taken sick upon their arrival with disorders of the bowels; every exertion to save them proved in vain, they all died. An alteration was made in the diet of the house upon the first appearance of the disease, and every thing which could tend to provoke a disordered state of the bowels was immediately prohibited.

Monroe.—Enclosed we send, pursuant to statute and the directions received from your office, an annual report as superintendents of the poor of the county of Monroe. The very deficient and imperfect reports, in many cases, of the supervisors of the several towns, render it very difficult, and we may say impossible, for us to attain to that degree of correctness desirable. The present superintendents have but just entered upon the discharge of their duties, and have not yet acquired, by observation and practical experience, that information, statistical and otherwise, in relation to the poor and the operation of the poor laws which may enable us to communicate any thing of importance or use to your department. The great proportion of mendicity in this county is believed to exist among foreigners, generally emigrants, arising from intemperance, or in consequence of their arriving in this country without the means of support, and at those seasons when it is most difficult to obtain employment.

In most cases of persons seeking relief on account of disease, that disease has been found to have been superinduced by intemperance. The German emigrants are found to be much more temperate and less in want than any other foreigners.

So far as the superintendents are able to form an opinion, they are decidedly of the belief that agriculture can be prosecuted advantageously at the county poor-houses by pauper labour, and that while it contributes greatly towards defraying the necessary expenses of pauper support, it also has a tendency to lessen the number of paupers, for many, when compelled to labour at the poor-house, soon leave, and seek employment elsewhere on their own account.

The town reports, incorporated into our annual report, it will be perceived, come down only to the 23d of March last, and our report comes down to October only, that being the time of the annual report of the superintendents to the board of supervisors, and that being the time, too, to which the former reports of superintendents have reached.

Oneida.—The \$5,539.05 includes temporary relief and the services of the overseers, as well as justices of the peace.

We have not been furnished from any source with the amount of excise money from any town, but the whole amount received is about \$1,900.

Onondaga.—The superintendents would observe to the secretary that sections 76 and 77 (Title 1st of Poor Laws) have not been complied with, and consequently they have not been furnished with the necessary information to extend this report beyond what is required in relation to the poor-house establishment. The allowance made to superintendents, to wit, \$213, is not included in the average of yearly or weekly expense of paupers.

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Queens.—The poor in the different towns are farmed out to contractors, and of the particulars of the contracts the superintendents are ignorant. The poor under the charge of the superintendents are farmed out to a contractor, who is entitled to the labour of the paupers under his charge, and is also paid eighty-seven and a half cents per week for each and every person sent to his house. For the above sum and the benefit of the labour of the paupers, he boards, clothes and buries all who die at his house. The superintendents furnish beds, &c., a physician, and pay transportation bills.

Rensselaer.—The distinction between town and county paupers has not been abolished in said county, therefore the superintendents have, since the present law took effect, hired the county paupers boarded at the poor-house owned by several of the towns of said county. For the past year they have paid \$1.25 per week for the board of each pauper, without distinction of age or condition, exclusive of clothing and medical aid, the institution receiving all the benefits arising from the labour of the paupers.

Richmond.—In making out the estimate of expenses, the superintendents have included the sums paid for manure, for farm-ditching, and making stone wall, which amounts to \$300, and is nearly one third of the whole expense. In estimating this sum as expenses for the year, the superintendents differed in opinion. Some were of opinion it should be added to the value of the farm, which would have reduced the expense of each pauper to 65 $\frac{1}{2}$ cents per week, or \$21.62 a year.

Saratoga.—The superintendents remark, that this report refers exclusively to the poor supported in the poor-house. The accounts for temporary relief in the several towns, together with the accounts of overseers of poor, justices and physicians, not having been received, it is not in the power of the superintendents to state the number of indigent persons relieved temporarily, or the amount of expenses incurred; but from the accounts received and audited by the superintendents, they are led to believe that the whole of such expense, including services of overseers, justices and physicians, will not vary much from \$1,000. We further observe, that having closed our year's accounts with the supervisors on the 11th day of November last, this our report includes one year from the 12th of November 1832 to the 11th of November 1833 inclusive.

Steuben.—I improve the first opportunity of forwarding to you the report of the superintendents of the poor of this county after receiving the reports of the supervisors.

The report is as perfect as my means would enable me to make it.

Our accounts are annually settled up to the 1st of March. It is then that contracts are made for the support and furnishing of county paupers, and they are contracted about the county among their friends, &c. &c. &c. It has, consequently, been impossible to give the exact sums and other items full and with certainty, but it is believed that they are not far from correct.

The board of supervisors of this county, at their sitting lately, resolved to purchase a farm, build a poor-house, and abolish all distinction between town and county poor.

Sullivan.—Enclosed is our annual report. About eight hundred dollars was paid for temporary relief, including one hundred and fifty paid to the town of Lumberland for debts due at the time. The distinction was abolished in 1830. Our permanent relief at the poor-house is also swelled beyond the usual sum in consequence of purchasing oxen, cows, stoves, kettles, &c., which is not added to the value of the farm.

Washington.—The law for the relief of indigent persons seems to contemplate the payment of all the costs of their support, both in and out of the poor-house, by orders drawn by the superintendents on the county treasury, and the secretary's exposition favours this construction of the law. In those counties where the poor-house and county treasury are situated near each other, no practical inconvenience will be found in following out the law. But our poor-house and county treasury are 12 miles apart, and a strict observance of the letter of the statute has been found, on trial, productive of so much inconvenience to those having small demands, and the occasion of so much additional expense to the county, that arrangements were made with our county treasurer, by which we drew the cash and paid it out ourselves at the poor-house. This plan was adopted near a year ago, and has given very general satisfaction to overseers, and indeed to all others presenting accounts for the audit of this board. And we may here remark, that the whole matter was presented to our board of supervisors, and by them was discussed and approved, although no formal order in relation to it was taken. The present practice, however, is so fully approved, that, by an understanding common to the board of supervisors, the county treasurer and this board, it is to be pursued the coming year.

On one ground it seems objectionable, and to that we would call your attention. Superintendents are by law regarded an *auditing*, but not a disbursing board, and hence are not required to give bail; so that on the plan pursued here, the treasurer runs the hazard of the superintendent's solvency and faithfulness. By an arrangement with our treasurer, we are to give him satisfactory security, and then to receive the whole amount of money raised in the county for the support of the poor. Now would it not be advisable to amend the statute so that superintendents (at least in counties situated like ours) shall be required to give security, upon which the treasurer shall pay into their hands the poor funds?

The increase in the expense of supporting the poor in this county for the year past, on the orders of justices, is alarming. Some overseers seem to feel that because they are elected for a *town* they are not required to protect any other interest than that of their townsmen, and that the treasury of the county is therefore fair game. This, together with a want of caution in some instances on the part of justices making orders for relief, accounts, at least in part, for the increase. In the way of remedy, it is our design to employ physicians by the year, and at fixed salaries, in those towns most frequently presenting accounts of the character complained of. We expect thus to save something, not only in charges for medical service, but the tendency of the measure we think will be to hasten paupers to the poor-house, instead of detaining them in the towns as at present.

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STATE OF NEW YORK.

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LETTER from *James Buchanan, Esq.* to the Right Honourable Viscount *Palmerston*.His Britannic Majesty's Consulate, New York,
20 November 1833.

My Lord,

I HAVE the honour to acknowledge your Lordship's Letter of the 12th of August last, requiring me to procure and transmit with the least possible delay, a full Report of the legal proceedings which exist in the State of New York, for the support and maintenance of the poor; of the principles upon which such provision is founded; of the manner in which it is administered; of the amount and mode of raising the funds devoted to that purpose, and of the practical working and effect of the actual system upon the comfort, character and condition of the inhabitants.

In obedience thereto, I beg leave to reply in the order in which the Queries are set forth:

First, as to "the legal Provision which exists in the State of New York."

The Laws of the State require that the father, mother and children (who are of sufficient ability) of any poor person who is blind, old, lame, impotent or decrepit, so as to be unable to work to maintain him or herself, shall at their own charge maintain such poor person.

Upon failure of any such relative to relieve and maintain any such poor person, the overseer of the poor of the town to apply to the court of general sessions, and compel such relief.

When the father or mother, being a widow, or living separate from her husband, shall abscond from their children, leaving any of them chargeable upon the public for their support, or likely to become chargeable, the overseers of the poor may, under the warrant of two justices, seize any estate, real or personal, of the said father, mother or husband, to support those so abandoned.

Every poor person who is blind, lame, old, sick, impotent, decrepit, or in any other way disabled or enfeebled, so as to be unable to work, shall be maintained by the county or town in which he may be.

The Board of Supervisors of any county, in which a county poor-house is not already, may purchase 200 acres, and erect thereon suitable buildings; said purchase of lands and buildings not to exceed 7,000 dollars, or 1,550*l*.

Second, as to "the Principles upon which such Provision is founded."

When the supervisors of any county shall have determined to abolish the distinction between county poor and town poor, the Commissioners of Excise shall pay over to the treasurers of the county all monies received for licenses to tavern-keepers, retailers or grocers, and all penalties for violating the excise or other laws. Where the distinction between county and town poor has not been abolished, the Commissioners of Excise of the several towns shall pay over to the overseers of the poor in their respective towns, all monies received by them in virtue of their office.

The town poor (those who have obtained settlement by birth, apprenticeship or otherwise,) to be supported by a tax to be levied off the real and personal property within such town.

The county poor (such as have not obtained settlement in any town,) to be paid for by the treasurer of the county out of the general fund of the county, levied off the real and personal property in such county.

Assessors of property, real and personal, are annually chosen in each town, who also make their returns annually, and upon such returns the taxes are levied.

The parishes in England in some degree correspond with towns in this State. Towns refer to the lands or township; paupers in cities and villages are embraced under the class of town poor, unless rendered distinct by the Legislature, as is the case with New York, Hudson, Schenectady, Troy, and some other places in this State.

Third, "The Administration of the Funds for the maintenance and support of the Poor"

Is vested as follows:—The supervisors of all the towns within the county annually elect not less than three nor more than five freeholders of the respective counties, to be superintendents of the poor within such county, who hold their offices for one year, who shall be allowed such sums for their actual attendance, as the supervisors of the poor in the several towns shall deem reasonable. In this Board or Corporation is vested all matters relating to providing suitable places for keeping the poor; ordaining rules; employment of suitable persons to conduct such poor-houses or farms; and generally to judge and decide all matters in relation to the poor. But all rules and regulations, before becoming a law, or in force, to have the sanction of a majority of the judges of the county courts of such county in writing.

"The Annual Amount."

In the annual Report for expense of the poor for this State, made to the Legislature up to January 1832, the expenditure was 312,065 dollars 68 cents, or *l*., being an excess over the previous year of 178,874 dollars 33 cents, or *l*.; in the Report to 1st January 1833, for the year 1832, 383,560 dollars 80 cents, being an excess of 71,494 dollars 12 cents, sterling, *l*. over the former year.

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The expenditure on account of the cholera is not included, which in New York called for 100,000 dollars; sterling, £.

“ Mode of raising the Funds.”

The tavern, grocers' and other licenses of each town, are especially set apart for the support of the poor of such town; the deficiency paid out of the funds of the town. Where the distinction between town and county poor has been abolished by the concurrence of the county, the licenses are then applicable to the general support of town and county poor, and the deficiency by a tax levied from the real and personal estate, which is annually valued, assessed and collected.

“ The practical working and effect of the actual system upon the comfort, character and condition of the Inhabitants.”

This embraces a wide field; and did I not fear to encumber this Report with matter which your Lordship might deem irrelevant, I should go at large into the subject, in the hope of rendering this Report more intelligible to those at a distance; but I am constrained to say the working is bad, and the effect bad, and so considered by every reflecting man conversant with the system, save the contractors and disbursers of the money, and by many of them equally condemned. Such a sweeping charge requires explanation, in which I shall be as brief as possible.

The primary causes are:—

First,—That the support is compulsory.

Second,—The dissolute, the idle and abandoned partake equally with the unfortunate, the destitute and the deserving.

Third,—The number of persons composing the administration in all its bearings, instead of the responsibility being limited to individuals at the head of each department.

Fourth,—The frequent change of the persons having the direct management of the poor, arising out of universal suffrage, annual elections and rotation in office.

After many years' reflection on the working of charitable institutions, I have been led to question whether the misapplication and abuse of benevolence or charity has not entailed on civilized society (where employment is to be had) greater evils than the abuse of power. Let this seemingly hazardous assertion be well scanned before condemned. I am upheld in my opinion by the facts in this State, where labour is dear and provision cheap, that for whatever class they provide, that class will increase; provide for bastardy, it will abound; provide great State workshops, food and raiment for criminals, and occupants will not be wanting. So with all charitable establishments and poor-houses. The sums levied by the corporation of this city on all strangers who arrive by sea, to guard the city against the expense of supporting such as become poor, with the liberal administration of other funds, entails great and growing evils on its population, and leads numbers from the interior of the State, and from adjoining States, to flock here, as the “ eagles to the carcass.” Sympathy is awakened; persons are not wanting to plead for a share of the funds, which are often applied to acquire personal popularity and political influence; while the numbers who divide the responsibility of distribution, prevents firmness of purpose, as exposing to the charge of hardness of heart, so that numbers who could have found employment in distant quarters come to this city, partake of the support afforded, herd with the lazy, the abandoned and vicious; lose all self-respect, and become the victims of crime. I do not fear, my Lord, to be charged with overdrawing this picture by those who take pains to investigate the subject.

No other city in any country has more ample accommodation, more splendid buildings, or abounds more in a generous disposition towards the poor. I should be unjust, did I not bear this testimony. In fact, their liberality is not meted out by country or creed, and hence thousands crowd this city to partake of the liberal provision made, and as liberally distributed, while it cannot be too often repeated: * All aid, save to the imbecile in body or mind, or on sudden and unforeseen calamities, (in a country like this, where all who will work are sure of employment, and where two days' wages is sufficient to buy necessaries for a week's sustenance) should be withheld.

With respect to poor children:—A system prevails in this city, though seemingly harsh and unfeeling, yet it has a very powerful influence to deter families from resorting to the Commissioners of the Poor for support, or an asylum in the establishment for the poor; namely, that the commissioners or overseers apprentice out the children, and disperse them to distant parts of the State; and on no account will inform the parents where they place their children.

Unquestionably this mode is one of unfeeling severity, where no discrimination is observed as to the character of the parents, but of mercy, where the parents are abandoned. A case occurred, where a poor English family, who had paid one dollar each to the corporation on landing, as commutation, (to guard the city against their becoming a charge on the poor-house,) which I beg to set forth. The husband, wife and five children not being able to obtain immediate employment, went to the almshouse on Friday. The husband left on Monday,

* I do not hazard too much when I venture to say, above 20,000 persons receive aid from pauper institutions in this city every winter, equal to $\frac{1}{10}$ th of the population.

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Monday, and the wife two days after, and got employment before the end of the week (deterred by the dread of what took place.) They exerted themselves to remove their children, and applied for them, but found their eldest child had in the interim been bound an apprentice,—to whom or where the superintendent would not inform the afflicted parents. After various applications I was applied to in my official capacity, and not until after much negotiation did I obtain the restoration of the child. The system has been forced upon the superintendents, as persons who took children apprentices could not manage them while they were beset with, and subject to, the visits of their parents.

In further justification of the superintendent, it rarely occurs that the children of any but the abandoned, or orphans, have occasion to resort to the poor-house; as such is the demand for the labour of children above 10 years of age, that thousands can be yearly disposed of most eligibly, so as to render them independent of charity; and it is truly a humane act to send children out of the establishments in this State, where the vicious and abandoned are sent as associates with the poor and destitute. A workhouse and poorhouse have become synonymous terms; thus rendering the victims of crime and vice associates with those of misfortune and poverty, which has a truly demoralizing effect, and cannot be too strongly condemned.

In this State poverty and crime may very generally be called synonymous, for no man or woman need be poor unless dissolute, as there is throughout the country a cheerful, nay, an outrunning of charity towards suffering worth, or the victims of sudden calamity or unforeseen distress. Hospitals for the sick, provision for the widow and orphan, the imbecile in body and mind; for all such it is the bounden duty of every state and community to provide; but all systems which tend to generate crime, although the fruit of benevolence cannot be too strongly marked, yet few have firmness of purpose to act in accordance with such persuasion. Praying your Lordship to pardon, if in any instance I have departed from what has been required of me,

The Right Hon. Viscount Palmerston,
&c. &c. &c.

I have, &c.
(signed) *James Buchanan.*

STATE OF NEW HAMPSHIRE AND MAINE.

LETTER from *J. Y. Sherwood, Esq.* to *John Backhouse, Esq.*

British Consulate, New Hampshire and Maine,
Portland, 9th October 1833.

Sir,

IN compliance with the desire of his Lordship Viscount Palmerston (as per your circular dated 12th August last) requesting me to procure and transmit to your department, with the least possible delay, a full Report of the legal provision which exists in the State of New Hampshire for the support and maintenance of the Poor, &c. &c., I have the honour to enclose you herewith the same, together with a similar one for the State of Maine, which I hope will give satisfaction to his Lordship.

John Backhouse, Esq.
&c. &c. &c.

I have, &c.
(signed) *Jos. Y. Sherwood, Acting Consul.*

By the laws of the State of New Hampshire, every poor person standing in need of relief and not having relations in the ascending or descending of sufficient ability to support him or her, are maintained by the town in which he or she has a settlement. The laws prescribing the several modes by which a settlement may be acquired are not materially different from those now in force in England. Prior to the 1st of January, A. D. 1796, one year's residence without a warning to depart from the town, created a settlement. Those persons who have no settlement in any town in the State are relieved at the expense of the county in which the person may be at the time of the application for relief.

In case a person may be in any other town than the one in which he is chargeable, and may be in need of relief, the town in which he may happen to be is bound to provide the necessary relief, and in case of notice being given within 90 days by the town administering the relief to the town chargeable, the amount expended for the relief of such poor person may be recovered from the town where such poor person has his settlement. The law is founded upon sound policy, as well as upon principles of humanity and Christian benevolence. It prevents constant application at the dwellings of the more wealthy for alms, which would be a great interruption to the industrious and busy part of the community; it secures suitable and sufficient relief to all, prevents superabundance to any, and compels all the members of the community to contribute equally, according to their property.

The taxes for the support of the poor are assessed and collected in the same manner and at the same time as those for the support of schools, repairs of highways and other prudential and municipal purposes. The state and county taxes are assessed and collected at the same time.

In the assessment of taxes the polls of the inhabitants are valued at one dollar and 50 cents (equal to 6s. 9d. sterling) per poll, money at interest three-fourths of one per cent., and all other estate, real and personal, at one-half per cent. except household furniture, which is not taxable.

The taxes are assessed by assessors specially appointed by the several towns for the assessment

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assessment of taxes, and collected by a person or persons specially appointed for that purpose. Every town is authorized to elect not less than three nor more than nine discreet freeholders, inhabitants of the town, who shall have the care, disposition and oversight of the poor.

The amount of money raised for the support of the poor varies much in the same town in different years, it being dependant on the price of food and clothing, its prudent expenditure and other varying and accidental occurrences. In the old towns the expense is far greater than in those which have been recently settled. The cause of difference readily presents itself to every reflecting mind.

The population of the new towns is generally composed of young or middle-aged persons, who are active, industrious and pains-taking. Lazy, idle, infirm or inefficient persons never emigrate. The population of Portsmouth is about 8,000; it has for the last 10 years been nearly stationary. The annual sum during that time which has been raised for the support of the poor has been about 3,000 dollars. The expense of maintaining the poor in this town is, in proportion to its population, larger than in any other town in the State. Portsmouth has a workhouse, in which the poor for the last 60 years have been supported; it has this year purchased a farm, on which the poor are hereafter to be kept, as soon as suitable buildings can be erected. Several of the towns have farms or houses in which the poor reside.

In those towns where there are poor-houses or farms, they are well fed and clothed.

The food and clothes are of the cheapest kind and quality, but sufficient for their comfort. All are required to labour according to their capacity and ability.

The poor consist of persons who are superannuated and incapable of labour, of idiots and insane persons, of sick persons, of persons who have rendered themselves infirm by vicious and intemperate habits, orphan children, &c. &c.

The children, as soon as they are of suitable age, are bound out to service in respectable families.

The health and comfort of the poor is improved by the regular and proper food which is given them, and the system of discipline which is observed in the poor-houses.

It is generally deemed disreputable to apply to the town, and none of the natives, except those who stand in need of relief, ever do.

There is scarcely an application to individuals for money, clothes or victuals, except by travelling foreigners.

British Consulate, New Hampshire and
Maine, Portland, 9th Oct. 1833.

(signed) Jos. Y. Sherwood,
Acting Consul.

The remarks made in the foregoing Report are equally applicable to the State of Maine as New Hampshire, excepting that there are no state or country paupers in Maine, and the mode by which settlements are gained in the former state; viz.

Married women follow and have their settlement with their husbands, if any they have, otherwise the settlement of the wife remains where it was prior to marriage.

Legitimate children follow the settlement of their father until they gain one for themselves.

Illegitimate children follow the settlement of their mother until they gain one for themselves.

Any person who shall at a legal meeting be admitted an inhabitant of any town, by vote of such town gains a settlement.

All persons dwelling in unincorporated places gain a settlement therein when the same becomes incorporated into a town.

Minors serving an apprenticeship in any town four years, and setting up trade therein, gain a settlement.

Five years' continued residence in any town gains a settlement, if no supplies have been furnished by the town during that period.

All settlements remain established as above mentioned, until new ones are gained agreeably to the provisions of an Act, entitled, "An Act ascertaining what shall constitute the legal Settlement, and providing for the relief and support, employment and removal of the Poor," passed 21 March 1821: *vide* Laws of the State of Maine, vol. 2, page 530.

The population of the city of Portland, in the State of Maine, is about 13,500; it has increased during the last 12 years about 6,000. The annual sum during that time which has been raised for the support of the poor has been on an average about 4,000 dollars.

The expense of maintaining the poor in this city is, in proportion to its population, larger than in any other town in the State.

Portland has a workhouse, hospital and other suitable buildings, in which the poor are supported, to which establishment there is attached a large farm and brick kilns, where those of the poor able to labour are kept employed. The actual expense to the city of Portland for the maintenance of the poor over and above the earnings, during the last year, was a trifle short of 3,000 dollars, or 675*l.* sterling.

British Consulate, New Hampshire and
Maine, Portland, 9th Oct. 1833.

(signed) Jos. Y. Sherwood,
Acting Consul.

THE FLORIDAS.

LETTER from *J. Backhouse, Esq.* to *S. M. Phillipps, Esq.*Foreign
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Sir,

Foreign Office, February 13, 1834.

With reference to the letter from Lord Melbourne of the 10th of August last, I am directed by Lord Palmerston to transmit to you, for his Lordship's information, the copy of a Despatch from His Majesty's Consul at Mobile, enclosing a report upon the legal provision for the maintenance of the poor in the States of Alabama and the Floridas.

S. M. Phillipps, Esq.
&c. &c. &c.

I am, &c.

*J. Backhouse.*LETTER from *James Baker, Esq.* to *John Bidwell, Esq.*

British Consulate for the Floridas, &c.

Mobile, December 14th, 1833.

Sir,

I HAVE the honour to acknowledge the receipt of the circular Despatch of August 12th, from Mr. Backhouse, desiring me to transmit a full Report of the legal provision which exists in my consulate for the support and maintenance of the poor.

In reply, I beg leave to enclose an abridgment of all the provisions made by the Legislature of this State for the maintenance of the poor and orphans. In the Floridas similar regulations exist. Cases of pauperism requiring public relief are of rare occurrence in the slave-holding section of the United States. Slaves incapable of work are by law supported by their owners. Masters of vessels not being permitted to bring into the State of Alabama any persons who are likely to become chargeable on the public, of course the introduction of paupers from abroad is prevented, and thus those soliciting relief are confined merely to such aged white persons as may by accident become reduced to poverty, and have no near relations to assist them. No poor-house exists in this section of country, and I am informed by the late judge of the county court, that the expenditure for the poor from the funds of the county is confined to occasional small donations when they are needed.

I regret exceedingly that from the local position of my official residence, I am unable to answer more fully the inquiries contained in the circular Despatch on this subject. Our population in this new section of the United States is not yet sufficiently dense to test the effect and working of the laws provided for the relief of paupers. The high rate paid for labour always enables those who are capable to find work, and should they prefer applying to the county for relief, the overseers of the poor having the power to compel them to work for their support, the public is thereby relieved from any expense. The laws passed by the legislature of this State on the subject of the poor, which are enclosed, must therefore not be relied on, and should be considered only experimental, as the advantages proposed to be derived from them are not yet tested by time.

John Bidwell, Esq.
&c. &c. &c.

I have, &c.

(signed) *James Baker, Consul.*ABRIDGMENT of the LAWS of the State of *Alabama*, on the subject of Paupers and Orphans.

IT shall be the duty of the justices of the county courts, in their respective counties, annually to appoint one or more overseers of the poor in each captain's district, to serve for the term of one year, or until another overseer shall be appointed; and the judge and commissioners may fill vacancies in the office of overseers of the poor as often as they may occur; and any person so appointed who shall refuse to serve as overseer of the poor, unless disqualified by age or infirmity, of which the justices shall judge, shall forfeit fifty dollars, to be recovered before the county court, with costs. No person holding office under the government shall be compelled to serve, so long as he holds the same. In case of the refusal or inability of any person to serve as overseers of the poor, it shall be lawful for any three justices, during the vacation of the county court, to appoint a new overseer for the remainder of the year, in room of the person unable or refusing to serve. Every overseer shall take an oath that he will discharge his duties faithfully and impartially.

It shall be the duty of the overseers of the poor, each in his respective district, to provide for the indigent, lame, blind and others not able to maintain themselves; and may also provide houses, nurses and physicians, in such cases as they shall think necessary; the expenses of which shall be provided for in the annual county levy. And it shall be lawful for the overseers of the poor to contract with any person for keeping, maintaining and employing any or all such persons, and take the benefit of their work, labour or service, towards their maintenance and support. If any poor person shall refuse to be lodged, kept, maintained and employed in such manner as the overseers shall direct, he or she shall be struck off from the overseer's list, and shall not be entitled to receive relief from the overseers during such refusal. The said overseers shall make fair entries in a book of the names of all the poor within their respective districts, with the time when each of them became chargeable, together with the amount of all charges, costs and expenses incurred under the direction of

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the said overseers; which books and accounts they shall be obliged to present twice a year for the inspection of the justices assembled in their county courts. And if the said justices shall approve the accounts of any such overseers, they shall issue a certificate to that effect, directing the county treasurer to pay the amount thereof to such person or persons to whom the same may be lawfully due.

Poor persons refused relief may apply to the county court, or during the recess to any two justices, who are authorized, if they think proper, to direct the overseer to receive him or her upon the list of the poor, which overseer is bound to yield obedience to the directions of the said court or justices.

The overseers shall take measures to prevent the poor from strolling from one district to another, and may make complaint before any justice that any poor person is come into their county, and is likely to become chargeable thereto; whereupon it shall be lawful for any such justice by warrant, to cause such poor person to be removed to the county where he or she was last settled: provided that such poor person hath not been resident for six months last past in the county from which it is proposed to remove him or her. But if such poor person be sick or disabled, and cannot be removed without danger of life, the overseer shall provide for his or her maintenance and cure, at the charge of his or her county, and after recovery shall cause him or her to be removed; and the county wherein he or she was legally settled shall repay all charges occasioned by the sickness, maintenance and cure of such poor person, and for removing him or her; and also all charges or expenses if such poor person shall die before removal; and it shall be the duty of the overseer of the district to which the person belongs, to receive and provide for the person or persons so removed; and in case of refusal, the said person or persons may apply to any two justices of the county for relief as hereinbefore directed. The overseer who shall have made the disbursement, being furnished with a certificate of the said expenditure by the justices of the county court of his proper county, shall apply to the justices of the county court to which the said poor person or persons shall belong; which said justices last mentioned are hereby directed to draw an order on the treasurer of their proper county for the reimbursement of the said expenses.

Where any dispute shall arise respecting the residence of any poor person, the court of any county adjacent, and not interested, is authorized to take cognizance thereof, and determine the same.

The overseers of the poor shall make returns to the county courts twice a year of the poor orphans in their districts, and of such children within the same whose parents they shall judge incapable of supporting them and bringing them up in honest ways. The said courts are hereby authorized to direct the said overseers, or either of them, to bind out such poor orphans and children apprentices to such person or persons whom the court shall appoint, until the age of 21 years if a male, or 16 years if a female. The person to whom such apprentice shall be bound shall engage, by a covenant to be entered in the indenture, to provide the apprentice with a sufficiency of good and wholesome provisions, necessary clothing, washing and lodging; to teach the said apprentice the business or occupation which he pursues for a livelihood, and also to read, write, and to cipher as far as the rule of three; and at the expiration of said apprenticeship to furnish the said apprentice with two complete new suits of clothing. It shall be lawful for the said court, upon the complaint of the overseers of the poor, or of any apprentice, by themselves or friends, against their masters or mistresses, to hear and determine; and if it shall appear to the satisfaction of the court, that such complaint be well founded, and of sufficient magnitude to make a removal necessary, the court shall have power to remove such apprentice, and bind him or her to such other person as they shall think proper.

The father and grandfather, mother and grandmother, and the descendants of any poor, old, blind, lame and impotent person, or other person not able to work, being of sufficient ability, shall at their own charge relieve and maintain every such poor person as the justices shall direct at their next county court, in their respective counties, or the corporation courts, in their respective towns, on pain of forfeiting eight dollars for each month they shall fail therein.

If any person commanding a ship, vessel or boat, shall import into this territory, or bring to the shores thereof, any infant, lunatic, maimed, aged, infirm person or vagrant, who may be adjudged likely to become chargeable to the territory, it shall be lawful for any justice of the county court, or for any magistrate of a corporation court, to compel such person commanding such vessel to give sufficient security to indemnify the inhabitants of this territory from any charge that may come or be brought upon them by such infant, lunatic, maimed, aged, infirm or vagrant person coming into or living within this territory, or otherwise to transport such person beyond the limits of this territory.

Whenever, on any criminal prosecution, it shall appear to the satisfaction of the court, that there can be no reasonable expectation that the family of the prisoner will be brought up in honest courses, it shall be the duty of such court to certify the same to the overseers of the poor for the district in which such family may reside, provided the same be within the limits of the jurisdiction of such court; and the said overseers shall thereupon bind out the children of such person to honest, respectable and virtuous citizens, for the same periods of time, and under the same conditions for their instruction and maintenance as in other cases of orphans and poor children, and return the indentures to the next county court, and likewise certify to the said superior court their doings therein.

Poor persons are allowed writs, counsel, &c. free of charge.

The judge of the county court, together with the commissioners of roads and revenue in each

each county, shall annually set apart such portion of the county tax as they shall deem necessary for the purpose of creating a fund for the support of paupers within such county; which fund shall be kept separate by the county treasurer; and no money shall be drawn or paid out of said fund except by order of said judge, for the support of the poor, and in that case it shall be paid to an overseer of the poor, to be by him applied to the purpose for which it is intended; and all overseers aforesaid are hereby required, at the end of the term for which they are appointed, to render an account to the said judge and commissioners of the manner in which he or they have disposed of the sum or sums of money by them received out of the poor fund the preceding year; and in case any overseer shall neglect or refuse to render such account to the judge and commissioners as hereby required, he shall forfeit and pay the sum of ten dollars for every such neglect or refusal, to be sued for by the county treasurer, for the use of the poor of each county.

Overseers are to return, in the month of August of each year, to the county court, a list of all paupers, which list shall contain the situation of the paupers, the amount of money necessary to support the same, together with such other circumstances as they may think proper, so as to enable such court to know correctly what sum it may be necessary to appropriate, in compliance with "An Act to set apart a separate Fund for the support of the Poor in each County," passed 1st January 1823.

If any overseer of the poor shall fail or refuse to make the report required by the foregoing section, without being able to render a satisfactory excuse for such failure, to be judged of by such court, either by personal appearance or by affidavit by the succeeding court, such overseer shall be liable to a fine of ten dollars, by sentence of such court.

STATE OF LOUISIANA.

LETTER from George Salkeld, Esq. to John Bidwell, Esq. Foreign Office.

Sir,

British Consulate, New Orleans, 20th Nov. 1833.

In reply to your circular of the 12th August, I have to inform you, for the information of Viscount Palmerston, that no provision by law exists in the State of Louisiana for the support and maintenance of the poor. The number of paupers in the city of New Orleans are few; the city council, who are composed of the aldermen of the different wards, have each a small sum placed at their disposal, which they distribute at their discretion.

In the country you seldom hear of paupers; the different police juries sometimes vote a trifling sum to be distributed to such as require aid. The high rate of wages renders poverty unusual, unless brought on by sickness, when the hospital is always ready to receive them.

John Bidwell, Esq.

I have, &c.

&c. &c. &c.

(signed)

George Salkeld.

The father and grandfather, mother and grandmother, and the descendants of any poor, old, blind, lame and infirm person, not able to work, being of sufficient ability, shall at their own charge relieve and maintain every such poor person as the justices shall direct at their next county court, in their respective counties, or the corporation courts, in their respective towns, on pain of forfeiting eight dollars for each month they shall fail therein.

If any person commanding a ship, vessel or boat, shall import into this territory, or bring to the shores thereof, any infant, lunatic, maimed, aged, infirm person or vagrant, who may be adjudged likely to become chargeable to the territory, it shall be lawful for any justice of the county court, or for any magistrate of a corporation court, to compel such person commanding such vessel to give sufficient security to indemnify the inhabitants of this territory from any charge that may come or be brought upon them by such infant, lunatic, maimed, aged, infirm or vagrant person coming into or living within this territory, or otherwise to transport such person beyond the limits of this territory.

Whenever, on any criminal prosecution, it shall appear to the satisfaction of the court that there can be no reasonable expectation that the family of the prisoner will be brought up in honest courses, it shall be the duty of such court to certify the same to the overseers of the poor for the district in which such family may reside, provided the same be within the limits of the jurisdiction of such court; and the said overseers shall thereupon bind out the children of such person to honest, respectable and virtuous citizens, for the same periods of time, and under the same conditions for their instruction and maintenance as in other cases of orphans and poor children, and return the indentures to the next county court, and likewise certify to the said superior court their doings therein.

Poor persons are allowed writs, counsel, &c. free of charge. The judge of the county court, together with the commissioners of roads and revenue in

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UNITED STATES.

STATE OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

My Lord,

British Consulate Office, Charleston, 20 January 1834.

IN answer to a circular from Mr. Under-secretary Backhouse, dated 12 August 1833, requiring information as to the system of Poor Laws in force within the district of my consulate, I have the honour herewith to transmit to your Lordship a Report on the legal provision which exists in the State of South Carolina for the support and maintenance of the poor, the principles upon which it is founded, and the practical working of the system.

I should have done myself the honour of reporting to your Lordship on this subject at a much earlier period, if I had not hoped on the annual meeting of the Legislature of this State to have been enabled to obtain a correct return of the monies expended in the relief of the poor during a certain number of years; but the poor-tax is so little felt in this country that the Legislature seldom gives itself any trouble on the subject, or calls for any report from the Commissioners.

The Right Hon. Viscount Palmerston,
&c. &c. &c.

I have &c.
(signed) W. Ogilby, Consul.

A REPORT upon the POOR LAWS of the State of *South Carolina*, the Principles upon which they are founded, and the Practical Working of the System. By His Majesty's Consul at *Charleston*.

TO report upon the legal provision which exists in the State of South Carolina for the support and maintenance of the poor, the principle upon which it is founded, and the practical working of the system, is, as may readily be supposed, no very difficult or laborious undertaking: for, in a country like this, where more than two-thirds of the labouring population are slaves, the property of the wealthy, scarcely can there be a necessity for any other legislative enactment for the support of the poor than that which compels the owners of slaves to supply them at all times with a sufficiency of food and clothing, even after they have become (whether from old age or bodily or mental infirmities) incapable of working, and therefore unprofitable property. Independent of this enactment, however, a provision is made by the laws of this State for the relief of the poor, the leading features of which I shall proceed to point out and offer a few comments upon; but, as regards the practical working of the system, I fear I shall not be able to furnish any very important or useful information, as my experience in this country leads me to believe, that in most cases where any superiority is to be found in the working of any of its civil institutions, it is to be attributed to accidental circumstances, or, in other words, to the newness of the country and the thinness of its population, more than to any superior excellence in either their structure or administration.

From 1712 to 1791, the oversight, ordering and relieving of the poor of each parish within the State was given in charge to the churchwardens and two overseers of the poor, appointed annually by the vestries of the several parishes on their first or second meeting after Easter; but in the latter year it was deemed advisable to alter this system, for what reasons I have not been able accurately to ascertain, and a law was passed by the General Assembly, authorizing the inhabitants of election districts, where county courts were not established, to elect, at the same times and places, and in the same manner as was usual for the election of members of the Legislature, five Commissioners of the Poor, whose duty it should be to attend to the oversight, ordering and relieving of the poor within their district; to have the children of the poor and poor orphan children educated, and to bind them out as apprentices; males until the age of 21, and females until they arrive at the age of 18, or are married.

The Commissioners of the Poor thus appointed are empowered to demand and receive all such gifts and legacies, fines and forfeitures, and any other monies or things whatsoever, as are given to the use of the poor; and in case the same shall not be sufficient for the relief of the poor and the education of their children, the Commissioners are further empowered to assess annually their respective districts with such sum or sums as shall be sufficient for these purposes. Such assessment to be made equally upon the estates, real and personal, of all and every the inhabitants, owners and occupiers of lands, tenements and hereditaments, or any personal estates within the district; and the public tax-collectors are required to collect this assessment or poor's-rate, and to pay it over into the hands of the officers in charge of the public treasury; the same powers and authority being given them for enforcing the payment thereof as are authorized by law for the collection of the public taxes. The Commissioners of the Poor are required to furnish the tax-collectors with an account of the poor-tax with which each inhabitant has been assessed, at least one month before the time appointed for making returns of the public tax; and the last-mentioned officers are bound to make a return of the poor-tax to the former in like manner

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as it is their duty to make returns of the public tax to the treasurers of the State; besides, the law requires that they shall furnish the Comptroller-general with a duplicate of said return, to enable him to ascertain and make known to the Legislature the gross amount of the poor-tax raised within the State.

The law above referred to was, in 1793, also made to extend to counties where county courts were established, and from that period up to the present time has continued to be acted on in *all* counties throughout the State. Of this law, and of the others which preceded it, not being voluminous, I shall annex a copy to this Report, in order that the changes which the Legislature deemed it expedient to make in the system may be clearly seen and understood. At the same time I must express my surprise that of late years there should have been no new legislation on this subject, considering that the system now in force has, for a length of time, been very generally condemned by the thinking part of the community, and regarded as oppressive and evil in its tendency, because it actually holds out inducements to idleness and opens a door to imposition; indeed, the prevailing opinion in this country seems to be, that "every system of laws for the good government or support of the poor which has not for its basis the encouragement of industry, by finding the poor employment, must fall short of its object and be productive of evil."

It will be seen, on reference to the Appendix, that the 37th section of the law of 1812 makes it the duty of the tax-collectors throughout the State to make a duplicate return to the Comptroller-general of the amount of poor-tax collected by them and paid to the Commissioners of the Poor in their respective districts; and it is also considered the duty of the Commissioners to make an annual report to the Executive of the State on the condition of the poor in their several districts and on the provision that has been made for them; yet, strange to say, such is the careless and negligent manner in which business is conducted in most public offices in this country, that I have found it impossible to procure an accurate return for any single year of the total amount of poor-tax collected within the State. From the Comptroller-general's office I received as correct a statement as it was in the power of the head of that department to furnish on this subject, and, according to it, the average amount of poor-tax annually levied on the inhabitants of the State, for several years back, is 30,000 dollars currency, or 6,250 *l.* sterling, which is equal to about 10 per cent. on the general taxes paid in the same years. In the foregoing calculation the expenses of the poor of this city are not included, as the system in operation within the limits of Charleston for the relief of the poor differs entirely from that which exists in all other parts of the State, and, in my opinion, is very preferable to it, and much more worthy of notice, as, in providing for the necessities of the indigent, it does not encourage or even admit of idleness, which in this country, as in all others, may almost invariably be traced out as the parent of crime, nor does it enable the pauper to enjoy the same degree of personal liberty or portion of the comforts of life as the independent labourer; a rule that all communities, not wishing to promote or encourage pauperism, ought to adopt and act on.

The necessities of the poorer class of the free white population of Charleston are relieved by means of a poor-house, which is supported at the expense of the citizens generally, an annual assessment being made by a Board of Commissioners, the same as in all other districts; and in consideration of the number of poor persons having a temporary residence in the city and flocking to it from other districts, the State contributes 4,500 dollars annually towards defraying the expense of this institution. All poor persons, strangers as well as citizens, may gain admission on application to one of the Commissioners, but as the inmates receive nothing else than board and lodging, and are obliged, if in health, to work for a certain number of hours every day, and furthermore, are compelled to conform to the strict discipline of the institution, and not leave the premises or go beyond its bounds without permission, the applications for admission are by no means so numerous as might be expected in a city of so large a population as Charleston.

The number of inmates averages no more than 116 during the last five years.

Rations are allowed to out-door poor where any peculiar circumstances do not admit of their becoming inmates of the poor-house. The number of persons receiving relief in this manner averaged 166 during the last five years; and the average number of rations allowed was 96, at a cost of about 12 dollars per annum for each ration. No money is ever given; but in a few instances clothing and firewood is furnished to the most needy. The annual expenses of this institution during the last five years have been as follows:

					Dollars.	Cents.
1829	-	-	-	-	9,220	38
1830	-	-	-	-	9,559	33
1831	-	-	-	-	9,735	42
1832	-	-	-	-	8,657	35
1833	-	-	-	-	8,448	19
					5) 45,620	67

Average - - \$ 9,125 13 or £.1,901 1 s. 10 d. sterling.

In addition to the before-mentioned institution, the city of Charleston supports an orphan asylum, at an average expense of about 12,000 dollars, or 2,500 *l.* sterling per annum.

There are also in Charleston several societies, such as the St. George's, the Hibernian and the St. Andrew's, that were founded for the charitable purpose of affording relief to widows

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widows and orphans; but their charities cannot be included in a statement of the provision made *by law* for the support and maintenance of the poor.

The total amount, therefore, annually expended by this State in the relief of the poor may be computed at about 52,000 dollars, or 10,833 *l.* 6 *s.* 8 *d.* sterling. That is,

For State poor	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 30,000
Charleston poor-house	-	-	-	-	-	12,000
— orphan asylum	-	-	-	-	-	10,000
						\$ 52,000

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South Carolina.

The Poor Laws of South Carolina are conceived to be founded solely on a principle of benevolence and policy, and not on any acknowledgement of a *right* in the poor and indigent to support from the other members of society.

It is the opinion, however, of many intelligent persons in this community, that even though the laws do not recognise *this right*, yet that any fixed provision made by law for the relief of the poor is always likely to be more productive of evil than of good, as it leads many to depend rather on what they consider to be their authorized claim to relief than on their own economy and industry. In a young country such as this, where population is thin and labour in good demand, it must always be an easy matter to obtain the means of support, and it might naturally be supposed that a greater degree of shame would be attached to pauperism than in communities where, with the best inclination to labour, individuals may not always be able to find employment. Yet I do not think that this State or any other in this Confederacy can be quoted as an exception to what experience seems to have shown in all other countries, namely, that "all systems for the permanent relief of the poor, by fixed rates, rather tend to multiply than diminish the number of the poor," and are sure to become in time insupportable evils where they do not require a greater quantity of labour from the pauper, in return for the expenses of his subsistence, than will yield to the independent labourer a similar support.

British Consulate Office, Charleston,
20 January 1834.

William Ogilby, Consul.

APPENDIX to Mr. Consul Ogilby's Report.

LAWS of the State of South Carolina, providing for the Support and Maintenance of the Poor.

ACT OF ASSEMBLY, A.D. 1712.

WHEREAS the necessity, number and continual increase of the poor, not only in *Charleston*, but in other parts of this province, is become very great and burthensome, being occasioned by reason of some defects in the law concerning the settling the poor, and the want of a due provision for their relief and employment; for remedy whereof, and for the preventing of the perishing of any of the poor, whether young or old, for want of such supplies as are necessary, Be it enacted, That the vestries of the several parishes shall have power, and they are hereby authorized and empowered, at any time within two months after the ratification of this Act, to nominate two or more sober, discreet and substantial persons to be overseers of the poor for that parish, who shall continue in the said office until Easter come twelvemonths, which will be in the year of our Lord 1714, and on the first or second meeting of the vestry yearly, the vestries of the several parishes in this province shall nominate two or more persons to be overseers of the poor of that parish, who shall continue in the said office until the Easter following, or until the vestry of the parish can meet and choose other overseers of the poor to succeed them; and in case of the death or removal out of the parish of any of the overseers of the poor, the vestry of the parish shall have power to nominate a fit person to supply the place of the person so dead or removed.

The vestries of the several parishes empowered to nominate yearly overseers of the poor.

The overseers of the poor so nominated and appointed as aforesaid, together with the churchwardens of the parish, shall have the oversight, ordering and relieving of the poor of the parish, and shall have power to demand and receive all such gifts and legacies, and all such fines and forfeitures, and any other money or things whatsoever, as are given to the use of the poor, and in case of refusal to deliver or pay the same, to commence and prosecute any lawful suit or action for the recovery thereof.

The overseers and churchwardens to have the ordering and relieving of the poor.

The poor of each parish shall be relieved out of all such money, goods or things, and out of such fines, mulcts or forfeitures, as shall be given to the use of the poor; and in case the same shall not be sufficient for the relief of the poor, that once in the year, at any time within two months after Easter, it shall be lawful for the respective vestry of each parish to order three sober and discreet persons to assess such sum as shall be necessary to reimburse the churchwardens and overseers the money they have expended the preceding years for the relief of the poor, and also 20 *l.* over, to remain as a fund in the hands of the churchwardens and overseers of the poor, for the relief of the poor for the ensuing year, the said assessment to be made equally upon the estates, real and personal, of all and every the inhabitants, owners and occupiers of lands, tenements and hereditaments, or any personal estate, within the several parishes; which assessment being returned to the said vestry upon oath, who are hereby required to administer an oath accordingly, and being by them approved in open vestry, it shall then be lawful for any justice of the peace of the county, by a warrant under his hand and seal, directed to any of the constables of the several parishes, to levy the sum assessed upon each person, by distress and sale of such person's goods, as shall refuse the same, returning the overplus, after reasonable charges deducted, and for want of such sufficient distress, to commit the person to prison till payment be made; and the several constables of this province are hereby required to execute such warrant, under the penalty of the forfeiture of 10 *l.* for every neglect.

The poor to be relieved out of such money and fines as shall be given to the use of the poor; which if not sufficient, once a year to reimburse the churchwardens by an assessment.

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A person that hath been resident in any parish to be esteemed an inhabitant.

A person removing from one parish to another, and is feared will be chargeable, may be removed to the parish from whence he came.

Poor persons having relations able to relieve them, shall have an allowance from them.

Churchwardens and overseers to meet monthly.

Registers to be kept.

Churchwardens and overseers to account.

Protection given to persons prosecuted for executing this Act.

And for preventing any poor persons coming from the parish where they are inhabitants or settled, to be chargeable to any other, and to prevent all disputes concerning what shall be accounted a lawful settling; Be it enacted, That any person that hath been quietly and peaceably resident or settled in any parish, as a native householder, sojourner, apprentice or servant, for the space of three months, shall be esteemed settlers or inhabitants in the said parish; provided, that such abiding and residing is not private, as sometimes in one house and sometimes in another, nor by reason of sickness, lameness or the like, nor being hired for a particular work for a time only, the home or residing of such person being in another parish.

In case any person shall remove from one parish to another, that it is feared may be chargeable to the parish, that upon complaint made to any of the justices of the peace by the churchwardens or overseers of the parish, at any time within three months, that such person is like to be chargeable to the parish, any one justice of the peace resident in that parish where such person comes to inhabit, and in case there be no justice of the peace in that parish, then any justice of the peace of that county, may by warrant remove and convey him to the parish where he was last legally settled, as a native, householder, sojourner, apprentice or servant, for three months at least, unless he give security for the discharge of the parish, to be allowed by the said justice; and if such person shall refuse to go, or shall not remain in the place where he ought to be settled, but shall of his own accord come back to the place from which he was removed, such person so offending shall be punished as a vagabond may be punished by any of the laws and statutes of England; and if any churchwarden or overseer of the poor refuse to receive such person so to be removed, and provide for him as an inhabitant, any justice of the peace may bind them to the assizes or sessions, to be indicted for their contempt.

And for the prevention of any parish being unnecessarily charged with the providing for poor persons, be it enacted, That in case any person shall be so poor as to become chargeable to the parish, which person hath a father, or a grandfather, or mother, or grandmother, or child, or grandchild, that they or any of them are of sufficient ability to relieve such poor persons, that in such case it shall be lawful for the vestry of the parish, upon complaint made by the overseers of the poor, to order some one or more, or all of such relations, to allow the poor person so much by the week as they shall think fitting; and in case of refusal to pay the same, it shall be lawful for any justice of the peace of the county, by his warrant under his hand and seal, directed to any of the constables, to levy the same by distress and sale of the goods of such person or persons refusing to pay, and for want of sufficient distress may commit the offender to prison till payment be made; and the several constables or any of them are required and commanded to execute all such warrants, under the same penalties for their neglect as is before by this Act prescribed for a constable neglecting or refusing to execute the justice's warrant for the general levy for the poor.

For the better execution of this Act, the churchwardens and the overseers of the poor of the several parishes shall meet monthly, at the church or some other convenient place, on the Sunday, after Divine service is over, there to consider and advise together of matters belonging to their office, and to use their utmost diligence in the execution thereof, on the penalty of 20 s. for every neglect, without such reasonable cause as shall be approved of by the vestry for an excuse.

And there shall be kept in every parish, at the parish charge, a book or books, wherein the names of persons receiving collections shall be registered, with the time they were first admitted to have relief, and the occasion of their necessity, which book shall be laid before the vestry when required; and yearly, in Easter week, or oftener, the parishioners shall meet and have such books produced before them, and the persons receiving collections, if required by any of the parishioners, shall be called, and the reasons of their taking relief examined, and a new list to be made and entered of such as they shall think fit to allow to receive collections.

The churchwardens and the overseers of the poor, once in a year, and oftener if required, shall account before the vestry; and in case any action or suit shall be brought and commenced by and in the name of the vestry against the churchwardens and overseers of the poor, for any monies mispent by them, the evidence of the parishioners, other than such as receive alms of the parish where the defendants are inhabitants, shall be taken and admitted. All the fines and forfeitures mentioned in this Act that do not exceed the sum of 40 s. shall be recovered, adjudged, levied and distrained by any one justice of the peace in this province, as in the Act for the trial of small and mean causes is directed; and the same being so recovered, shall be paid to the churchwardens and overseers of the poor of the parish where the person inhabits against whom the forfeiture is recovered, to be disposed of towards the defraying the charges of the poor of the said parish; and all fines and forfeitures mentioned in this Act exceeding the sum of 40 s., the two-thirds of such fines and forfeitures shall be paid into the hands of the churchwardens or overseers of the poor of the parish where the person inhabits against whom the forfeiture is recovered, to be disposed of towards the charge of the poor of the said parish, and the other third to him or them that will sue for the same, by action of debt, suit, bill, plaint or information, in any court of record in this province, wherein no essoin, protection, privilege, injunction or wager of law, or stay of prosecution by *non vult ulterius prosecui*, or otherwise, shall be admitted or allowed.

If any action, plaint, suit or information shall be commenced and prosecuted against any person or persons, for what he or they shall do in pursuance or execution of this Act, which person or persons so sued may plead the general issue, not guilty, and upon issue joined, give this Act and the special matter in evidence, and if the plaintiff or prosecutor shall become non-suit or suffer discontinuance, or if a verdict pass against him, the defendant or defendants shall recover his or their treble costs, for which they shall have the like remedy as in any case where costs by law are given to the defendant.

ACT OF ASSEMBLY, A.D. 1713.

AND whereas, by the above recited Act for the relief of the poor, it is enacted, That it shall be lawful for the vestry of each parish to order three sober and discreet persons to make the above-mentioned assessment, but no penalty by the said Act is laid upon the persons that refuse or neglect to obey such orders of the vestry; Be it therefore enacted, That any person so ordered by the vestry to make such assessment as aforesaid, who shall refuse or neglect to give obedience to such orders, and to perform the same, shall forfeit the sum of 10 l. current money of this province, to be recovered and disposed of as the fines and forfeitures in the said recited Act for the relief of the poor by the said Act are ordered to be recovered and disposed.

ACT

ACT OF ASSEMBLY, A. D. 1722.

THE churchwardens and any five of the vestrymen of each parish within this province shall and are hereby fully empowered to rate and assess all the taxable inhabitants of each parish respectively, (towards the maintenance of all and every the poor within the same parish who have resided in any such parish by the space of twelve months then last past,) and that rateably and proportionably according to the general tax or assessment for the year precedent, and shall levy the same by warrant of distress, under the hands and seals of the two churchwardens and five of the said vestry, against the goods of the said person refusing to pay the same, and shall make sale thereof, returning the overplus, after deducting thereout reasonable charges for the levying the money so assessed.

ACT OF ASSEMBLY, A. D. 1736-7.

WHEREAS by an Act of the General Assembly of this province, passed on the 23d day of June 1722, intituled, "An Act for advancing the Salaries of the Clergy," it is, amongst other things, enacted, that the churchwardens and any five of the vestrymen of each parish within this province shall, and they are hereby fully empowered to rate and assess all the taxable inhabitants of each parish respectively toward the maintenance of all and every the poor within the same parish who have resided in any such parish for the space of 12 months then last past, and that rateably and proportionably to the general tax or assessment for the year precedent, and shall levy the same by warrant of distress, under the hands and seals of the two churchwardens and five of the said vestrymen, against the goods of the said person refusing to pay the same, and shall make sale thereof, returning the overplus, after deducting thereout reasonable charges for the levying the monies so assessed as in and by the said Act, relation being thereunto had, more fully appears: And whereas upon the general words of the said recited Act, it has been conceived by some that the rate and assessment by the said Act directed to be made for and towards maintaining of the poor of the several and respective parishes in this province ought, in proportion to the general tax, to be rated and assessed upon the inhabitants, as well for the estates, real and personal, lying and being within the respective parishes, for the maintenance of whose poor the said rates and assessments are respectively made, as for such their estates as are lying and being in other parts of this province without the limits of the same parish:

Now for the prevention of all doubts, questions and disputes for the future concerning the manner of making such rates and assessments for the maintenance of the poor of the several and respective parishes in this province; Be it enacted, That the churchwardens and any five vestrymen, who by the hereinbefore recited Act are authorized and empowered to rate and assess the inhabitants of each respective parish in this province towards the maintenance of the poor of the same parish, shall in all rates and assessments hereafter to be made in pursuance of the said recited Act only rate and assess the said inhabitants in proportion to the general tax paid or to be paid in the preceding year for such part of their estates, real and personal, as shall or may be situate, lying or being in the parish for the maintenance of whose poor such rate and assessment shall be made.

Provided, That all and singular the estates, real and personal, of every person and persons whatsoever, which shall or may be rated and assessed in the general tax shall be also rated and assessed by the churchwardens and any five of the vestrymen in each respective parish where such estate, real or personal, shall be situate, lying or being, for and towards the relief and maintenance of the poor of every such parish respectively, and the sums which shall be so rated and assessed for and towards the relief and maintenance of the poor of each respective parish shall be levied and recovered from the owners, possessors or occupiers of such estates, real or personal, or from their attornies, agents, managers or trustees, in the like manner and form as is directed by the before recited Act, any former law, statute, custom or usage to the contrary thereof in anywise notwithstanding.

ACT OF ASSEMBLY, A. D. 1738.

AND when it shall happen any passenger so brought within this province from any other country or colony by any ship or vessel be impotent, lame or otherwise infirm, or likely to be a charge to the parish, if such person shall refuse to give security, or cannot procure sufficient surety or sureties to become bound for his saving the town or parish from such charge, in such case the master of the ship or vessel in which such person came shall be and is hereby obliged and required to carry or send him or her out of this province again within the space of three months next after their arrival, or otherwise to give security to indemnify and keep the town or parish free from all charge for the relief and support of such impotent, lame or infirm person, unless such person was before an inhabitant of this province, or that such impotence, lameness or other infirmity befel or happened to him or her during the passage, and in such case, if they be servants, their masters shall provide for them, and others shall be relieved at the charge of the parish.

And the said public treasurer of this province is hereby required to inform and notify all masters of ships and other vessels coming to him to enter of the import of this Act, and what is hereby enjoined and required of them; and the said public treasurer shall forthwith transmit all lists or certificates of passengers to the governor or commander-in-chief for the time being, and in his absence to the first of His Majesty's council, or commanding officer then in town.

ACT OF ASSEMBLY, A. D. 1757.

AND whereas the penalties inflicted by the said recited Acts on the churchwardens and overseers of the poor are so small that the persons appointed would rather pay the same than undertake the service; Be it therefore enacted, That any person chosen and appointed to be churchwarden or overseer of the poor in any parish of this province who shall refuse to serve in either of the said offices, instead of the penalties inflicted by any former Act, shall forfeit the sum of 10 l. proclamation money, two-thirds of which forfeiture shall be paid into the hands of the churchwardens or overseers of the poor of the parish where the offence shall be committed, to be disposed of towards the relief of the poor, and the other third to him or them who will inform and sue for the same, by action of debt, bill, plaint or information, in any court of record in this province, wherein no essoign, privilege, protection, or wager in law shall be allowed or admitted, nor any more than one imparlance.

Provided, that no person shall be obliged to pay the said forfeiture, or be liable to serve in either of the said offices oftener than once in seven years, any usage or custom to the contrary notwithstanding.

Foreign
Communications.

The inhabitants to be
assessed to maintain
the poor.

Poor-rates to be in
proportion to the ge-
neral tax for the year
preceding.

Estates to be assessed
in the respective pa-
rishes where situate.

Lame or impotent
persons brought into
this province, to give
security to save the
parish from charge.

Churchwardens and
overseers refusing to
act shall forfeit 10 l.
proclamation money.

225

ACT OF ASSEMBLY, A.D. 1768.

Foreign
Communications.

UNITED STATES.

*South Carolina.*To gain a settlement
by 12 months' resi-
dence.

AND whereas, by the laws now in force, a person that hath been resident in any parish in this province for three months is to be held and esteemed a settler or inhabitant in the said parish, and entitled to all the benefits of the parish poor of the said province, which time of settlement is not only contrary to the laws of England in such cases, but greatly inconvenient to the inhabitants of the several parishes in this province, and ought to be enlarged; Be it therefore enacted, That from and immediately after the passing of this Act, no person shall be esteemed or held in law to be a settler or inhabitant of any parish in this province, so as to be entitled to the benefits provided by law for parish poor, until such person hath been resident in such parish for 12 months, as a native, householder, sojourner, apprentice or servant, according to the proviso and true intent and meaning of the Act for the better relief of the poor of this province, any law, usage or custom to the contrary notwithstanding.

ACT OF ASSEMBLY, A.D. 1789.

Justices of county
courts to have the
same powers as to the
poor as vestries and
churchwardens of
parishes.

BE it enacted, That from and immediately after the passing of this Act, the justices of the county courts shall be vested with all the powers and authorities within their respective counties that have been heretofore exercised by the vestries and churchwardens of parishes, so far as the same relate to the providing for the poor of the said respective counties, and to the binding out poor orphan children, any law, usage or custom to the contrary thereof in anywise notwithstanding.

ACT OF ASSEMBLY, A.D. 1791.

Commissioners of the
poor to be elected in
the several election
districts.

How to be chosen.

Their powers and
duties.

WHEREAS it will conduce much to the convenience of the inhabitants, where county courts are not established, to have commissioners of the poor; Be it therefore enacted, That the respective managers of the election for members of the Legislature in the said election districts shall and they are hereby authorized and required to open a poll for the election of commissioners of the poor, not exceeding five, the first election to be held on the first Monday in April next, and at all times thereafter at the same times and places, and in the same manner as are usual for the election of members of the Legislature; and that all persons who have a right to vote for members of the Legislature shall be entitled and have a like right to vote for the said commissioners.

And be it further enacted, That the said commissioners of the poor, elected as aforesaid, shall have the oversight, ordering and relieving of the poor in the said elective districts respectively, and shall have power to demand and receive all such gifts and legacies, and all such fines and forfeitures, and any other monies or things whatsoever as are given to the use of the poor; and in case of refusal to deliver or pay the same, to commence and prosecute any lawful suit or action for the recovery thereof.

Poor to be relieved
and educated.

And be it further enacted, That the poor of the elective districts respectively shall be relieved and educated out of all such money, goods or things, and out of such fines, mulcts and forfeitures, as shall be given to the use of the poor; and in case the same shall not be sufficient for the relief of the poor, and the education of their children, and of poor orphan children, that once in every year, at any time within two months after the first day of January annually, it shall be lawful for the said commissioners in the election districts respectively to assess such sum or sums as shall be sufficient for that purpose; the said assessments to be made equally upon the estates, real and personal, of all and every the inhabitants, owners and occupiers of lands, tenements and hereditaments, or any personal estates within the several districts; and in case any person or persons shall refuse or neglect to pay the sum or sums which they may be assessed, it shall and may be lawful for the said commissioners, or a majority of them respectively, to issue their warrant of distress against such defaulter, which shall be levied by any of the constables in the said respective districts in the same manner, and sales shall be made on the same terms as in cases of distress or sales for public taxes.

The Commissioners
of the poor authori-
zed to levy a tax.How the tax shall be
levied.Commissioners of the
poor empowered to
bind poor children as
apprentices.Penalty for refusing
to serve as commis-
sioners.No man bound to
serve more than two
years in six.

And be it further enacted, That in case any poor children shall be chargeable to the respective districts, it shall and may be lawful for the commissioners of such district to bind any such child or children out to be an apprentice, until every male child shall arrive to the age of 21 years, and every female until she shall arrive unto the age of 18 years or be married.

And be it further enacted, That the said commissioners, when elected as aforesaid, shall be obliged to serve, under the penalty of forfeiting 5*l.* for each person, elected as aforesaid, refusing or declining to serve; provided nevertheless, that no person shall be obliged to serve more than two years in six; and they shall continue to exercise the duties, powers and authorities which they are hereby vested with, for and during the term of two years, to commence from the time of their respective elections, except as to the first election to be made by virtue of this Act.

ACT OF ASSEMBLY, A.D. 1793.

Commissioners of the
poor to be elected in
each of the counties
where county courts
are held.

WHEREAS it is found necessary that commissioners of the poor be elected in those counties where county courts are established; Be it therefore enacted, That five commissioners of the poor in each of the counties where county courts are established shall be elected at the same times and places, and in the same manner and form, and the elections shall be conducted by the same persons as are named for that purpose in the Act, intituled, "An Act authorizing the inhabitants of the election districts, where county courts are not established, to choose Commissioners of the Poor," and that the commissioners so to be elected shall have all the authority, powers and privileges which are vested in, and be liable to all the pains and penalties which are imposed upon the commissioners of the poor by that Act, to the end that the said Act shall be in full force and complete operation in all the counties in this State where county courts are established.

ACT OF ASSEMBLY, A.D. 1796.

Commissioners of the
poor, their duty rela-
tive to the collection
of poor-rates imposed
prior to their appoint-
ment.

WHEREAS doubts have arisen whether the commissioners of the poor have power to assess and collect taxes, to discharge demands due for the support of the poor, previously to their being appointed; Be it therefore enacted, That the commissioners of the poor appointed, or to be appointed, shall be and they are hereby authorized and empowered to assess and collect taxes for the purpose of discharging all debts and demands incurred or due for the support of the poor of their respective parishes or counties, previously to their appointment, in the same manner as they are to assess and collect taxes for the payment of the like debts and demands incurred and due after their appointment.

ACT

ACT OF ASSEMBLY, A.D. 1797.

BE it enacted, That the tax-collectors in all counties where county courts are established shall be and they are hereby authorized and required to collect from the inhabitants of their respective counties all such rates and assessments as have been or may be hereafter laid, rated or assessed for the use of the poor; and they shall be entitled to receive as a compensation for their services the same per centage as they are allowed for collecting the public taxes; and shall have the same powers and authority to enforce the payment thereof, and have a right for that purpose to use the same compulsory means and process as are authorized by law for collecting the public taxes; and they shall collect and pay such poor-tax to the proper officers who are to receive the same, at or before the time now appointed or hereafter to be appointed by law for paying the general tax into the public treasury, and in case of any default, shall be liable to the same pains and penalties as are provided by law for any similar default in collecting and paying the general tax.

Provided always, That the said tax-collectors shall be furnished with an account of the poor-tax which each inhabitant is liable to pay to him, at least one month before the time appointed for making returns of the public tax.

And be it further enacted, That in all cases where the tax-collectors, in such parts of this State where county courts are not established, may be willing to undertake the same duty as is prescribed in the foregoing clause, they and each of them shall have the same powers and authority, and commissions, and be liable, in case of any default, to the same pains and penalties as are provided in the preceding clause.

ACT OF ASSEMBLY, A.D. 1812.

AND be it enacted, That it shall be the duty of the tax-collectors of this State to make, on first Monday in August next, to the commissioners of the poor in the parish or district in which any poor-tax shall be by the said tax-collectors respectively collected, a return of such poor-tax in like manner as they make returns of the public tax to the treasurers of this State.

And it shall also be the duty of the said tax-collectors to make a duplicate return to the Comptroller-general of the amount of the tax so collected and paid to the commissioners.

ACT OF ASSEMBLY, A.D. 1813.

For the transient poor, payable to the city council of Charleston, 4,280 dollars.

Foreign Communications.

Poor-tax, how to be collected.

Duty of tax-collectors in relation thereto.

Tax-collectors to make return to the commissioners of the poor, of the poor-tax.

STATE OF GEORGIA.

My Lord,

British Consulate, Savannah, 26 December 1833.

I HAVE the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Mr. Backhouse's circular letter, dated the 12th August last, requesting me to furnish a Report upon the "Poor Laws" in this Consulate, and I have to state, in reply, that there is no legal provision in the State of Georgia for the support of the poor.

I am, &c.

To Viscount Palmerston,
&c. &c. &c.

(signed) E. Molyneux, Consul.

STATE OF MASSACHUSETTS.

My dear Sir,

Washington, 3 February 1834.

I HAVE been directed by my Government to procure information respecting the legal provision which exists in the United States for the support and maintenance of the poor, of the principles upon which such provision is founded, of the manner in which it is administered, of the amount and mode of raising the funds devoted to this purpose, and of the practical working and effects of the actual system upon the comfort, character and condition of the inhabitants.

I have also received instructions from my Government to furnish a statement, for a Committee of the House of Commons, of the present laws of the United States as to the registration of births, marriages, deaths, baptisms and burials, with copies of the forms prescribed, and an account of fees paid for such entries.

As both the provision for the poor and the parochial registrations of the nature indicated probably vary in every one of the United States, I am induced to ask you to have the goodness to furnish me with some account of the system followed in those two points in the State of Massachusetts.

The liberty I take in making this request demands an apology, but I am sure that you will do me the honour to believe that nothing less than the anxiety expressed by the British Government to be made acquainted with the system prevailing in the United States, before they decide upon an alteration of their own system, should have induced me to trouble you to furnish me with the information so anxiously desired by my Government.

The Hon. Daniel Webster,
&c. &c. &c.

I am, &c.

(signed) Charles R. Vaughan.

My dear Sir,

Washington, 29 March 1834.

I TRANSMITTED your letter of 3d February to Mr. Ticknor, and I now have the pleasure of communicating to you his answer.

I am expecting every day to receive the new code of Massachusetts, respecting the maintenance of paupers, and as soon as I am in possession of it shall have the pleasure of placing it in your hands.

The Right Hon. Sir C. R. Vaughan,
&c. &c. &c.

I am, &c.

(signed) Daniel Webster.

P. L. (F.)

Appendix (F.)

My dear Sir,

Boston, 2 March 1834.

Foreign
Communications.

UNITED STATES.

Massachusetts.

THE two documents enclosed will, I believe, answer all Sir Charles Vaughan's inquiries. The one in MS. touching the matters of recording births and deaths, as well as the solemnization of marriages; and the printed pamphlet touching all that relates to our pauper laws. They would have been sent ten days ago, but I have been waiting for the Legislative Report on the Pauper System,* which has been some time ordered to be printed, but is not yet out of the press. I will forward it to you as soon as I receive it. The result of both, it should be added to Sir Charles, will probably be a great change in our legislation. As it has heretofore resembled the English, it may be valuable for him to know it is now generally disapproved among us, and likely to be overturned by facts and reasonings like those in the present pamphlet and the one that will follow it. If he desires more information I will endeavour to procure it for him, and now is a favourable time in this Commonwealth.

The Hon. Daniel Webster.

I am, &c.

(signed)

— Ticknor.

ENCLOSURE referred to in Mr. Ticknor's Letter.

The following are the provisions in the State of Massachusetts for the recording of births and deaths:

"An Act for recording Births and Deaths by the Clerks of Towns and Districts, 1795. c. 69.

"Be it Enacted, &c., That it shall be the duty of every town-clerk and every district-clerk within the Commonwealth to record all births and deaths which shall happen within his town or district, and come to his knowledge, together with the time of such birth or death, and the names of his or her parents, if known, for the fees allowed by law.

"Sec. 2. And be it further Enacted, That it shall be the duty of parents to give notice to the clerk of the town or district in which they dwell of all the births and deaths of their children; and it shall be the duty of every householder to give notice of every birth and death which may happen in his house, and of the eldest person next of kin to give notice of the death of his kindred; and it shall be the duty of the master or keeper of every almshouse, workhouse or prison, and of the master or commander of any ship or vessel, to give notice of every birth and death which may happen in the house or vessel under his care or charge, to the clerk of the town or district in which such event shall happen; and in case any person whose duty it shall be by virtue of this Act to give notice as aforesaid shall neglect to perform the same for the space of six months after the birth or death shall happen, the person so neglecting shall pay a fine of one dollar, to be recovered, with costs of suit, on complaint before any justice of the peace for the same county, to the use of any inhabitant of the same town who shall prosecute for the same; from which judgment there shall be no appeal."

With regard to marriages, the Statute of 1786, c. 3, provides, in the first place, that marriages may be solemnized by justices of the peace within the county in which they reside, and by ordained ministers of the Gospel in the towns, districts or plantations in which they reside, after certain preliminary requisitions have been followed by the parties contracting. The Statute afterwards provides "that every justice and minister shall make and keep a particular record of all marriages solemnized before them respectively, and in the month of April yearly and every year shall make a return to the clerk of the town, district or plantation in which he lives, certifying the names, both Christian names and surnames, of all the persons who have been by them respectively joined together in marriage within the year then last past, if any such have been by them so joined together.

Any justice or clergyman omitting to make such return shall be cited before the court of general sessions of the peace for the county, and, if no sufficient reason be given for such neglect, he shall be disqualified for joining persons in matrimony, for a term of time not exceeding 10 years, at discretion of the court.

Every town and district clerk is bound duly and seasonably to record such marriages as are certified to him as aforesaid.

For recording births and deaths the town-clerk is authorized to receive eight cents. each. For publishing the banns of matrimony, recording the same, giving a certificate of the publishment, and recording the marriage upon receiving the justice's or minister's certificate thereof, 50 cents., to be paid by the man published on receiving a certificate of the publishment.

There are no statute provisions regulating the registration of baptisms and burials.

ABSTRACT of the Return of PAUPERS, 1833.

To Hon. William B. Calhoun, Speaker of the House of Representatives:

Sir,

Secretary's Office, 14 Feb. 1834.

IN obedience to an Order of the 5th instant, I herewith submit to the Honourable House of Representatives an Abstract of Returns of the Overseers of the Poor, for the year 1833, from 202 towns, which are all that have been received in this department.

A separate Abstract of the Returns from the several Gaols and Houses of Correction is now in preparation, and will be completed with all possible dispatch.

I have the honour to be, Sir, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

Edward D. Bangs, Secretary.

* This has been already printed in Appendix (F.) p. 57, having been obtained by the Poor Law Commissioners from another source.

ABSTRACT

Of the RETURNS of the POOR, from the several Towns in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, for the Year 1833.

COUNTY OF ESSEX.

TOWNS.	Persons.		Colour.			Read or Write.			Married or Not.			Temperate or Not.			Supported in Almshouse.	Supported Abroad.	Supported by Contract.	Supported Abroad, and not by Contract.	Average of Weekly Expense, when supported by Contract.	Amount of Annual Expense of Poor, supported in Almshouse.	Amount of Annual Expense of Poor, supported otherwise than in Almshouse.	Number of Sleeping-rooms in Almshouse.	Greatest Number in Sleeping-rooms.	Number of Workshops.
	Male.	Female.	White.	Coloured.	Not stated.	Can.	Cannot.	Not stated.	Married.	Unmarried.	Not stated.	Temperate.	Intemperate.	Not stated.										
Amesbury	13	14	27	-	-	24	3	-	6	-	21	18	9	-	26	1	1	-	\$ 1	\$ 534 45	\$ 395 66	14	4	1
Andover	40	44	65	17	15	55	14	15	26	46	12	52	25	7	50	34	-	-	- 37½	-	660 21	12	5	1
Beverly	34	45	78	1	-	61	18	-	21	57	1	51	27	1	45	34	-	-	-	935	265	8	5	1
Boxford	-	8	-	-	3	12	-	3	-	13	2	14	1	-	15	-	-	-	-	-	-	14	3	1
Bradford	7	36	-	1	72	-	-	73	21	-	52	19	-	54	73	-	-	-	-	530	-	14	3	1
Danvers	37	21	22	-	5	18	4	5	7	14	6	18	4	-	20	7	-	-	- 50	1,452 27	450	17	9	5
Essex	6	21	63	-	-	37	26	-	13	50	-	45	18	-	63	-	-	-	-	600	150	9	4	1
Gloucester	23	40	15	-	-	14	1	-	2	13	-	12	3	-	37	15	-	-	- 89	2,268	761 67	28	8	2
Hamilton	9	6	34	4	9	27	2	9	6	19	13	34	1	-	37	1	-	-	- 42	-	621 26	-	6	1
Haverhill	19	19	33	-	-	-	-	37	22	15	-	-	46	37	37	13	-	-	- 45	758 68	111 95	9	15	2
Ipswich	17	20	82	1	-	64	19	-	35	48	-	37	2	7	70	9	-	-	-	550	842 73	23	8	2
Lynn	52	31	9	-	-	-	-	9	-	21	9	18	3	-	-	21	-	-	- 55½	-	217 88	-	-	2
Lynnfield	2	7	21	-	-	12	-	9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	27	-	-	-	-	605 51	-	-	1
Manchester	3	18	24	3	-	16	11	-	4	23	-	15	6	6	-	27	-	-	- 59	-	616 53	-	-	1
Marblehead	-	15	9	1	4	6	-	4	1	9	-	7	1	2	-	10	3	-	- 56	-	481 52	-	-	1
Methuen	12	8	24	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	48	24	-	52	20	-	-	-	2,028	256 15	12	5	-
Middleton	2	8	9	1	-	377	-	107	117	266	101	132	252	100	484	-	-	-	-	5,131 84	1,185 56	-	-	-
Newbury	-	-	-	-	-	21	10	-	5	26	-	21	10	-	30	1	-	-	- 50	864 50	58 60	12	3	1
Newburyport	-	-	-	-	-	19	1	-	8	12	-	11	9	-	20	-	-	-	-	544	-	11	6	1
Rowley	37	35	1	18	-	55	17	-	26	46	-	48	24	-	9	1	-	-	- 25	420	14	6	-	-
Salem	250	234	6	18	-	377	-	107	117	266	101	132	252	100	484	-	-	-	-	2,028	256 15	12	5	-
Salisbury	14	17	4	-	-	21	10	-	5	26	-	21	10	-	30	1	-	-	-	864 50	58 60	12	3	1
Saugus	11	9	19	1	-	19	1	-	8	12	-	11	9	-	20	-	-	-	-	544	-	11	6	1
Topsfield	3	7	10	-	-	7	3	-	3	7	-	-	-	10	9	1	-	-	-	420	-	6	-	-
Wenham	-	14	5	-	-	8	1	6	7	8	-	14	1	-	-	15	-	-	- 86	-	800	-	-	-
W. Newbury	1	14	5	-	-	8	1	6	7	8	-	14	1	-	-	15	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
21 Returned	92	648	1,067	48	125	833	130	277	330	693	217	566	442	232	1,031	209	120	33	12) 6 95½	17,244 01	8,494 23	190	-	12
																			58 cts.					

(continued)

Reading -	19	27	45	1	23	1	22	8	3	35	3	43	9	14	23	31	15	15	-	-	36	613	20	260	-	14	5	-	
Sherburne	-	2	7	-	-	-	2	-	7	-	4	3	7	-	-	-	7	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Shirley -	6	5	10	1	8	2	1	1	10	-	1	10	9	2	-	-	11	6	5	-	-	-	-	247	75	-	6	1	
S. Reading	17	12	29	-	22	2	5	12	15	2	11	18	-	8	21	27	2	2	-	-	-	216	28	34	17	12	6	1	
Stoneham	7	2	7	2	6	3	-	3	6	-	7	2	3	6	-	7	2	2	-	-	-	317	60	16	50	6	2	1	
Stow -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Sudbury -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Tewksbury	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Townsend	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Tyngsboro'	13	13	26	-	22	4	-	6	5	15	7	19	7	8	11	-	26	-	26	-	-	-	-	499	02	-	-	-	
Waltham	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Watertown	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
W. Cambridge	11	7	18	-	15	3	-	3	15	-	8	10	6	12	-	14	4	4	-	-	1 13 $\frac{3}{4}$	1,300	-	236	60	9	5	-	
Westford	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	4	9	-	8	5	-	5	8	13	-	-	-	-	-	400	-	-	-	7	4	-	
Weston*	3	10	13	-	11	-	-	2	15	-	1	16	6	11	-	17	-	-	-	-	-	501	69	98	07	8	4	-	
Wilmington	-	-	-	-	-	5	-	2	15	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Woburn -	6	11	16	1	12	5	-	2	15	-	1	16	6	11	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
28 Returned	427	428	589	32	234	510	147	198	218	434	203	251	604	287	192	376	428	127	66	60	14	10	19,180	02	4,082	18	176	-	7

* By contract, supported in almshouse.

COUNTY OF WORCESTER.

Ashburnham	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
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

(continued)

COUNTY OF WORCESTER—continued.

TOWNS.	Persons.		Colour.			Read or Write.			Married or Not.			Not having Families.	Temperate or Not.			Supported in Almshouse.	Supported Abroad.	Supported by Contract.	Supported Abroad, and not by Contract.	Average of Weekly Ex-pense, when supported by Contract.	Amount of Annual Ex-pense of Poor, supported in Almshouse.	Amount of Annual Ex-pense of Poor, supported otherwise than in Almshouse.	Number of Sleeping-rooms in Almshouse.	Greatest Number in Sleeping-rooms.	Number of Workshops.
	Male.	Female.	White.	Coloured.	Not stated.	Can.	Cannot.	Not stated.	Married.	Unmarried.	Not stated.		Temperate.	Intemperate.	Not stated.										
Milford -	-	-	-	-	-	6	1	1	-	5	3	5	7	-	1	-	8	7	1	\$ - 60	-	\$ 288	-	-	-
Millbury -	-	-	-	-	-	4	1	7	1	7	4	12	2	1	9	8	4	4	-	- 56	450	117	-	2	-
New Braintree -	3	5	8	-	-	6	16	-	6	10	6	22	-	-	22	-	22	-	22	-	-	698	73	-	-
Northborough -	-	-	-	-	-	10	2	-	-	12	-	9	9	3	-	-	12	1	11	-	-	475	-	8	-
Northbridge -	5	7	12	-	-	7	2	-	-	-	-	9	9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
N. Brookfield -	-	-	-	-	-	6	10	-	6	10	6	22	-	-	22	-	22	-	22	-	-	-	-	-	-
Oakham -	11	11	22	-	-	7	6	-	4	5	-	9	9	-	-	-	9	-	9	-	-	309	67	-	-
Oxford -	4	8	12	-	-	6	3	-	5	6	-	6	13	3	-	-	11	11	-	- 69	-	469	68	-	-
Paxton -	-	-	-	-	-	6	4	-	4	5	7	8	13	3	-	-	16	4	12	- 56	-	-	-	-	-
Petersham -	4	5	9	-	-	2	2	-	4	5	-	6	2	1	-	-	8	-	8	-	-	550	-	-	-
Phillipston -	6	5	11	-	-	6	3	-	5	6	-	6	2	3	-	-	2	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-
Princeton -	6	10	16	-	-	2	4	-	4	5	3	2	7	1	-	-	2	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-
Royalston -	6	2	6	-	-	7	2	-	4	5	8	6	2	1	-	-	8	-	8	-	-	-	-	-	-
Rutland -	3	4	7	-	-	18	4	-	4	3	-	2	23	-	-	21	-	-	-	-	-	-	7	-	-
Shrewsbury -	6	17	23	-	-	5	2	-	1	14	1	18	6	-	-	-	2	-	2	-	526	79	-	10	-
Southborough -	2	5	7	-	-	6	5	-	-	6	1	3	6	-	-	-	7	-	7	-	-	387	88	-	-
Southbridge -	6	5	11	-	-	18	5	-	-	11	-	10	5	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	500	-	-	4	-
Spencer -	11	12	23	-	-	18	7	-	7	8	8	22	5	10	-	-	25	-	1	-	500	-	-	14	-
Sterling -	13	12	24	-	-	15	7	-	5	16	4	15	9	8	-	-	18	-	1	-	-	700	-	-	-
Sturbridge -	8	10	18	-	-	13	4	-	2	15	1	5	13	3	-	-	25	-	24	-	-	650	-	-	-
Sutton -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	18	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Templeton -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Upton -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Uxbridge -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Ward -	-	1	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	1	-	1	1	-	-	-	1	-	-	1 -	-	174	-	-	-
Webster -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Westborough -	8	12	19	-	-	9	1	10	3	9	8	17	8	2	10	16	4	4	-	- 42½	437	60	-	-	-
W. Boylston -	3	2	5	-	-	4	-	1	-	4	1	2	3	1	1	-	5	4	1	-	-	194	23	-	-
Western -	6	4	9	-	-	6	4	-	3	4	3	7	1	4	5	-	10	7	3	- 64	-	-	-	-	-
Westminster -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Winchendon -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Worcester -	34	14	43	5	-	36	4	8	22	13	13	33	14	20	14	42	6	2	4	-	1,205	444	99	26	4
34 Returned	233	269	483	15	4	336	88	78	115	302	85	143	272	109	121	250	252	166	85	18) 14 26½	7,253	8,767	15	120	-
																				79½ cts.					2

P. L. (F)

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[illegible]

COUNTY OF FRANKLIN.

TOWNS.	Persons.		Colour.			Read or Write.			Married or Not.			Not having Families.	Temperate or Not.			Supported in Almshouse.	Supported Abroad.	Supported by Contract.	Supported Abroad, and not by Contract.	Average of Weekly Expense, when supported by Contract.	Amount of Annual Expense of Poor, supported in Almshouse.	Amount of Annual Expense of Poor, supported otherwise than in Almshouse.	Number of Sleeping-rooms in Almshouse.	Greatest Number in Sleeping-rooms.	Number of Workshops.
	Male.	Female.	White.	Coloured.	Not stated.	Can.	Cannot.	Not stated.	Married.	Unmarried.	Not stated.		Temperate.	Intemperate.	Not stated.										
Ashfield	4	6	10	-	-	8	2	-	2	5	3	5	5	2	3	-	10	10	-	-	-	\$400	-	-	-
Bernardston	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Buckland	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Charlemont	6	5	11	-	-	7	4	-	1	10	-	4	9	2	-	-	11	11	-	-76	-	435	76	-	-
Colerain	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Conway	4	13	16	1	-	10	-	7	-	11	6	12	12	1	4	-	17	12	5	-	-	520	-	-	-
Deerfield	2	9	11	-	-	7	4	-	2	9	-	6	10	1	-	-	11	11	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Erving's Grant	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Gill	1	6	7	-	-	7	-	-	3	4	-	1	5	2	-	-	7	-	7	-53	-	398	-	-	-
Greenfield	7	4	10	1	-	8	3	-	3	8	-	4	10	1	-	7	4	4	-	156	40	-	-	-	-
Hawley	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Heath	4	9	13	-	-	8	-	5	5	-	8	10	-	3	10	-	13	13	-	-	-	500	-	-	-
Leverett	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Leyden	2	3	5	-	-	5	-	-	2	3	-	3	5	-	-	-	5	-	5	-	-	200	-	-	-
Monroe	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Montague	4	7	11	-	-	8	1	2	2	9	-	5	10	-	1	-	11	11	-	-81	-	463	32	-	-
New Salem	3	6	9	-	-	9	-	-	3	6	-	4	7	2	-	-	9	-	9	-	-	349	50	-	-
Northfield	8	10	18	-	-	15	3	-	3	8	7	15	8	2	8	12	6	4	2	-	250	132	-	-	-
Orange	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Rowe	1	7	-	-	8	7	-	1	-	3	5	1	2	-	6	-	8	8	-	-86	-	350	05	-	-
Shelburne	-	-	6	-	-	5	1	-	3	3	-	4	6	-	-	-	6	6	-	-	-	372	50	-	-
Shutesbury	2	4	24	5	-	21	2	6	8	17	4	24	-	3	26	-	29	26	3	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sunderland	12	17	24	-	-	7	-	-	2	5	-	2	5	2	-	-	7	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Warwick	3	4	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Wendell	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Whately	2	2	4	-	-	3	1	-	1	2	1	2	4	-	-	-	1	1	3	1	-	205	40	-	-
16 Returned	65	112	162	7	8	135	21	21	40	103	34	63	114	98	58	19	158	124	34	5) 3 96	406 40	4,326 53	6	-	-
																				79 cts.					

COUNTY OF BERKSHIRE.

	Male.	Female.	White.	Coloured.	-	Can.	Cannot.	Not stated.	Married.	Unmarried.	Not stated.	Having Families.	Not having Families.	Temperate.	Intemperate.	Not stated.	Supported in Almshouse.	Supported Abroad.	Supported by Contract.	Supported Abroad, and not by Contract.	Average of Weekly Expense, when supported by Contract.	Amount of Annual Expense of Poor, supported in Almshouse.	Amount of Annual Expense of Poor, supported otherwise than in Almshouse.	Number of Sleeping-rooms in Almshouse.	Greatest Number in Sleeping-rooms.	Number of Workshops.
Adams	7	18	22	3	-	6	8	11	5	6	14	6	19	-	1	24	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Alford	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Becket	4	8	10	2	-	4	5	3	2	8	2	3	9	-	-	12	12	8	4	-	-	274	03	-	-	-
Cheshire	5	2	6	1	-	4	3	-	2	5	-	1	6	-	-	7	7	6	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Clarksburg	1	1	2	-	-	1	1	-	2	-	-	2	-	1	1	-	-	2	2	-	-	-	136	-	-	-
Dalton	2	2	3	1	-	3	1	-	1	3	-	1	3	3	1	-	-	4	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

225
131 F

P. L. (F.)

COUNTY OF NORFOLK.

Bellingham	-	3	5	8	-	-	-	-	3	5	7	1	-	-	7	1	5	1	-	50	4 50	26	8	2	-
Braintree	-	-	4	5	-	-	-	-	2	3	-	-	-	3	-	5	5	-	-	1 25	-	375	-	2	-
Brookline	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Canton	-	-	14	23	-	-	3	15	6	8	15	17	6	-	23	-	-	6	-	-	700	-	4	-	
Cohasset	-	9	22	37	-	-	19	17	14	17	20	23	14	-	28	-	-	14	-	58	1,223 04	-	6	-	
Dedham	-	15	16	36	-	-	14	18	12	12	24	24	12	-	36	-	-	12	-	-	2,229 23	-	6	-	
Dorchester	-	20	6	6	-	-	-	6	-	-	6	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	154 91	16	6	
Dover	-	-	5	6	-	-	-	8	1	-	8	8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	264 93	-	6	
Foxborough	-	-	7	8	-	-	-	9	1	-	8	8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	426 24	-	6	
Franklin	-	3	5	15	-	-	6	7	1	7	8	15	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1 06	-	-	-	-	
Medfield	-	8	9	12	-	-	13	9	-	5	8	13	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	90 1/2	-	-	-	-	
Medway	-	4	6	8	-	-	2	6	-	1	7	5	-	-	8	-	-	1	-	1 26 1/2	160	-	-	-	
Milton	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Needham	-	14	15	29	-	-	15	14	8	12	17	16	8	5	29	-	-	8	-	-	600	-	4	-	
Quincy	-	12	14	26	-	-	11	11	6	7	19	-	6	20	26	-	-	6	-	-	500	-	2	-	
Randolph	-	7	25	30	-	6	9	23	-	6	26	13	8	11	11	21	21	21	-	-	374 94	15	6	-	
Roxbury	-	58	42	98	-	11	32	52	40	44	56	40	41	19	93	7	7	-	77	3,136	281 50	13	6	-	

(continued)

(continued)

COUNTY OF NORFOLK—continued.

TOWNS.	Persons.		Colour.			Read or Write.			Married or not.			Having Families.			Not having Families.			Temperate or not.			Supported Abroad.	Supported by Contract.	Supported Abroad, and not by Contract.	Average of Weekly Expense, when supported by Contract.	Amount of Annual Expense of Poor, supported in Almshouse.	Amount of Annual Expense of Poor, supported otherwise than in Almshouse.	Number of Sleeping-rooms in Almshouse.	Greatest Number in Sleeping-rooms.	Number of Workshops.											
	Male.	Female.	White.	Coloured.	Not stated.	Can.	Cannot.	Not stated.	Married.	Unmarried.	Not stated.	Temperate.	Intemperate.	Not stated.	12	7	33	21	3	-										19	16	22	14	5	19	-	4	6	4	1
Sharon -	8	16	23	1	-	14	10	-	16	8	-	12	21	3	-	12	12	12	21	3	-	24	5	19	-	\$ 868 90	-	-	-	-	-	-								
Stoughton -	3	11	14	-	-	14	-	-	6	8	-	7	14	-	-	7	7	7	14	-	-	14	14	-	-	649 44	-	-	-	-	-	-								
Walpole -	15	23	37	1	-	15	5	18	3	18	17	5	15	4	19	5	33	15	4	-	22	-	22	-	675 -	-	-	-	-	-	-									
Weymouth -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-									
Wrentham -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-									
17 Returned	182	240	415	7	-	318	69	35	151	220	51	148	237	106	79	277	274	274	237	106	79	145	95	50	9)	8 48	9,973 21	6,079 51	84	-	7									
94 cts.																																								

COUNTY OF BRISTOL.

Attleborough	-	3	6	9	-	7	-	2	1	8	-	-	4	3	2	-	9	9	-	1 22	-	-	423 34	-	-	
Berkley	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9	4	3	2	9	9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Dartmouth	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Dighton	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Easton	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Fairhaven	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Freetown	-	6	7	13	-	10	2	1	3	8	2	2	11	1	4	8	13	8	5	1 25	-	-	447 -	-	-	
Mansfield	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
New Bedford	-	7	13	20	-	16	4	-	5	15	-	12	8	12	8	-	20	13	7	- 67	-	-	900 -	-	-	
Norton	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Pawtucket	-	9	10	19	-	18	1	-	5	14	-	7	12	8	9	2	-	3	16	-	-	106 -	-	-	-	
Raynham	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Rehoboth	-	7	15	21	1	15	7	-	2	20	-	-	22	16	6	-	11	4	7	-	-	296 92	7	3	-	
Seekonk	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Somerset	-	15	18	30	3	21	8	4	9	20	4	12	21	2	17	14	28	5	5	-	-	500 -	-	-	-	
Swansey	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Taunton	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Troy	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Westport	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
6 Returned	47	69	112	4	-	87	22	7	25	85	6	33	83	43	47	26	39	58	37	40	3)	3 14	1,256 94	2,229 66	7	-
											</															

1 05 cts.

COUNTY OF PLYMOUTH.

Abington	-	10	7	16	1	-	17	-	8	-	7	4	9	16	1	1	16	8	9	-	4	15	2	2	-	70	537	20	72	80	9	4	1
Bridgewater	-	14	11	20	5	-	12	-	18	7	1	7	5	18	7	1	18	16	5	5	-	24	1	1	-	67	-	-	-	-	10	6	2
Carver	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Duxbury	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
E. Bridgewater	-	9	13	17	5	-	17	5	5	-	15	3	10	12	10	22	10	10	10	2	-	-	22	22	-	69	-	-	950	-	-	-	-
Halifax	-	2	3	5	-	-	5	-	-	2	6	2	4	3	1	5	1	1	4	-	-	-	5	-	5	-	-	-	264	86	-	-	-
Hanover	-	3	8	11	-	-	9	-	-	2	6	5	1	8	1	11	1	-	1	10	-	-	3	3	8	-	-	-	666	32	-	-	-
Hanson	-	7	13	20	-	-	18	1	1	1	15	5	1	19	1	20	1	19	1	-	-	-	-	-	20	-	-	591	94	-	6	1	
Hingham	-	29	32	59	2	-	-	-	-	61	-	1	1	60	1	10	60	1	-	60	51	-	10	-	10	-	1,367	14	-	-	11	-	-
Hull	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Kingston	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Marshfield	-	9	9	17	1	1	14	2	2	2	10	6	2	11	7	2	11	7	2	9	-	-	18	2	16	50	-	-	852	38	13	3	1
Middleborough	-	23	30	1	7	45	33	20	20	-	13	17	7	41	12	12	24	24	7	22	47	6	-	-	6	-	1,121	-	-	315	-	16	6
N. Bridgewater	-	10	10	16	4	-	12	8	8	-	15	5	-	14	6	-	14	14	6	-	-	13	-	-	-	-	450	-	-	100	-	10	4
Pembroke	-	10	11	21	-	-	21	-	-	-	9	12	-	12	9	-	20	20	1	-	-	21	-	-	-	-	200	-	-	40	-	9	4
Plymouth	-	14	14	27	1	-	18	10	-	-	19	9	-	18	10	-	20	20	8	-	-	28	-	-	-	-	950	-	-	160	-	10	4
Plympton	-	6	9	15	-	-	14	1	1	-	10	5	9	1	7	-	1	1	5	9	-	-	15	1	14	38 1/2	-	-	796	89	-	-	-
Rochester	-	14	23	36	1	-	29	7	7	1	22	15	-	22	15	-	-	-	-	37	-	-	37	37	-	-	-	-	1,400	-	-	5	1
Scituate	-	30	30	51	9	-	57	3	3	-	39	39	-	36	24	-	39	39	21	-	60	-	-	-	-	-	690	81	-	200	85	-	-
Wareham	-	-	7	14	-	-	11	3	3	-	12	-	6	7	7	1	8	8	6	-	13	-	1	-	1	-	500	-	100	-	-	-	-
W. Bridgewater	-	7	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
16 Returned	-	197	230	346	36	45	287	68	72	123	213	91	122	305	188	86	153	272	155	68	80	7)	4	96 1/2	71 cts.	5,816	15	6,604	10	103	42	8	

COUNTY OF BARNSTABLE.

Barnstable	-	7	11	18	-	-	15	3	-	3	15	-	-	11	18	-	-	93	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Brewster	-	7	11	18	-	-	15	3	-	3	15	-	-	11	18	-	-	93	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Chatham	-	6	13	19	-	-	12	7	-	2	17	-	-	11	16	3	-	89	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Dennis	-	-	3	3	-	-	3	-	-	-	3	-	-	3	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Eastham	-	11	23	34	-	-	34	-	-	13	21	-	-	31	34	-	-	40	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Falmouth	-	5	9	13	1	-	9	1	-	4	8	-	-	3	6	5	-	74	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Harwich	-	6	9	14	1	-	15	-	-	4	12	-	-	9	12	3	-	50	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Orleans	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Provincetown	-	12	5	17	-	-	10	4	3	4	9	4	-	13	9	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sandwich	-	2	2	4	-	-	2	1	-	-	4	-	-	2	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Truro	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Wellfleet	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Yarmouth	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
8 Returned	-	49	75	122	2	-	100	16	8	29	89	6	41	83	102	14	8	52	72	67	5	5)	3	46	69	2,368	42	2,198	78	48	16	-	-

(continued)

COUNTY OF DUKES COUNTY.

TOWNS.	Persons.		Colour.		Read or Write.		Married or Not.		Having Families.		Temperate or Not.		Supported Abroad.	Supported by Contract.	Supported Abroad, and not by Contract.	Average of Weekly Expense, when supported by Contract.	Amount of Annual Expense of Poor, supported in Almshouse.	Amount of Annual Expense of Poor, supported otherwise than in Almshouse.	Number of Sleeping-rooms in Almshouse.	Greatest Number in Sleeping-rooms.	Number of Workshops.
	Male.	Female.	White.	Coloured.	Can.	Cannot.	Married.	Unmarried.	Not stated.	Not stated.	Intemperate.	Not stated.									
Chilmark	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	15	15	-	-	-	1,000	-	-	-
Edgartown	7	8	15	-	15	-	9	3	3	3	3	-	15	15	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Tisbury	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

COUNTY OF NANTUCKET.

Nantucket	30	37	59	8	-	66	1	5	55	7	15	52	28	37	2	52	15	-	15	-	4,200	500	24	24	1
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AGGREGATE OF THE COUNTIES.

COUNTIES. Whole Number of Towns in each County.	Persons.		Colour.			Read or Write.			Married or Not.			Having Families.		Not having Families.		Temperate or Not.			Supported in Almshouse.	Supported Abroad.	Supported by Contract.	Supported Abroad, and not by Contract.	Average of Weekly Ex- pense, of those supported by Contract.	Amount of Annual Ex- pense of Poor, supported in Almshouse.	Amount of Annual Ex- pense of Poor, supported otherwise than in Alms- house.	Number of Sleeping- rooms in Almshouse	Number of Workshops.
	Male.	Female.	White.	Coloured.	Not stated.	Can.	Cannot.	Not stated.	Married.	Unmarried.	Not stated.	Temperate.	Intemperate.	Not stated.													
Suffolk	2	772	1,192	82	8	525	380	377	274	909	99	329	953	110	670	502	1,280	2	120	2	-	58 cts.	\$18,316 31	\$152 24	4	1	
Essex	26	592	1,067	48	125	833	130	277	330	693	217	329	911	566	442	232	1,031	209	33	33	-	71 1	17,244 01	8,494 23	190	12	
Middlesex	46	427	589	32	234	510	147	198	218	434	203	251	604	287	192	376	428	127	60	66	-	79 1	19,180 02	4,082 18	176	7	
Worcester	55	233	483	15	4	336	88	78	115	302	85	143	359	272	109	121	250	252	85	166	-	73 1	7,253 68	8,767 15	120	2	
Hampshire	23	77	142	24	3	92	39	38	36	74	59	46	123	70	47	52	78	84	7	62	-	73 1	1,278 87	2,676 95	23	3	
Hampden	18	41	97	5	-	71	29	2	22	78	2	44	58	62	19	21	11	91	24	67	-	64	-	2,898 66	4	-	
Franklin	26	65	162	7	8	135	21	21	40	103	34	63	114	98	21	58	19	158	34	124	-	79	406 40	4,326 53	6	-	
Berkshire	30	161	287	59	1	190	102	55	87	222	38	90	257	228	45	74	55	267	126	141	-	84 1	450 -	8,011 37	18	-	
Norfolk	22	182	415	7	-	318	69	35	151	220	51	148	274	237	106	79	277	145	50	95	-	94	9,973 21	6,079 51	84	7	
Bristol	19	47	112	4	-	87	22	7	25	85	6	33	83	43	47	26	39	58	40	37	-	105	1,256 94	2,229 66	7	-	
Plymouth	21	197	346	36	45	287	68	72	123	213	91	122	305	188	86	153	272	155	80	68	-	71	5,816 15	6,604 10	103	8	
Barnstable	13	49	122	2	-	100	16	8	29	89	6	41	83	102	14	8	52	72	5	67	-	69 1	2,368 42	2,198 78	48	1	
Dukes County	3	7	15	-	-	15	-	-	9	3	3	6	9	9	3	3	-	15	-	15	-	-	-	1,000 -	-	-	-
Nantucket	1	30	59	8	-	66	-	1	5	55	7	15	52	28	37	2	52	15	15	-	-	-	4,200 -	500 -	24	1	
Towns in the State.	305	2,880	5,088	329	428	3,565	1,111	1,169	1,464	3,480	901	1,660	4,185	2,300	1,838	1,707	3,844	1,650	561	1,028	561	77 2-11	87,744 01	58,021 36	807 41		

Remarks:—Many of the Returns are very imperfect and confused in their statements; and several of them contain, in some columns, absolute contradictions of the particulars stated in other columns. Of course, it is impossible always to reconcile these inconsistencies. The Returns, and consequently the Abstract, will therefore afford very uncertain data, in many instances in which information was sought by the Legislature.

Edward D. Bangs, Secretary of the Commonwealth.

STATE OF PENNSYLVANIA.

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Sir,

His Majesty's Consulate, Philadelphia, 12 February 1834.

I HAVE the honour to send you, for the information of Viscount Palmerston, answers to the queries respecting the Poor Laws in Pennsylvania, contained in your circular letter dated the 12th August last. Accompanying that document I send two pamphlets, one being the Report of the Commissioners to revise the Civil Code of Pennsylvania, the other containing the Poor Laws of Philadelphia.

John Backhouse, Esq.
&c. &c. &c.

I have, &c.
(signed) Gilbert Robertson.

ANSWERS to the Inquiries contained in the Circular Letter transmitted from the Foreign Office to Mr. Robertson, dated 12 August 1833.

I. OF THE LEGAL PROVISIONS EXISTING IN THE STATE OF PENNSYLVANIA FOR THE SUPPORT AND MAINTENANCE OF THE POOR.

The general law relating to the support and maintenance of the poor in Pennsylvania, with the exception of the city of Philadelphia and the districts adjacent to it, was passed in 1771, previously to the Revolution, and follows closely the Acts of the British Parliament then existing. It has been amended in some particulars since; but the essential features remain the same.

1. *Of the Administrators of the Law.*

Overseers of the poor are chosen annually, in the month of March, in every township and borough, by the votes of the inhabitants; the same qualification being necessary as at the general elections.

The overseers receive no compensation for their services.

They are liable to a penalty of 5 *l.* for refusing to serve in the office; but are not obliged to serve oftener than one year in seven.

2. *Of the Funds for the Relief of the Poor.*

The overseers of every township and borough are authorized (having first obtained the approbation of any two justices of the peace of the same county) to lay a rate or assessment, not exceeding 3 *d.* in the pound, on the clear yearly value of all the real and personal estate within the township or borough, and 6 *s.* per head on every freeman, not otherwise rated for his estate, in every three-penny tax, and so on in proportion for any lesser rate or assessment, which assessment may be repeated as often in one year as shall be found necessary.

There are also various fines and penalties imposed by different laws, which are directed to be paid to the overseers, for the use of the poor.

3. *Of the Persons to whom Relief is to be given, and the Mode of administering it.*

The 4th section of the Act of 1771 directs that the funds raised shall be employed "in providing proper houses and places, and a convenient stock of hemp, flax, thread and other ware and stuff, for setting to work such poor persons as apply for relief and are capable of working; and also for relieving such poor, old, blind, impotent and lame persons, and other persons not able to work, within the boroughs and townships respectively, who shall therewith be maintained and provided for;" following closely the words of the statute of 43 Elizabeth. c. 2.

The 5th section gives authority to the overseers to contract with any person for a house or lodging, for keeping, maintaining and employing the poor; and declares that, if any poor person shall refuse to be so kept, he shall be put out of the book and shall not be entitled to relief.

The 9th section provides that no person shall be entered in the poor book of any township or borough, or receive relief, before such person shall have procured an order from two justices of the peace, under a penalty of forfeiting the amount given, unless the entry and relief be approved of by two justices.

The law respecting *settlements* and *removals* is nearly the same as in England. There is the same settlement by birth and marriage; and a settlement is acquired in the same manner as is provided in the statute 13 & 14 Car. 2, c. 12; and in addition thereto, the Act of 1771 declares, that "every healthy person" coming directly from Europe into the province shall be legally settled in the place in which he shall first settle and reside for the space of 12 months.

There is no express provision in our laws respecting the relief of persons not having a settlement anywhere within this Commonwealth; but it has been held by the Supreme Court, that the overseers are bound to afford relief to such persons who may happen to be disabled and to be in want, and it is believed to be the practice to do so.

There is a large number of persons constantly seeking relief under such circumstances, either emigrants from Europe or persons from other States of this Union. In neither case can they be well removed from this State: in the first instance, in consequence of the distance; and in the second, because there is no legislation common to the States which authorizes the removal of paupers from one to the other.

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These are the principal features of the law relating to paupers in the country districts. There are local provisions in some districts varying the general rule. In 16 out of the 52 counties in Pennsylvania there are county poor-houses, which are superintended by the "Directors of the Poor," elected by the inhabitants of the respective county. In these cases, the poor are a *county*, and not a *township* charge.

In the city of Philadelphia and its suburbs, a system exists, materially different from that established by the Act of 1771.

Until the year 1828, the poor laws were administered by persons denominated "Guardians of the Poor," 50 in number, who were chosen by the corporations of the city proper and of the suburban districts; of whom nine acted as managers of the almshouse, and the remainder had charge of the out-door poor. Each of the latter had charge of a certain appointed district, and distributed money, fuel or provisions, at his discretion, within a certain limit. The result was, great profusion on one side and improvidence on the other; indiscriminate relief and the encouragement of the worst kinds of pauperism and profligacy; an enormous increase in the poor-tax, and great facilities to speculation and fraud. The citizens became alarmed, and represented to the Legislature the evils of the prevailing law.

In conformity with their suggestions, the whole system was changed in 1828, by an Act of the Legislature, and a new mode of administration adopted, the principal features of which are as follows:

Twelve persons constitute a Board, who have corporate powers under the title of "the Guardians for the relief and employment of the poor of the city of Philadelphia," &c. They are elected in certain proportions by the corporation of Philadelphia and the adjoining districts, for the term of three years, and are renewed by rotation; one-third of the number going out of office annually.

They annually appoint a secretary and treasurer.

They also appoint six persons as visitors of the poor, who receive a certain compensation, fixed by the guardians, and give security for the faithful execution of their trust. Their duty is, on every application for relief, to visit the applicant, and after full examination, to report in writing to the next meeting of the Board the residence, name, age, sex and birth-place of such applicant, and the number of children, if any. On receipt of which report, the Board, if satisfied of the necessity of the case, directs the mode and determines the amount of relief. In case of sudden emergency, when the party cannot be removed to the hospital or almshouse, the visitor, with the consent and approbation of one of the guardians, is to administer such relief as the necessity of the case may require, and a report thereof is made to the next meeting of the board of guardians.

The taxes for the support of the poor are laid and assessed by a distinct body called "The Directors of the Poor-tax," consisting of 12 persons, who are annually elected by the same authority as the guardians. The guardians furnish them annually with an estimate of the amount of money which will probably be required for the support of the poor; and the directors then proceed to lay a rate, which is not to exceed 50 cents in the 100 dollars at any one time, upon real and personal estates, and not more than one dollar per head on every freeman in any 50-cent tax.

The rules respecting settlements are the same with those established for the commonwealth in general by the Act of 1771, already mentioned, with the addition, that illegitimate children are to be taken as settled in the place of legal settlement of their mother at the time of the birth of the child.

The Act of 1828 authorizes the erection of an almshouse in the vicinity of the city, which is now in the course of building, upon a very large scale. It is intended to provide separate dormitories for all the inmates, and to employ them in profitable work.

II. OF THE PRINCIPLES UPON WHICH THE PROVISION FOR THE SUPPORT OF THE POOR IS FOUNDED.

It is believed that the principles of the Poor Laws are nearly the same in this country as in England. In both, it seems to be held that the poor are entitled to the means of subsistence, and in both it seems to be required that there should be actual want of the necessities of life, and an inability to obtain them by means of personal labour. In the cases of the very young and the very old, of those who are disabled by sickness or accident, and of those who are disordered in mind, the rule is to give relief as a matter of course, where those who are by law bound to provide for them are unable to do so. Where there is an ability to work, the law of this State contemplates that the applicants for relief shall be furnished with materials for the purpose, and not with money or provisions; but the difficulties in the way of setting to work all who apply for relief have at some seasons been so great, that the guardians have been compelled to depart from this rule.

III. OF THE MANNER IN WHICH IT IS ADMINISTERED.

The provisions of the law already stated furnish, it is believed, sufficient information on this point, so far, at least, as respects the general rules.

There are some local laws varying the mode of administration; but the writer does not possess sufficient information to be able to state their operation or effect.

IV. AMOUNT AND MODE OF RAISING THE FUNDS DEVOTED TO THIS PURPOSE.

The mode has already been shown, in stating the provisions of the law on this subject.

The amount raised throughout the State cannot be ascertained at present. No general returns are required by law, and no means exist of procuring the information. In the country

country districts in general the expenditure for the support of the poor is believed to be very small. In some townships it has happened that the fines or penalties paid for the use of the poor have so much exceeded the demands for relief, that the Legislature has directed the surplus to be applied to the repair of the roads. The demand for labour being in almost all parts of the State greater than the supply, there are few applicants for relief, excepting the old and sick, or disabled. In the city of Philadelphia and a few other of the principal towns the case is somewhat different. The amount of money raised for the support of the poor in Philadelphia for certain years is stated in the Tables subjoined. It will be seen that previously to the year 1828, when the improved system was introduced, the poor-rates were very large and rapidly increasing. Since the introduction of the new system the amount has been considerably reduced, though the population has greatly increased.

V. PRACTICAL WORKING AND EFFECT OF THE ACTUAL SYSTEM UPON THE
COMFORT, CHARACTER AND CONDITION OF THE INHABITANTS.

This is an inquiry of so comprehensive a nature, that a satisfactory answer would savour more of a treatise than of the brief reply which has been given to the other points of interrogatory, and after all, would be more a matter of speculation than of authoritative conclusion.

In the country districts generally, it may be doubted whether the Poor Laws have as yet produced any decided effect upon the condition or character of the inhabitants, because the circumstances already adverted to have kept the people generally in sufficient and profitable employment. It may be added, too, that the emigration which is constantly going on to the new lands in the west tends to prevent any accumulation of the labouring population in any particular districts, and thus lessens the tendency to a pressure upon the poor-rates, while it furnishes a sufficient answer to applications for relief, when made by able-bodied persons. If there be, then, in the Poor Laws a tendency to produce or increase the evils they were intended to mitigate, as has frequently been suggested by persons abroad, there are counteracting circumstances in the rural districts of this country, which prevent at least such a tendency being developed. The same remarks may be made, with some qualifications, however, of the operation of the Poor Laws in the cities and principal towns, where the labouring population is collected into masses, and is more liable to vicissitudes of employment. That there is a considerable number of persons in Philadelphia and its neighbourhood who rely upon the guardians of the poor for relief, when disabled or out of employment, is probably true, and it may be true that the tendency of the system is to produce improvidence and aversion from industry in some of these persons; but such are in general the returns and rewards of industry in almost every occupation, that the prospect of deriving any advantages from the Poor Laws does not, it is believed, affect any considerable portion of the population, even in the cities.

The subjoined Tables contain all the returns which are accessible to the present writer.

They show that a considerable increase in the amount of the funds raised for the support of the poor has taken place within 30 years; but the population has more than doubled itself within that period; and other causes, besides the provisions for relief, may have contributed to enlarge the number of paupers.

Philadelphia, January 1834.

AMOUNT of FUNDS raised by TAXES for the SUPPORT of the POOR in the City of
Philadelphia, and the Suburbs thereof, in the following years:

Years.		Dollars.		Population.
1803	- -	75,262	- -	67,811
1820	- -	140,793	- -	113,323
1830	- -	80,560	- -	159,443
1831	- -	91,828	- -	—
*1832	- -	139,871	- -	—

AMOUNT expended for the SUPPORT of the POOR in the same Districts, in the
following years:

Years.	Almshouse.	Out-door Poor.	Children's Asylum.
1821	\$40,903	\$50,061	\$4,289
1822	42,670	41,071	5,221
1823	47,607	45,939	7,498
1824	45,058	56,399	11,316
1825	36,877	47,561	8,092
1826	37,309	38,957	7,034
1827	43,794	42,271	9,940
1828	46,672	30,214	6,824
1831	50,610	23,695	6,263
1832	64,894	27,234	6,060

* In this year \$ 17,500 were required for interest on the loan obtained for the erection of the new almshouse.

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EXTRACT from the "Fourth Report of the Commissioners appointed to revise the Civil Code of *Pennsylvania*, accompanied with Bills and Remarks.

A BILL entitled "An ACT relating to the SUPPORT and EMPLOYMENT of the POOR."

Remarks on the Bill entitled "*An Act relating to the Support and Employment of the Poor.*"

THE bill now submitted relates to a subject which is of considerable importance and interest to the public. The question of the expediency of compulsory provision for the support of the poor is admitted on all hands to be one of great magnitude and difficulty. Eminent and enlightened men on both sides of the Atlantic have differed in their conclusion respecting it; and powerful arguments have been urged in favour of, and against the continuance of the system, which has prevailed for at least three centuries in England, and, with few material alterations, has been naturalized in this country. If we believed that it fell within our province to recommend to the Legislature the total abandonment of the system, we have very great doubts whether, even looking at it merely as a question of political philosophy, we should deem such a course advisable. But, whatever might be our individual opinions on the subject, we believe that our authority does not extend so far as to justify us in proposing radical changes in laws of this nature. That there are defects, however, in the system, and abuses in its practice, seems to be agreed on all hands, and these it has been our business to consider, to supply or to remove.

The principal objections to the law, as it is administered, are founded upon the relief sometimes given to *able-bodied persons*, and upon the provision relating to *settlement*.

1. We believe that the design of the law is to furnish support to those who are unable to find the means of support for themselves. There must be *inability*, but this inability may be physical or intellectual, or it may arise from circumstances independent of either. Actual bodily infirmity or derangement of mind, preventing bodily labour, entitle the individual to relief, both in the way of maintenance and clothing, and in medical treatment, at the expense of the public, where he is without the means. This seems to be generally admitted. But suppose a poor man to be able and willing to work, but unable to find employment in the place where he lives, has he any claim to assistance? This is denied by many, who argue that there is no natural right to aid under such circumstances, and that the consequences of admitting the claim would be the destruction of industry, and eventually of individual property. It is certain that in England great inconveniences are experienced from the pressure of this part of the community upon the poor rates, which have risen to an amount unexampled in history, and enormous, even in comparison with the great wealth of that country. The practice in many parts of England appears to have been to supply able-bodied persons with relief in money or provisions, and sometimes to add to their wages out of the poor-rates; the almost necessary consequence of which appears to be the discouragement of regular industry, and the multiplication of sturdy paupers. These abuses, however, prove nothing against the validity of the claim of a pauper to employment as the means of obtaining subsistence for himself and family. We are not prepared to say that if a poor man is thrown out of employment in a particular trade or branch of business, his only alternative is to emigrate to some place more favourable to the pursuit of his calling. We think that, for a time at least, he has a right to assistance of some kind, and we are not sure that the interests of the district are not promoted by encouraging labourers to remain in it and apply themselves to some other branch of industry, likely to yield a return. But the assistance, which an able-bodied man is entitled to receive under such circumstances, is not assistance in *money* but in *employment*. If work, and an amount of work, fully equal to that which is performed by men in the like employment, who are not paupers, be bestowed and required, there is little danger, we submit, of encouraging idleness and improvidence. A well-managed house of employment will seldom afford much attraction for the idle and profligate, although it may be useful as a refuge for the honest poor, and as an example to all. We cannot agree, therefore, with those who would, under all circumstances, confine the aid of the overseers of the poor to the infirm and helpless. But in every case in which there is an ability to work and an inability to obtain work, we would give relief *in work*, and in that alone, and, as the discretion is liable to abuse, we think that it should be expressly restricted. We have been guided by these principles in drawing the first six sections of the bill, which will be the subject of more particular remark hereafter.

2. Many persons have expressed opinions adverse to the restriction of relief to persons having a *settlement* in the particular district, and contend that, upon the whole, it is prejudicial to industry, by preventing the circulation of labour, and confining it altogether to the place of origin. It is said that if relief were administered without regard to the place of settlement of the pauper, labourers would be more likely to resort to those parts of the country in which there was a demand for labour, and thus a deficiency in one district, and an excess in another, would be corrected, and a proper level maintained. The evidence recently taken by the commissioners appointed under the authority of the British Parliament, to investigate the pauper system of that country, and which we have had an opportunity of examining, certainly shows that, in many parts of England, labourers are restrained from removing from particular parishes, where they are unable to find employment, by the apprehension that if they should want relief in the parish to which they would otherwise remove, they would be denied it, in consequence of the law of settlement.

Nevertheless, we are not satisfied of the expediency of altering the law in this particular. If a settlement could be acquired by *birth* only, and relief were given in the place of nativity alone, it would, in some parts of our country, render the poor laws almost inoperative, and in all of them would certainly raise strong objections to the doctrine of settlement. But, in point of fact, a settlement is gained upon such easy terms, under our law, that it can hardly be said to impose much restraint upon the circulation of labour with a population like ours. In the ninth section of the bill we have collected the several provisions of the Act of 1771, declaring in what manner a settlement may be gained; and it will be seen that the terms upon which a settlement may be obtained are by no means difficult. But what would be the effect of repealing all provisions in relation to settlement, and declaring that relief should be given to every person requiring it within the district, without regard to birth or residence? We fear the change would not be for the better: if the mere circumstance of inhabitancy is to entitle the pauper to relief, a single day's residence may be sufficient for the purpose: it will not be necessary that the district called upon for relief should

have

have had the benefit of an hour's labour from the pauper. He may have spent the prime of his life in one township, and advanced its prosperity by his personal labour; and, if the restraints of settlement be abolished, that township will be under no obligation to maintain him, unless he be an inhabitant at the time he has become chargeable. We believe that the effect would be to cause an influx of paupers into such districts as happen to be better provided, according to their views of comfort, and to produce constant attempts at fraud, by overseers as well as paupers.

It was with a view to obviate the tendency in the law of settlement to restrain the circulation of labour that the provisions relative to *certificates* were introduced. Owing to the peculiar circumstances of our country, they have never been much attended to in practice; but we believe that the effect of their general adoption would be beneficial in counteracting the inconveniences which have been mentioned.

The situation of these States is a peculiar one in respect to paupers. In *Pennsylvania*, we are called upon to support not only those who have gained a settlement in the Commonwealth, but also persons arriving from foreign countries and the other States. With respect to the first, the question of settlement is at present of little consequence, because there seems to be no available means of enforcing it. No matter from what part of Europe they may come, it is not easy to return them; and they must be supported for the time being, if in want, in the district where they happen to be.

As respects the able-bodied European labourers, we think that there is no peculiar hardship upon our community, if they are required to furnish relief to them, after they have become disabled by sickness, age or accident, in our employment. They have earned a title to support by their labour; and our public and private works in every part of the State bear evidence of the value of their labour. It would, we think, be great injustice to deny relief to persons so situated. But a class of persons has recently been landed on our shores whom we are under no such obligations to receive or support. It is believed that some of the municipal officers in foreign countries have lately shipped off to this country whole cargoes of infirm or profligate paupers, the tenants of their almshouses and refuse of their population, finding it cheaper to pay their passage here than to support them at home. The burthen of their support is thus thrown upon us immediately upon their landing; and our own community is, besides, infected with moral and physical disorders brought over by them. We think that some decided effort should be made to prevent a continuance of this practice. It is time that Acts of Assembly have been passed, exacting payment of a certain sum for each passenger brought from a foreign country to the port of Philadelphia, and requiring security to be given that such passenger shall not become a charge; but these laws are constantly evaded by entering the vessel in some port of an adjoining State and landing the passengers there, who immediately proceed to this State. We are preparing a bill, with a view of remedying this evil, as far as the power of our Legislature, without the co-operation of Congress and the adjoining States, will permit.

With respect to paupers from other States the case is somewhat different. It is true that there is no convenient tribunal for the adjudication of questions arising under the law of settlement; but it is believed that some international regulations may be made with advantage on this subject. In the 29th section of this bill, we have suggested a proposition which, if adopted by the Legislature, may lay the foundation of a satisfactory system. But supposing that the rule of settlement might be conveniently abandoned, with reference to the internal economy of the State, how would the change work as respects other States who would retain the restriction? The consequence would be, that we should have the burthen of many of their paupers and of all of our own, since they would not support them. This would be an inequality, which only a very clear case of expediency in other respects would call upon us to sustain. We think, therefore, that the repeal of the restrictions relative to settlement would be likely to produce more evil than good.

There are other difficulties in the way of any suggestions on our part of material changes in the poor laws. We have been met at the outset of this and other matters of municipal regulation by local and temporary laws, which our commission does not authorize us to touch. In the city of Philadelphia and its vicinity, for example, the system is, in many important respects, different from that which prevails in other parts of the Commonwealth. We have reason to believe that the alterations made by the Act of 1828, in the administration of the poor laws for that district, have produced valuable results; at all events, difference of circumstances will probably prevent an assimilation of the laws for urban and rural districts. In some counties poor-houses have been established, and the poor are maintained at the charge of the county. This is the case in 16 counties out of the 52. We believe that the public interest would be promoted by making this system general, as experience has shown that the poor can be more economically supported in a general house of employment than by separate or individual relief. There are many other reasons in favour of this mode of administering assistance which might be suggested, if we were not apprehensive of too much enlarging the bulk of this report. We have not, however, felt ourselves at liberty to propose so thorough a change in the law as would follow from the general establishment of county poor-houses, believing that it would be better to leave it to the judgment of the people of the several counties, and that perhaps the alteration ought to be made by degrees, and not in all the counties at once. Besides, the situation of the several counties in respect to population and culture is so different as to render the measure less expedient in some than in others. However this may be, the variety of local provisions, which we are not authorized to disturb, would, perhaps, be sufficient to prevent the adoption of some of the suggestions which have recently been made for the alteration of the poor-laws.

We may be permitted, however, to suggest one alteration of the present law, of considerable importance. In Massachusetts and New York, and perhaps in some other States, paupers who have no settlement in the State are relieved at the expense of the State. In this commonwealth, the burthen falls upon the particular district in which the pauper may happen to be. This often occasions considerable expense to certain counties or places from which others are exempt. The construction of a bridge or canal, for instance, will draw to a particular neighbourhood a large number of labourers, many of whom may have no settlement in the State. If disabled by sickness or accident, they must be relieved by the township in which they became disabled, although their labour was employed for the benefit of the State or county, as the case may be, and not for the benefit of the township alone. If provision were made for the payment of the expenses incurred by the township in such case out of the county, or perhaps the State treasury, we think that it would

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be more just, and that the unhappy labourer would be more likely to obtain adequate relief than if left to the scanty resources of a single township. A case which is stated in the 2d volume of the Pennsylvania Reports, (*Overseers v. M'Coy*, p. 432), in which it appeared, that a person employed as a labourer on the State Canal, and who was severely wounded in the course of his employment, was passed from one township to another, in consequence of the disinclination to incur the expense of supporting him, until he died of the injury received, shows in a strong light the inconvenience and perils of the present system respecting casual paupers, and may serve to excuse our calling the attention of the legislature to the subject.

We proceed to make such brief remarks on the several sections of the bill now submitted as will, in addition to what has been already said, explain our reasons for any alterations that have been made.

Sections 1 and 2 are new in terms, but are contained in substance in the Act of 9th March 1771, (1 Smith, 332). The 2d section limits the power of giving relief, in the case of an able-bodied person, to the circumstance of his inability to obtain employment. We have already suggested, that we consider it inexpedient to encourage applications in such cases, and we think that relief ought to be granted only in cases of ascertained destitution.

Section 3 is suggested for similar reasons. No such provision exists at present; but it appears to us, that the power here given of employing able-bodied labourers on the roads or public works, will be of service to the township, and tend to lessen the disposition to apply for relief. If the labourer should find the employment an irksome one, he will have the option of abandoning it, and seeking support by other means.

Section 4 is derived from the 4th section of the Act of 1771.

Section 5 declares the duty of overseers with respect to persons not having a settlement in the district. It is somewhat singular, (as is remarked by Judge Huston in the case already mentioned of *Overseers v. M'Coy*, 2 Penn. Rep. 434,) that there is no direct provision to this effect in the existing law, though several passages seem to assume it. "If a pauper has no settlement in the State, the expense of maintenance remains on the township in which he was when he required relief. Our courts have always so considered it, and I believe so has every other person."—(*Id.* p. 435). We think it right that the duty should be stated in express terms, to prevent any doubt or evasion, although, as we have already suggested, we think that the expense should be reimbursed to the district by the county or the Commonwealth.

Section 6 is taken, with little alteration, from the 9th section of the Act of 1771.

Section 7 is derived from the 5th section of the Act of 1771.

Section 8 is derived from the 8th section of the Act of 1771.

Section 9 declares the several methods by which a settlement may be gained, which are here collected from the 17th and 18th sections of the Act of 1771, and arranged in distinct order. We have made no alteration of substance in this part of the Act. We may remark, that the object being to declare how a settlement may be gained, we have not spoken of a settlement by birth, which takes place of course in every case, unless there be a provision by law to the contrary, as in section 11, *post*.

Section 10 is taken from 19th section of the Act of 1771.

Section 11 is new as a general provision, although it is in substance contained in the 16th section of the Act of 5th March 1828, relating to the city of Philadelphia and the adjoining districts. The general rule being that all persons are settled in the place of their birth, illegitimate children are of course entitled to the benefits of it; but this has been found to produce inconvenience by the practice of women going out of the township to be delivered, and thus casting the burthen of supporting these illegitimate children upon another township. The extension over the State of this provision in the local law will tend to equalize the burthen, which might otherwise be unduly thrown upon the country districts, and will, it is believed, be acceptable to the people.

Section 12 is taken from the 2d section of the Act of 24th March 1803, (4 Smith, 30.)

Sections 13, 14 and 15 are derived from the 25th section of the Act of 1771, with such verbal alterations as are rendered necessary by the political changes consequent upon the Declaration of Independence.

Sections 16 and 17 are derived from the 20th section of the Act of 1771, with similar alterations.

Section 18 is copied from the 21st section of the Act of 1771, with similar alterations.

Section 19 is taken from the 22d section of the Act of 1771.

Section 20 contains a provision which is not to be found in terms in the law; and though the case probably does not often occur, in which the overseers are called upon to separate a wife from her husband, yet it may happen, as in the instance in section 10, *ante*, of a husband having no known settlement; and ought to be provided for.

Section 21 is derived from the 26th section of the Act of 1771.

Section 22 is taken from the 23d section of the Act of 1771.

Sections 23, 24 and 25 are derived from the 24th section of the Act of 1771, with certain alterations in the 25th section respecting the proceedings to obtain payment of costs from overseers.

The original provision seems to contemplate a personal liability on the part of the overseers, with which we think they ought not to be visited, for a fair performance of their duty. In the bill relating to counties and townships, we have suggested a mode of proceeding to obtain payment of sums due by township officers, to which this section is intended to refer.

Section 26 is derived from the 27th section of the Act of 1771, with alterations relative to the mode of proceeding against overseers, similar to those mentioned in our remarks on the last section.

Section 27 is taken from the 28th section of the Act of 1771.

Sections 28 and 29 are new. The provision contained in the 28th section, however, has already been made in New York, in nearly the same words, (1 N. Y. Rev. Laws, p. 630, § 64,) and we think that the principle of self-defence, if no other, authorizes its adoption here. We have already made some remarks upon the inconveniences which arise from the want of some common authority or rule to determine controversies between adjoining States, relative to paupers. Our tribunals and officers having, of course, no extra-territorial authority, their legal power does not enable them to remove to another State a pauper who may be brought into this State and left here, with the view of throwing the expense upon us. The consequence is, that the township into which he is brought must relieve him or suffer him to perish. The penalty imposed by the New York law applies to all cases, whether the pauper belongs to that State or otherwise, and our own overseers or other officers

officers who should attempt to return to them a pauper put upon us from New York, would incur the risk of prosecution. Now we think that this inequality ought not to be permitted to exist, and that our own officers and people are entitled to protection; which, as far as it can be given at present, must be by means of prevention and counteraction. This section, therefore, is suggested for the purpose of meeting the legislation of another State, and preventing the introduction of their paupers among us, whom we are not permitted to return. But as it is always desirable to avoid collision of authority, and to produce uniformity of legislation among the States, we have suggested, in the 29th section, a proviso, which may open the door to a satisfactory arrangement of the subject.

Section 30 is taken from the 1st section of the Act of 2d April 1821, (7 Smith, 480,) intituled, "An Act to prevent the increase of Pauperism in this Commonwealth." We have, in place of the "&c." contained in the original Act, introduced the words "support and interment," which we presume was the intention of the Legislature.

Section 31 is taken from the 6th section of the Act of 1st March 1780, (1 Smith, 492,) intituled, "An Act for the gradual Abolition of Slavery."

Section 32 is derived from the 29th section of the Act of 1771. We have added "grandchildren" to the enumeration of persons under legal obligation to relieve and maintain poor relations, conceiving that, as grand-parents were already bound to support grandchildren, the obligation ought to be reciprocal. We have authority for this addition, besides, in the 29th section of the Act of 29th March 1803, (4 Smith, 50,) relating to the poor of the city of Philadelphia, &c.

Sections 33, 34 and 35 are taken from the 30th section of the Act of 1771, with little alteration of substance.

Section 36 is compiled from the 1st section of the Act of 21st February 1767, (1 Smith, 268,) which enumerates certain classes of persons whom it declares to be liable to the penalties of vagrancy. We have thought it appropriate to the bill, and have introduced as a third class, all persons who shall refuse to perform the work allotted to them by the overseers. The remaining provisions of the Act of 1767 will be compiled under another head.

Section 37 is taken from the Act of 29th March 1819, (7 Smith, 206,) with some alterations, suggested for the purpose of defining more clearly the authority of overseers and directors in the subject matter.

Section 38 is taken from the Act of 18th January 1821, (7 Smith, 347,) with some slight alterations. We have added a clause, requiring a copy of the accounts to be annually transmitted to the governor, to be by him laid before the Legislature. It has been suggested to us that this provision will probably be productive of valuable statistical information, and serve as an additional check upon the officers, and also as a guide to future Legislatures.

Section 39 is derived from the 1st section of the Act of 4th April 1803, with some alterations, the design of which is to obtain immediate payment from justices of the peace.

Section 40 is derived from the 2d section of the same Act.

Section 41 is compiled from the 1st and 6th sections of the same Act.

Section 42 is derived from the 4th section of the same Act.

Section 43 and 44 are derived from the 6th section of the same Act.

Section 45 is taken from the Act of 20th February 1804, (4 Smith, 133.)

Section 46 contains a general provision compiled from several provisions in the Act of 1771.

Section 47 is taken from the 31st section of the Act of 1771.

Section 48 is taken from the 32d section of the Act of 1771.

Section 49 defines the word "district," which has been used throughout this bill, to save the necessity of repeating the words "township, borough," &c. It also contains the exceptions which we have found it necessary to make of local provision.

CONTENTS of the Bill entitled "An Act relating to the SUPPORT and EMPLOYMENT of the Poor."

Section 1. Overseers to provide for poor persons having a settlement in the district.

Section 2. If the pauper be able to work, the overseers to provide work for him, &c.

Section 3. Overseers may employ able-bodied paupers on the roads, &c.

Section 4. If pauper be unable to work, the overseers to provide him with the necessary means of subsistence.

Section 5. Overseers to furnish relief to paupers not having a settlement in the district, until they can be removed.

Section 6. No person to be entered in the poor-book, or relieved, without an order from two magistrates, under a penalty.

Section 7. Overseers may contract for the support and employment of paupers, &c.

Section 8. Overseers may put out poor children as apprentices.

Section 9. How a settlement may be gained.

Section 10. Settlement of married women.

Section 11. Settlement of illegitimate children.

Section 12. Effects of the division of a township.

Section 13. Housekeepers, on receiving persons who have not gained a legal settlement, to give notice.

Section 14. Housekeepers failing to give such notice, liable for the maintenance, &c. of such person.

Section 15. Overseers authorized to recover the same.

Section 16. Persons removing from one place to another, to deliver certificate and effect thereof.

Section 17. Form of such certificate, &c.

Section 18. No person, without such certificate, to gain a settlement, unless he shall give security, &c.

Section 19. Overseers may remove persons likely to become chargeable to the place of their settlement.

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- Section 20. Wives not to be separated from their husbands by virtue of any order of removal.
 Section 21. Overseers, &c. to receive every person duly removed, and penalty for refusing.
 Section 22. Appeal from order of removal to the quarter sessions.
 Section 23. Court may order costs, &c. on appeals.
 Section 24. How costs to be collected in case of an individual.
 Section 25. Proceedings to recover costs in case of overseers.
 Section 26. If any poor person shall fall sick, not having a settlement, and be relieved, the expense may be recovered from the overseers of the place where he was last settled.
 Section 27. Appeal to the sessions on refusal of a magistrate to grant an order of removal.
 Section 28. Penalty on any person bringing a pauper from any place out of this Commonwealth.
 Section 29. Proviso, if it shall be lawful, by the laws of any other State, to remove paupers there.
 Section 30. Every person bringing any black or mulatto servant, above 28 years old, into the State, to be liable for his support, &c.
 Section 31. Owners of negro slaves to be liable for their support, &c.
 Section 32. Parents and grand-parents, children and grandchildren liable to the support of pauper relations.
 Section 33. In case of desertion by husband or wife, warrant to be issued by magistrates.
 Section 34. On the return of the warrant, security to be taken.
 Section 35. Powers of the quarter sessions in such case.
 Section 36. Certain described persons declared to be liable to the penalties imposed upon vagrants.
 Section 37. Overseers and directors of the poor to recover property of a pauper, and how it is to be applied.
 Section 38. Directors of the poor to publish and render annual statements of their accounts, &c.
 Section 39. Justices of the peace to make a record of every fine, &c. received, and deliver transcript to constable, &c.
 Section 40. Penalty for failing to perform the duty, or pay monies, &c.
 Section 41. Overseers to demand fines from justices.
 Section 42. Clerks of courts, by whom fines imposed, to deliver notice of the same to constables.
 Section 43. Constables to deliver transcripts, &c. to overseers, and penalty for failing to do so.
 Section 44. Sheriff receiving fines, &c. for the use of the poor, to pay over to overseers, and penalty for failing to do so.
 Section 45. If there be no poor in a district, or an unexpended balance, overseers to pay to supervisors, except in certain cases.
 Section 46. Penalty on overseers failing to perform their duties.
 Section 47. How penalties recovered.
 Section 48. Appeal to the quarter sessions from the judgment of any one or more magistrates.
 Section 49. Definition of the word "district," and saving as to all local and special provisions.

AN ACT relating to the SUPPORT and EMPLOYMENT of the POOR.

It is enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, in General Assembly met, as follows :

Section 1. It shall be the duty of the overseers of every district, from time to time, to provide, as is hereinafter directed, for every poor person within the district, having a settlement therein, who shall apply to them for relief.

Section 2. If such poor person be able to work, but cannot find employment, it shall be the duty of the overseers to provide work for him, according to his ability, and for this purpose they shall procure suitable places and a sufficient stock of materials.

Section 3. It shall be lawful for the overseers of any district, with the concurrence and under the directions of the supervisors of the township, to employ any such poor person, being a male, of sufficient ability, in opening or repairing any road or highway within the district.

Section 4. If such poor person, by reason of age, disease, infirmity, or other disability, be unable to work, it shall be the duty of the overseers to provide him with the necessary means of subsistence.

Section 5. It shall also be the duty of the overseers of every district to furnish relief to every poor person within the district, not having a settlement therein, who shall apply to them for relief, until such person can be removed to the place of his settlement.

Section 6. No person shall be entered on the poor book of any district, or receive relief from any overseers, before such person, or some one in his behalf, shall have procured an order from two magistrates of the county for the same; and in case any overseer shall enter in the poor book, or relieve any such poor person without such order, he shall forfeit a sum equal to the amount or value given, unless such entry or relief shall be approved of by two magistrates as aforesaid.

Section 7. It shall be lawful for the overseers of every district to contract with any person for a house or lodging, for keeping, maintaining and employing such poor persons of the district as shall be adjudged proper objects of relief, and there to keep, maintain and employ such poor persons, and to receive the benefit of their work and labour, for and towards their maintenance and support; and if any poor person shall refuse to be kept and employed in such house, he shall not be entitled to receive relief from the overseers during such refusal.

Section 8. It shall be lawful for the overseers of every district, with the approbation and consent of two or more magistrates of the same county, to put out as apprentices all poor children whose parents are dead, or by the said magistrates found to be unable to maintain them; males to the age of 21, and females to the age of 18 years.

Section 9. A settlement may be gained in any district :

1. By any person who shall come to inhabit in the same, and who shall, for himself and on his own account, execute any public office, being legally placed therein during one whole year.

2. By any such person who shall be charged with and pay his proportion of any public taxes or levies for two years successively;

3. By

3. By any person who shall, *bonâ fide*, take a lease of any real estate of the yearly value of 30 dollars, and shall dwell upon the same for one whole year, and pay the said rent.

4. By any person who shall become seised of any freehold estate within such district, and who shall dwell upon the same for one whole year.

5. By any unmarried person, not having a child, who shall be lawfully bound or hired as a servant within such district, and shall continue in such service during one whole year.

6. By any person who shall be duly bound an apprentice by indenture, and shall inhabit in the district, with his master or mistress, for one whole year.

7. By any indented servant, legally and directly imported from Europe into this Commonwealth, who shall serve for the space of 60 days in the district into which he shall first come; Provided, that if such servant shall afterwards duly serve in any other district for the space of 12 months, either with his first employer or his assignee, he shall obtain a legal settlement in such other district.

8. By any mariner coming into this Commonwealth, and by any other healthy person coming directly from a foreign country into the same, if such mariner or other person shall reside for the space of 12 months in the district in which he shall first settle and reside.

Section 10. Every married woman shall be deemed during coverture, and after her husband's death, to be settled in the place where he was last settled; but if he shall have no known settlement, then she shall be deemed, whether he be living or dead, to be settled in the place where she was last settled before her marriage.

Section 11. Every illegitimate child shall be deemed to be settled in the place where the mother was legally settled at the time of the birth of such child.

Section 12. If the last place of settlement of any person who shall have become chargeable shall be in any township which shall have been divided by the authority of laws, such person shall be supported by that township within the territory of which he resided at the time of gaining such settlement.

Section 13. It shall be the duty of every housekeeper who shall receive into his house any person who has not gained a legal settlement in some part of this Commonwealth, (all mariners coming into this Commonwealth, and every other healthy person coming from a foreign country immediately into this Commonwealth, only excepted,) within ten days after receiving such person, to give notice thereof in writing to the overseers of the proper district.

Section 14. If any housekeeper shall fail to give notice as aforesaid, and if the person so received shall become poor and unable to maintain himself, and cannot be removed to the place of his last legal settlement in any other State, if any such he hath, such housekeeper shall be obliged to provide for and maintain such poor person; and in case of the death of such poor person, without leaving wherewithal to defray the expenses of his funeral, such housekeeper shall pay the overseers so much as they shall reasonably expend for such purpose.

Section 15. If such housekeeper shall refuse to pay the charges aforesaid, the overseers shall assess upon him the amount necessary to maintain such poor person weekly, or such sum as shall be necessary to pay such funeral charges, and shall have power to collect the same by warrant of distress; but if such delinquent shall have no goods or chattels liable to distress, he may be committed to gaol, there to remain, without bail or mainprize, until he shall have paid the same or shall be otherwise legally discharged.

Section 16. If any person shall remove from any city or district within this Commonwealth into any other district, there to reside, and shall at the same time deliver to the overseers of the district where he shall come to reside a certificate such as is hereinafter mentioned, such certificate shall oblige the city or district from which he may remove to provide for the person named in such certificate, together with his family, as inhabitants thereof, whenever he shall be obliged to ask relief of the district to which such certificate was given, and into which he was received by virtue thereof; and then, and not before, it shall be lawful for such person and his children, though born in such district, and his servants or apprentices, not having otherwise acquired a settlement there, to be removed to the city or district from which such certificate was brought; and no person so coming by certificate into any district, nor any apprentice or servant to such person, shall be deemed or adjudged, by any act whatever, to have gained a settlement therein, unless he shall after the date of such certificate execute some public annual office, being legally placed therein, in such district.

Section 17. The certificate, to be delivered as aforesaid to the overseers of the district into which such person shall remove, shall be under the hands and seal of the guardian or overseer of the poor of the city or district from which he removed, acknowledging the person therein named to be an inhabitant legally settled in such city or district, and shall be attested by two or more credible witnesses, and allowed of and subscribed by at least one of the magistrates of the proper city or county; and the witnesses, or one of them, by whom such certificate shall be attested shall make oath or affirmation, according to law, before such magistrate, that such witnesses or witness did see the overseers whose names and seals are hereunto set severally sign and seal the said certificate, and that the names of such witnesses or witness are in their or his proper handwriting; and the said magistrate shall certify that the proof was duly made before him; and every such certificate, so proved before and allowed by such magistrate, shall be received in evidence without other proof thereof.

Section 18. No person who shall come into any district without such certificate (mariners and other healthy persons coming from foreign countries as aforesaid excepted) shall gain a settlement therein, unless such person shall give security, if required, at his coming into the same, for indemnifying such district; which security shall be approved and allowed by some magistrate of the county.

Section 19. On complaint made by the overseers of any district to one of the magistrates of the same county, it shall be lawful for the said magistrate, with any other magistrate of the county, where any person is likely to become chargeable to such district, into which he shall come, by their warrant or order directed to such overseers, to remove such person to the city, district or State where he was last legally settled, unless such person shall give sufficient security to indemnify such district to which he is likely to become chargeable as aforesaid.

Section 20. Provided, that it shall not be lawful, by virtue of any order of removal, to separate any wife from her husband.

Section 21. It shall be the duty of the guardians or overseers of the city or district to which such

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poor person may be removed, by warrant or order as aforesaid, to receive such poor person; and if any such guardian or overseer shall refuse or neglect so to do, he shall forfeit for every such offence the sum of 20 dollars, to be recovered as hereinafter provided, and applied to the use of the poor of the district from which such poor person may be removed as aforesaid.

Section 22. Provided always, that any person aggrieved by any such order of removal may appeal to the next court of quarter sessions for the county from which such poor person may be removed, and not elsewhere; and if there be any defect of form in such order, the said court shall cause the same to be amended, without costs to the party, and after such amendment, if the same be necessary, shall proceed to hear and determine the cause upon its truth and merits; but no such cause shall be proceeded in unless reasonable notice shall have been given by the party appellant to the overseers of the district from which the removal shall have been made; the reasonableness of which notice shall be determined by the said court, at the session to which the appeal may be made; and if it shall appear to them that reasonable notice was not given, they shall adjourn the appeal to their next session, and then determine the same.

Section 23. For the more effectual preventing of vexatious removals and frivolous appeals, the court of quarter sessions, upon every appeal in a case of settlement, or upon proof being made before them of notice thereof as aforesaid (though the appeal be not afterwards prosecuted,) shall, at the same session, order to the party in whose behalf such appeal shall be determined, or to whom such notice did appear to have been given, such costs and charges as the said court shall consider reasonable and just, to be paid by the overseers, or other person against whom such appeal shall be determined, or by the person that gave such notice; and if the court shall determine in favour of the appellant, that such poor person was unduly removed, they shall at the same session, on demand, award to such appellant so much money as shall appear to them to have been reasonably paid by the city or district appellant towards the relief of such poor person between the time of such undue removal and the determination of such appeal, with costs as aforesaid.

Section 24. If any person, ordered to pay costs or charges as aforesaid, other than overseers as aforesaid, shall live out of the jurisdiction of such court, it shall be the duty of any magistrate of the county in which such person shall reside, on request to him made, and on the production of a copy of such order, certified under the seal of such court, to issue his warrant to levy the same by distress, and if no sufficient distress can be had, to commit such party to the common gaol, there to remain, without bail or mainprize, until such costs or money be paid, or until he be otherwise legally discharged.

Section 25. If any overseers be ordered to pay costs or charges as aforesaid, and the township liable therefor be out of the jurisdiction of such court, it shall be the duty of the court of quarter sessions of the county in which such township is situate, on request to them made, and on the production of a copy of such order, certified under the seal of the court making the same, to compel payment of such costs and charges according to law.

Section 26. If any poor person shall come out of any city or district in this Commonwealth into any other district, and shall happen to fall sick or die, before he have gained a settlement therein, so that he cannot be removed, the overseers of such district shall, as soon as conveniently may be, give notice to the guardians or overseers of the city or district where such person had last gained a settlement, or to one of them, of the name, circumstances and condition of such poor person; and if the guardians or overseers to whom such notice shall be given shall neglect or refuse to pay the monies expended for the use of such poor person, and to take order for relieving and maintaining him, or in case of his death before such notice could be given, shall, on request made, neglect or refuse to pay the monies expended in maintaining and burying such poor person, in every such case it shall be the duty of the court of quarter sessions of the county where such poor person was last settled, upon complaint to them made, to compel payment by such guardians or overseers of all such sums of money as were necessarily expended for such purpose, in the manner directed by law in the case of a judgment obtained against overseers.

Section 27. If any magistrate shall refuse to grant a warrant or order of removal as aforesaid, it shall be lawful for the overseers aggrieved by such refusal to appeal to the next court of quarter sessions of the county in which such magistrate resides, who shall thereupon hear and finally determine the same.

Section 28. If any person shall bring, or cause to be brought, any poor person from any place without this Commonwealth to any place within it, and there leave or attempt to leave such person, he shall forfeit and pay the sum of 75 dollars for every such poor person, to be sued for and recovered by the overseers of the district into which such poor person may have been brought; and moreover, shall be obliged to convey such poor person out of the Commonwealth, or support him at his own expense.

Section 29. Provided, that if by the laws of any other State it shall be lawful to remove from this Commonwealth to such other State any poor person having a settlement in such other State, then and in such case it shall be lawful for the competent authority to remove from such other State into this Commonwealth any poor person having a settlement in this Commonwealth.

Section 30. If any person shall bring, or cause to be brought, into this Commonwealth, any black or coloured indented servant, above the age of 28 years, such person, his heirs, executors, administrators and assigns, shall respectively be liable to the guardians or overseers of the city or district to which such black or coloured person shall become chargeable for such necessary expenses as such guardians or overseers may be put to for his maintenance, support and interment, together with the costs thereon.

Section 31. Every person in whom the ownership or right to the service of any negro or mulatto slave shall be vested shall be liable, to the overseers of the district in which such negro or mulatto shall become chargeable, for all expenses which such overseers may be put to for the maintenance, support and interment of such negro or mulatto, with the costs thereon.

Section 32. The father and grandfather, and the mother and grandmother, and the children and grandchildren of every poor person not able to work, shall at their own charge, being of sufficient ability, relieve and maintain such poor person, at such rate as the court of quarter sessions of the county where such poor person resides shall order and direct, on pain of forfeiting a sum not exceeding 20 dollars for every month they shall fail therein; which shall be levied by the process of the said court, and applied to the relief and maintenance of such poor person.

Section 33. If any man shall separate himself from his wife, without reasonable cause, or shall desert

desert his children, or if any woman shall desert her children, leaving them a charge upon the district, in any such case it shall be lawful for any two magistrates of the county, upon complaint made by the overseers of the district, to issue their warrant to such overseers, therein authorizing them to take and seize so much of the goods and chattels, and receive so much of the rents and profits of the real estate of such man or woman, as in the judgment of the said magistrates shall be sufficient to provide for such wife and to maintain and bring up such children, which sum or amount shall be specified in such warrant; but if sufficient real or personal estate cannot be found, then to take the body of such man (or woman) and bring him (or her) before such magistrate, at a time to be specified in such warrant.

Section 34. It shall be lawful for such magistrate, on the return of such warrant, to require security from such man or woman for his or her appearance at the next court of quarter sessions of the county, there to abide the order of the court, and for want of such security, to commit such person to the gaol of the county.

Section 35. The warrant aforesaid shall be returned to the next court of quarter sessions of the county, when it shall be lawful for the said court to make an order for the payment of such sums as they shall think reasonable for the purpose aforesaid, and therein authorizing the overseers to dispose of the goods and chattels aforesaid, by sale or otherwise, and to collect and receive the rents and profits aforesaid, or so much of either as in the judgment of the court shall be sufficient for the purpose aforesaid; but if there be no real or personal estate, it shall be lawful for the court to commit such person to the gaol of the county, there to remain until he or she comply with such order, give security for the performance thereof, or be discharged by due course of law.

Section 36. The following described persons shall be liable to the penalties imposed by law upon vagrants.

1. All persons who shall unlawfully return into any district whence they have been legally removed, without bringing a certificate from the city or district to which they belong.

2. All persons who, not having wherewith to maintain themselves and their families, live idly and without employment, and refuse to work for usual and common wages given to other labourers in the like work in the place where they then are.

3. All persons who shall refuse to perform the work which shall be allotted to them by the overseers of the poor as aforesaid.

4. All persons going about from door to door, or placing themselves in streets, highways or other roads, to beg or gather alms, and all other persons wandering abroad and begging.

5. All persons who shall come from any place without this Commonwealth to any place within it, and shall follow no labour, trade, occupation or business, and have no visible means of sustenance, and can give no reasonable account of themselves or their business in such place.

Section 37. It shall be lawful for the directors of the poor of any county, and for the overseers of any district, as the case may be, in which any person shall have become chargeable, to sue for and recover any real or personal estate belonging to such person, and to sell or otherwise dispose of the personal property, and to collect and receive the rents and profits of the real estate, and to apply the proceeds, or so much thereof as may be necessary, to defray the expenses incurred in the support and funeral of such person; and if any balance shall remain, the same shall be paid over to the legal representatives of such person after his death, upon demand made and security being given, to indemnify such directors or overseers from the claims of all other persons.

Section 38. It shall be the duty of the directors of the poor of the several counties in which poor-houses are or may be erected once in every year, after their accounts shall have been audited and settled, to make out a full and correct statement of their receipts and expenditures for the preceding year, together with a statement of the number of poor persons supported, specifying their sex, age and infirmity, if any, and of the profits arising from all farms under their directions; and it shall be the duty of such directors annually, in the month of March, to publish such accounts and statements at least twice, in two or more newspapers, printed in such county, the expense of which shall be paid out of the county treasury, and forthwith to transmit a copy of such accounts and statement to the Governor, to be by him transmitted to the Legislature.

Section 39. It shall be the duty of every justice who shall by virtue of any law of this Commonwealth receive any fine, penalty or forfeiture, appropriated by law for the use of the poor, forthwith to enter at length on his docket the name of the person convicted, the offence committed, the amount of such fine, penalty or forfeiture, and the time when the same was paid, and forthwith to deliver a correct transcript of such entry to a constable of the township; and such justice shall, on demand, pay over the same to the overseers of the poor lawfully entitled thereto, and shall annually, if required, exhibit his docket to the inspection of the township auditors.

Section 40. If any justice shall wilfully neglect or refuse to perform the duties enjoined on him as aforesaid, touching any fine, penalty or forfeiture, appropriated to the use of the poor, he shall, on conviction thereof, in the court of quarter sessions of the proper county, be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor in office, and fined, for the use of the poor of the township in which he shall reside, any sum not exceeding 20 dollars; and if he shall be convicted of neglecting or refusing to pay over, on demand, to the proper overseers any money which he shall have received as aforesaid, he shall be fined, over and above the fine last mentioned, any sum not exceeding double the amount which he shall have received as aforesaid, which sums shall be recovered by process of said court.

Section 41. It shall be the duty of the overseers of every district to demand from every justice the amount of any fine, penalty or forfeiture that may have been received by him for the use of the poor; and if the same be not paid to them within twenty days, to proceed to recover the same by suit against such justice, in the manner that debts of the like amount are or may be by law recoverable.

Section 42. It shall be the duty of the clerk of every court by whom any fine shall be imposed, which by law is to be appropriated in whole or in part to the use of the poor, forthwith to deliver a written notice of the same to a constable living in or near the township in which the person fined resides, for which service such clerk shall receive the sum of 25 cents from the proper overseers, and no more.

Section 43. It shall be the duty of the constable to whom any transcript or certificate shall be delivered by a justice of the peace or clerk of court as aforesaid, under a penalty of 10 dollars, to be recovered before any other justice of the proper county, to deliver such transcript or certificate

Appendix (F)

Foreign
Communications.

UNITED STATES.

Pennsylvania

to one of the overseers of the district to which such fine, penalty or forfeiture belongs, and for such service such constable shall be entitled to receive from such overseers the sum of 25 cents, and no more.

Section 44. It shall be the duty of every sheriff who shall have received any fine, penalty or forfeiture, which by law may be appropriated to the use of the poor, to pay the same, on demand, to the proper overseers, and if he shall fail to do so within 10 days after demand, he shall, on conviction thereof, in the court of quarter sessions of the proper county, be fined and pay to the use of the poor of the proper district, any sum not exceeding double the amount received by him, to be recovered by the process of the said court.

Section 45. In all cases where there are no poor persons supported at the expense of a district, or where there shall remain in the hands of the overseers, at the end of the year, an unexpended balance arising from fines, penalties or forfeitures received for the use of the poor, it shall be the duty of the overseers to pay all such fines, penalties and forfeitures as may have been received by them, and such unexpended balance to the supervisors of the highways, to be applied to the repair of the public roads in such district, unless the township auditors shall judge it necessary that the whole, or part thereof, should be retained as a fund for the use of the poor.

Section 46. If any overseer shall neglect or refuse to perform any duty enjoined upon him by law, and not otherwise provided for, he shall be liable to an indictment for a misdemeanor, and shall be punished by a fine not exceeding 100 dollars, at the discretion of the court, to be recovered by the process thereof.

Section 47. The several fines, forfeitures and penalties, and other sums of money imposed or directed to be paid by this Act, and not herein directed to be otherwise recovered, shall be levied and recovered by distress and sale of the goods and chattels of the delinquent or offender, by warrant under the hand and seal of any one magistrate of the city or county where such delinquent or offender dwells, or where such goods and chattels may be found; and after satisfaction made of such fines, forfeitures, penalties and sums of money, together with the legal charges on the recovery thereof, the overplus, if any, shall be returned to the owner of such goods and chattels, his executors or administrators.

Section 48. If any person shall be aggrieved by the judgment of any one or more magistrates, in pursuance of this Act, he may appeal to the next court of quarter sessions for the county in which such magistrates reside, (except in cases hereinbefore specially provided for,) whose decision in all such cases shall be final and conclusive.

Section 49. The word "district," in this Act, shall be construed and taken to mean "township" and "borough," and every other territorial or municipal division, in and for which officers charged with the relief and support of the poor are directed or authorized by law to be chosen; but nothing in this Act contained shall be taken to repeal or otherwise interfere with any special provision made by law for any city, county, township, borough or other territorial or municipal divisions.

PHILADELPHIA.

THE LAWS relating to the RELIEF and EMPLOYMENT of the POOR, in the city of *Philadelphia*, the district of *Southwark*, and the Townships of the *Northern Liberties* and *Penn.*

Of the Election of Guardians—the Style and Powers of the Corporation—and of its Organization and Officers.

[ACT of 5th of March 1828.]

Election of guardians.

SECTION 1. Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania in General Assembly met, and it is hereby enacted by the authority of the same, That the select and common councils of the city of Philadelphia, the commissioners of the incorporated district of the Northern Liberties, the commissioners of the district of Southwark, the commissioners of Spring Garden, choosing for the township of Penn, and the commissioners of the Kensington district, choosing for said district and the unincorporated part of the Northern Liberties, shall meet on the third Monday of May next, each body in its usual place of meeting, at three o'clock in the afternoon, or as soon thereafter as may be, and shall elect and choose as follows: that is to say, the said select and common councils, by joint vote, shall elect six respectable citizens, inhabitants* of the city; the commissioners of the incorporated district of the Northern Liberties shall elect two respectable citizens, inhabitants of said district; the commissioners of the district of Southwark shall elect two respectable citizens, inhabitants of said district; the commissioners of Spring Garden shall elect one respectable citizen, an inhabitant of Penn township, and the commissioners of the Kensington district shall elect one respectable citizen, residing in said district, or in the unincorporated part of the Northern Liberties, to be guardians of the poor of the said city, districts and township. And the said electing bodies shall, by their respective clerks, give notice in writing to each of the persons so chosen, within two days thereafter; and it shall be the duty of the said guardians of the poor, on the fourth Monday of May next, to meet at the almshouse in the city of Philadelphia, at three o'clock in the afternoon, and each of them shall take an oath or affirmation, to be administered by any alderman of the city, or justice of the peace of the county of Philadelphia, that he will discharge the office of guardian of the poor truly and impartially, to the best of his knowledge and ability. The said guardians shall then form themselves into a board, and shall appoint one of their own body as president, who shall preside over their deliberations. The said guardians shall then divide themselves by lot as follows: the six from the city shall be divided

Clerks to give notice
to guardians elect.

Oath to be taken.

To choose president.

To be divided into
classes

* By the former Act, it was required that the guardians should be householders. The term "respectable citizens, inhabitants," being more enlarged, is supposed to be inconsistent with a narrower qualification, and therefore to work a repeal of that part of the former law—*Sed querie.*

The old mode of election, *vivâ voce*, has been pursued, and it is believed correctly.

into

into three classes; two of whom shall serve for one year, two for two years, and two for three years, and the select and common councils shall annually thereafter, on the third Monday of May, in manner aforesaid, elect guardians to supply the place of those who shall go out of office. The guardians from the district of the Northern Liberties, and the district of Southwark, shall respectively divide themselves into two classes: two of whom, that is, one from each district, shall serve for two years, and the other two for three years; and it shall be the duty of the said districts respectively, on the third Monday of May in any year, when a vacancy may occur, to meet and elect as aforesaid, guardians to supply the place of those who shall go out of office. The guardians from Penn township and the district of Kensington shall respectively serve three years; and it shall be the duty of the said commissioners of Spring Garden and Kensington districts respectively, on the third Monday of May, in manner aforesaid, to elect guardians to supply the place of those whose term of office shall expire. All guardians appointed after the third Monday in May next, shall be elected for three years: Provided always, that whenever a vacancy shall occur in the said board of guardians by death, resignation, removal from office, or otherwise, it shall be the duty of the electing body in whose district the vacancy may occur, within ten days after notice from said board of guardians, to proceed to fill such vacancy in manner aforesaid; and in case such electing body shall neglect or refuse to fill such vacancy within ten days after due notice given to them in writing, then it shall and may be lawful for the said board of guardians to appoint a suitable person to fill the same: and provided, the said guardians during their continuance in office shall be exempted from the duties of jurors, and from military services; and all guardians may be re-elected as often as they are willing to serve.

Appendix F.)

Foreign
Communications.Mode of classifica-
tion.

SECTION 2. The said guardians of the poor for the time being shall be a body politic and corporate in law, by the name of "The Guardians for the Relief and Employment of the Poor of the city of Philadelphia, the district of Southwark, and the townships of the Northern Liberties and Penn," with all the privileges, powers and faculties of a body politic and corporate; and by that name may take, hold, and immediately on the organization of the board, on the fourth Monday of May, as aforesaid, shall be vested with all the estate, real, personal and mixed, whatsoever, now vested in or held by "The Guardians of the Poor of the city of Philadelphia, the district of Southwark, and the township of the Northern Liberties," in trust or otherwise, and may also hold to them and their successors, any other real or personal estate conveyed to them by grant, bargain, or sale, or by gift, bequest, or other alienation whatsoever, and may sue and be sued, plead and be impleaded, in any court of record, or in any other place whatever, and may have a common seal, and make such laws, rules and orders, as shall appear to them, or a majority of them, useful and necessary for the government of said corporation, its officers, estates, property, and the business and affairs in general of the same: Provided, that such laws, rules, and orders be not inconsistent with the constitution and laws of this State, or of the United States: and provided also, that the said board of guardians shall have a stated meeting at least once in every two weeks, at such time and place as they may deem proper.

Guardians incorpora-
ted: their name and
powers.

Stated meetings.

[ACT of 29th March 1803.]

SECTION 15. If any person appointed to be one of the guardians of the poor within this corporation, not having before served therein as aforesaid, shall refuse or neglect to take upon himself the said office, he shall forfeit 60 dollars to the said corporation, for the use of the poor of the said city, district and township, to be levied by warrant issued by the mayor of the city of Philadelphia, or of two justices of the township of the northern liberties or the district of Southwark. And if any guardian of the poor shall remove from said city, district and township, he shall, before such his removal, deliver over to some other guardian of the poor of the said city, district or township, his accounts, books, papers, money and other things concerning his office. And upon the death of any guardian, his executors or administrators shall within 40 days after his decease, or within 40 days after they undertake the execution of the will or administration of the estate of such deceased guardian, deliver over all things concerning his office to some other guardian as aforesaid, and shall also pay out of the assets all monies remaining due, which he received by virtue of his office, before any of his other debts are paid, saving funeral charges.

Penalty on guardians
refusing to serve.Accounts, &c. of
guardian removing or
dying, how to be dis-
posed of.Monies due by a de-
ceased guardian to be
first paid out of his
assets.

[ACT of 5th March 1828.]

SECTION 4. The said board of guardians, or a majority of them, shall annually appoint one of their own body, removable at their pleasure, to act as treasurer of the said corporation, who shall, before he enters on the execution of his office, enter into a bond to the said board of guardians, with two or more sufficient freehold sureties, in the sum of 10,000 dollars, conditioned for the true and faithful discharge of the duties of his office; and that at the expiration thereof, or his removal from the same, he, or in case of his death, his legal representatives, shall well and truly pay, and deliver over to his successor, all monies, books, accounts and papers, belonging to the said corporation which shall then be remaining in his or their hands or possession; and it shall be the duty of the collector or collectors to pay once in every week, and render an account of all monies which they shall respectively have received, for or on account of the said poor-tax, to the said treasurer, who shall give a receipt or receipts to such collector or collectors for the money which he or they shall from time to time pay to him, which said receipt or receipts shall be a good and sufficient discharge to the said collector or collectors for so much money as may be therein expressed to have been received. It shall be the duty of such treasurer to pay out of the money belonging to the said corporation in his hand all orders that may be lawfully drawn on him by order of the said board of guardians, signed by the president, or in his absence, by the chairman for the time being, and countersigned by the secretary.

Of the treasurer.

His bond.

Collectors to account
and pay to treasurer.

Treasurer's duty.

SECTION 5. The said guardians, or a majority of them, shall annually appoint a proper person as secretary, removable at their pleasure, whose duty it shall be to attend all the general or special meetings of the said board of guardians, to keep fair minutes of their transactions, and generally to do and perform all such duties as many be enjoined and directed by the said board, who shall receive such salary or compensation for his services as the said board of guardians shall from time to time direct and appoint: Provided, that before he enters upon the performance of his duties, he shall execute a bond to the said corporation, with one or more sufficient sureties, in the sum of 2,000 dollars, conditioned for the faithful discharge of the duties of his office; and on his removal from the same, he, or in case of his death, his legal representatives, shall deliver over to his suc-

Of the secretary.
His duty.

Compensation.

Bond.

cessor all books, accounts and papers belonging to the said corporation which shall then be remaining in his or their hands, custody or possession.

Of the visitors.

Their compensation.
Office at pleasure of the board.
Their duty to visit and report.

Board to direct relief.

Sudden emergencies visitor may relieve, with consent of guardian.

Kind of relief.

Sub-visitors and other officers.

SECTION 8. The board of guardians shall appoint six suitable persons, citizens of, and residing in, the city or districts for which they may be appointed, as visitors of the poor, viz., one for the city, one for the incorporated district of the Northern Liberties, one for the district of Southwark, one for Penn township, and one for the Kensington district and one for the unincorporated Northern Liberties, who shall each receive such compensation, payable at such times as the board of guardians may from time to time think proper; that the said visitors shall be continued in office at the discretion of the board, and shall give such security for the faithful performance of their duty as may be required. That it shall be the duty of the visitors to act as agents under the direction of the board of guardians, and when called upon by an applicant for relief, or by a citizen, in behalf of any poor persons, to visit such party without delay, and after full examination, to report in writing the particulars of the case to the next meeting of the board of guardians, stating the residence, name, age, sex, colour, birth-place, number of children, if any; on receipt of which report, the board, if satisfied of the necessity of the case, shall direct the mode and determine the amount of relief to be furnished to such applicant, and shall also cause the name, residence and amount of relief directed to be furnished to be entered into a book to be kept for that purpose. Provided, that in all cases of sudden emergencies, when the party cannot be removed to the hospital or almshouse, it shall be the duty of the visitor, with the consent and approbation of one of the guardians, to administer such relief and assistance as the case may require; the particulars of the case and amount of relief to be reported to the next meeting of the guardians, who shall take such order therein as they may think proper. And provided also, that after the necessary accommodations are prepared in the hospital, almshouse or other buildings, all relief granted to the outdoor poor shall be temporary, and consist entirely of fuel, provisions, clothing, medicines and medical attendance. Provided always, that said guardians may from time to time appoint such number of sub-visitors, and also such other officers as they may deem necessary, for the purpose of carrying the objects and provisions of this law into effect.

Of the Taxes and their Collection.

[ACT of 5th of March 1828.]

Twelve persons to be elected, to be called the Directors of the Poor-tax.

Their duties.
To meet on second Monday in January.
Guardians to give estimates.
Directors to lay the rate.
Amount of rate.

To follow county assessment.

To make return of their proceedings to the electing bodies.

Guardians to make duplicates.
Guardians not to borrow money.

Board to employ collectors.
Where to reside.

To give bond.

Judgment upon bonds.

Lien on lands.

SECTION 3. On the second Tuesday of December annually, the select and common councils of the city of Philadelphia, by joint vote, shall select six members of their own bodies; the commissioners of the unincorporated district of the Northern Liberties and the commissioners of the district of Southwark shall each select two members of their own bodies respectively; and the commissioners of Spring Garden and the commissioners of Kensington district shall each select one member of their own bodies respectively, to be directors of the poor-tax; and the 12 persons thus elected shall be styled, "The Directors of the Poor-tax." It shall be the duty of the said directors of the poor-tax, on the second Monday of January annually, and at such other times as they shall be requested by the guardians of the poor, to meet at the almshouse, or such other place as may be designated by the guardians of the poor; and it shall be the duty of the guardians of the poor to make and exhibit to the said directors estimates of the probable amount of money that may be required for the relief, support and employment of the poor for the current year; and the said directors, or a majority of them, shall proceed to make and lay such rate or assessment for the purpose aforesaid as may be necessary, not exceeding 50 cents on the 100 dollars at any one time, upon the value of all the real and personal estate within the said districts and townships respectively, and not more than one dollar per head on every freeman in any 50-cents tax, and so in proportion for every less rate on the county assessment.* The directors in laying the rates as aforesaid shall be guided by the county assessments made or to be made, having due regard to every man's estate within the said city, districts and townships so to be rated and assessed; and shall cause such rates to be fairly entered in a book and signed by said directors, which shall be delivered to the said guardians; and shall also return to the respective corporations a statement of the amount of money required and the rate of assessment laid; and the said guardians shall permit any inhabitant to inspect the rates at all reasonable times, without any charge, and shall give copies on demand, being paid at the rate of six cents for every 24 names; and the said guardians shall, immediately after the rates and assessments are returned by the directors of the poor-tax as aforesaid, cause the necessary number of duplicates to be made in alphabetical order, or otherwise, as the said board may direct. Provided always, that no money shall at any time be raised by way of loan or on credit, by or on behalf of the said guardians of the poor, without the consent of the said directors of the poor-tax to the raising of such money first had and obtained, excepting the loans to be made pursuant to the authority given by the 11th section of this Act.

SECTION 6. It shall be the duty of the said board of guardians, or a majority of them, to appoint and employ fit persons, who are citizens, and each of whom shall actually reside within the city, districts or townships to which his duplicate has reference, and in which he is to collect, to be collectors of the poor-tax, assessed or imposed, or hereafter to be assessed or imposed, upon the inhabitants of said city, districts and townships as aforesaid, which said collectors so to be appointed shall, with two freehold sureties to be joined therein, severally make and execute a bond or bonds, with warrants of attorney, to confess judgment unto the said board of guardians, in a sum equal to double the amount of his or their duplicate, with a condition or conditions thereunto severally annexed for the true and faithful performance of all and singular the duties and services which shall or may be lawfully imposed upon and required from such collector or collectors respectively; upon which judgment shall be entered forthwith in the prothonotaries office of any court having jurisdiction to the amount of the penalty, and after being so entered, are hereby declared to be and operate, from the time of filling the same, as a lien upon the lands and tenements of the said collectors and their sureties, until the final

* By Supp. Act, February 10, 1832, directors are authorized to include in the above rate such sums as may be necessary to pay the interest for such current year, or monies already borrowed by the guardians under the original Act.

adjustment,

adjustment, settlement and discharge of the said collectors, for or on account of their respective duplicates.

Foreign Communications.

SECTION 7. The said collector or collectors, appointed as aforesaid, on the receipt of their respective duplicates, shall from time to time levy and raise from all and every the said inhabitants of the city, districts and townships aforesaid, and of and from their respective estates, chattels and effects, all such sums of money as shall be assessed and imposed upon the said inhabitants respectively, or their respective estates as aforesaid; and it shall be the duty of the said collectors to give a written or printed notice to every taxable inhabitant residing or holding property within the district wherein he is appointed to collect the said tax, or to the agent, attorney or representative of such taxable, stating the sums respectively due, and requiring him or her to pay the same within two months; and all those who shall neglect to pay their tax within the time aforesaid shall be called upon by the collector in person at least once at their respective dwellings or places of abode, and payment of the said tax demanded; and in case of non-payment thereof, he shall within 30 days thereafter distrain their goods, chattels and effects, wherever found, or of the tenant in possession therefor; which goods, chattels and effects so levied upon and distrained shall be irrepleviable, and may be removed by the said collector to his own dwelling-house, or elsewhere within the district, and sold at public sale by the collector within 10 days after the distress so as aforesaid made, five days' notice of such sale being publicly given in one of the newspapers and by handbills put up in the most public places; and it shall be the duty of the said collector, when and as often as he shall seize and make distress as aforesaid, to furnish and deliver at the time of making the same to the owner or owners thereof, a true and perfect inventory of the goods, chattels and effects so as aforesaid distrained, and also to furnish to the owner or owners a true account of the sales of the said goods and chattels; and if any surplus should remain after payment of the taxes due, and reasonable costs and charges incident to the sale and distress as aforesaid, then and in such case, the collector shall pay over to the owner or owners aforesaid such surplus; and in case of neglect or refusal within three days after such sale, if demanded, the collector shall forfeit and pay a sum not exceeding 20 per cent., to be calculated upon the said surplus, to be recovered, together with such surplus, before any alderman or justice of the peace, any laws, usage or custom to the contrary notwithstanding. Provided, that it shall be lawful for any person or persons whose goods, chattels or personal property may be levied upon and sold as aforesaid, or who may pay the taxes, rates or levies as aforesaid, by action of debt or otherwise, to recover the amount so paid, or the value of the goods and chattels levied on and sold, together with all costs and damages, against the owner or owners of the real estate, or, at his or their election, to defalcate the amount thereof in payment of any rent which may be due to the owner or owners of such estate, unless such defalcation or recovery would impair any contract or agreement between them previously made: And provided also, that the provisions of the Act of the 3d of February 1824, intituled, "An Act relating to taxes on certain real estate in the city and county of Philadelphia," be and the same is hereby extended to all rates and assessments which shall be laid by virtue of this Act. And it shall be the duty of the said collector or collectors to keep an exact account of all sums of money rated and collected by them, and all such sums of money as are rated and not collected by them, and the examination and final settlement of the accounts of the said collector or collectors shall belong to the said board of guardians, who shall have full power and authority to allow and deduct such parts thereof only as to them shall seem just and reasonable; and the powers hereby given and granted to the said collectors shall in such case remain in full force, until the whole of their respective duplicates shall be collected, unless the said board of guardians shall think fit to rescind and annul such powers, which they may at any time, when to them there shall appear to be a reasonable cause, have power to do.

Duties of collectors.*

Their powers.

Collectors to keep accounts.

To be settled by the guardians.

Of the Power of the Guardians over Paupers in the House, and of Binding out persons as Apprentices.

[ACT of 5th of March 1828.]

SECTION 14. The said board of guardians be, and they are hereby authorized, whenever any person or persons shall be received into the almshouse, to inquire into the situation and circumstances of such persons, and into the causes which have produced his or her application for relief; and if in the opinion of said guardians the case shall be such as to make it expedient, they shall cause to be opened in the books of the almshouse an account with the person or persons so received, and shall charge him, her or them a fair and moderate price for the maintenance and other articles furnished for their relief, and shall credit such persons with a just and liberal allowance for any work they may perform, or services they may render; and persons who may be sent to the hospital and cured of any disease brought on by vicious habits, shall be removed to the house of employment; and also all idle, disorderly and vagrant persons, who may be sent to the said almshouse by any of the said guardians, may be detained in the said house by the board of guardians, and compelled to perform such work and services as the said board may order and direct, until they have compensated by their labour for the expenses incurred on their account, unless discharged by special permission of the board of guardians; and it shall be the duty of said board of guardians to furnish such person or persons as aforesaid with sufficient work and employment, according to their physical abilities, so that the opportunity of reimbursement may be fully afforded: and for the more complete carrying into effect the provisions of this law, the said board of guardians are hereby authorized and empowered to exercise such authority as may be necessary to compel all persons within the said almshouse and house of employment to do and perform all such work, labour and services as may be assigned to them by the said board of guardians, provided the same be not inconsistent with the condition or ability of such person.

An account to be opened against the pauper.

Pauper to be detained until his labour shall repay the sums expended upon him.

Power to compel paupers to work.

SECTION 15. The said board of guardians, or a majority of them, be and they are hereby authorized to put out as apprentices to some trade or calling all poor children who may become chargeable, that is, the children of such poor persons as are dead without leaving any property, or any kindred bound by law to maintain them, or who, if living, have deserted them; males to the age of 21, and

Power to bind out poor children,

* In the section relating to the treasurer, it is made the duty of the collectors to pay over to him weekly all sums they may have collected, and to render him an account weekly.

Notwithstanding they may be claimed by their parents.

21, and females to the age of 18 years. And whereas it frequently happens that children, who have been receiving public support for indefinite periods, are claimed by their parents when they arrive at a proper age for being bound out as aforesaid, to prevent such binding,

Therefore, be it enacted by the authority aforesaid, that the said guardians are authorized to bind out, as aforesaid, all children that have or may receive public support, either in the almshouse or children's asylum, although their parents may demand their discharge from said institutions, unless the expenses incurred in their support be refunded. Provided always, that care be taken to put all children as aforesaid to proper persons, and in respectable families.

Of Settlement.

[ACT of 5th of March 1828.]

By executing an office.

Paying poor taxes.

Paying rent.

Owning a freehold.

Hiring.

Serving as an apprentice.

As an indented servant.

Of illegitimate children.

Married women.

SECTION 16.* If any person who has or shall come to inhabit in the said city, district, or townships, shall for himself, and on his own account, execute any public office, being legally placed therein, in the said city, district or townships, during one whole year, or if any person shall be charged with, and pay his or her share towards the public taxes or levies for the poor of the said city, district or townships, for two years successively, or if any person shall really and *bonâ fide* take a lease of any lands or tenements in the said city, district or townships, of the yearly value of 10 l., and shall dwell in or upon the same for one whole year at one and the same time, and pay the said rent, or shall become seised of any freehold estate in any lands or tenements in the said city, district or townships, and shall dwell in or upon the same for one whole year, or if any unmarried person, not having children or child, shall be lawfully bound or hired as a servant in the said city, district or townships, and shall continue and abide in such service during one whole year, or if any person shall be duly bound an apprentice by indenture, and shall inhabit in the said city, district or townships, with his or her master or mistress, for one whole year, or if any indented servant, legally and directly imported from Europe into this State, who shall serve with his or her master or mistress in the said city, district or townships, six months immediately after his or her arrival, or who, after having so served in any other place within the State, shall duly serve any master or mistress in the said city, district or townships, for the space of one year, such persons, in any of these cases, shall be adjudged and deemed to gain a legal settlement in the said city, district or townships: Provided, that every illegitimate child shall be held and taken to be legally settled in the place of legal settlement of the mother at the time of the birth of such child: And provided also, that any married woman shall be deemed, during coverture and after her husband's death, to be legally settled in the place where he was last legally settled; but if he shall have no known legal settlement, then she shall be deemed, whether he is living or dead, to be legally settled in the place where she was last legally settled before marriage.

[ACT of 29th of March 1803.]

Persons coming into the city with a certificate.

How to be removed.

SECTION 19. If any person or persons shall after the publication of this Act come out of any borough, township or place within this State, into the said city, district or township of the Northern Liberties, there to inhabit and reside, and shall at the same time procure, bring and deliver unto the guardians of the poor of the said city, district and township, a certificate under the hands and seals of the overseers of the poor of the borough, township or place whence he, she or they removed, to be attested by two or more credible witnesses, thereby acknowledging the person or persons mentioned in the said certificate to be an inhabitant or inhabitants legally settled in that borough, township or place, every such certificate, having been allowed of and subscribed by one or more justices of the peace of the county where such borough, township or place doth lie, shall oblige the said borough, township or place, to provide for the persons mentioned in the said certificate, together with his or her family, as inhabitants of that place, whenever he, she or they shall happen to become chargeable, or be obliged to ask relief of the said city, district and township; and then, and not before, it shall and may be lawful for any such person, and his or her children, though born in the said city, district or township, and his or her servants and apprentices, not having otherwise acquired a legal settlement therein, to be removed, conveyed and settled in the borough, township or place whence such certificate was brought: and the witnesses who attest the execution of the certificate by the overseers, or one of the said witnesses, shall make oath or affirmation, according to law, before the justice or justices who are to allow the same, that such witness or witnesses did see the overseers of the poor, whose names and seals are thereunto subscribed and set, severally sign and seal the said certificate, and the names of such witnesses attesting the said certificate, are of their own proper handwriting; which said justice or justices shall also certify that such oath or affirmation was made before him or them; and every such certificate so allowed, and oath or affirmation of the execution thereof so certified by the said justice or justices, shall be taken and received as evidence without other proof thereof; and no person so coming by certificate into the said city, district or township, nor an apprentice or servant to such person, shall be deemed or adjudged by any act whatsoever to have gained a legal settlement therein, unless such person shall, after the date of such certificate, execute some public annual office, being legally placed therein, in the said city, district or township.

Persons coming in without certificate not to gain a settlement, unless, &c.

SECTION 20. No person whomsoever who shall come into the said city, district or township, without such certificate as aforesaid, (mariners and other healthy persons coming from Europe excepted) shall gain a legal settlement therein, unless such person shall give security, if required, at his or her coming into the same, or within three months thereafter, for indemnifying and discharging the said city, district and township, to be allowed by any one alderman of the said city, or justice of the peace residing in the district or township aforesaid.

Settlement of negroes.

SECTION 28. And whereas negroes and mulattoes liberated after the age of 28 years, and others not having legal settlement within this corporation and elsewhere, frequently come to inhabit and reside

* This section re-enacts the 16th, 17th and 18th sections of the Act of 1803, with this difference, that by the 17th section of that Act, an indented servant imported from Europe could gain a settlement by serving with his master 60 days; now the service must be six months.

As to all other persons coming from Europe or elsewhere, they can gain no settlement except in the manner pointed out in the section.

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reside therein; Be it enacted by the authority aforesaid, That the settlement of all negroes and mulattoes, whether free or otherwise, shall be deemed and taken to be, so far as respects this corporation, in the township or place where his, her or their master has registered him, her or them, in case he, she or they be slaves, and in the township or place where they were liberated, manumitted, and set free, in case he, she or they be free; and that all orders of removal, respecting such before-described negroes or mulattoes, shall be good and effectual in law; and the overseers of the place or township, to which any such negro or mulatto shall be removed, shall be bound, and they are hereby required to receive and provide for them, as for other poor of their place or township. Provided always, nevertheless, that if it shall appear that any such negro or mulatto shall have been liberated after he, or she or they attained the age of 28 years, or has never been legally liberated, manumitted or set free, then and in such case the overseers of the poor, to whose place or township any such negroes or mulattoes shall be removed, shall and may recover from the master or mistress of any such negro or mulatto, his or her heirs, executors or administrators, having assets, all the costs and charges arising from relieving and removing the said negro or mulatto, and the said master or mistress, his or her heirs, executors or administrators, having assets, shall give security for the future maintenance of such negro or mulatto.

Foreign
Communications.
—
UNITED STATES.
—

Master of negro or
mulatto when liable
for his maintenance.

[ACT of 31st of March 1812.]

SECTION 4. No person who shall hereafter come from any state or territory of the United States, to inhabit in the said city, district or township, not having a legal settlement therein, except persons who shall heretofore have gained a legal settlement in the state of Pennsylvania, shall be adjudged and deemed to gain a legal settlement, but on the same terms and conditions on which such person would be entitled to gain a legal settlement in the state or territory from which such person shall have so removed to the said city, district or township; and if any poor person, coming from any other state to inhabit, or now inhabiting in the said city, district or township, shall be removed to his or her place of legal settlement, and shall return after such removal to the said city, district or township, within one year from the date of such order of removal, such poor person or persons, on conviction thereof by the mayor's court of the city, or the court of quarter sessions of the county, as the case may be, shall for every such offence be imprisoned in the prison of the said city and county, not more than thirty days nor less than ten days, and at the expiration of such period of imprisonment be forthwith removed to his or her place of legal settlement.

Persons from other
States, how to gain a
settlement.

If removed and they
return, how to be
punished.

Of Orders of Removal.

[ACT of 29th of March 1803.]

SECTION 21. Upon complaint being made by the guardians of the poor of the said city, district and township, to any one or more of the aldermen of the said city, or to one or more of the justices of the peace of the county, residing in the said district or township, that any person or persons therein is or are likely to become chargeable, it shall and may be lawful to and for any two aldermen of the said city, or any two justices of the peace of the county residing in the said district or township, by their warrant or order directed to the said guardians of the poor, to remove and convey such person or persons to the borough, township, state or place where he, she or they was or were last legally settled, unless such person or persons shall give sufficient security to discharge and indemnify the said city, district and township. Provided always, that if any person or persons shall think him, her or themselves aggrieved by any order of removal made by any of the said aldermen or justices, such person or persons may appeal to the next mayor's court for the said city or the next court of quarter sessions of the peace for the said county from whence such poor persons shall be removed, and not elsewhere, which said court shall determine the same; and if there be any defects of form in such order, the magistrates or justices composing such court shall cause the same to be rectified and amended, without any cost to the party, and after such amendment shall proceed to hear the truth and merits of the cause; but no such order of removal shall be proceeded upon unless reasonable notice be given by the said guardians of the poor unto the overseers of the borough, township or place from which the removal shall be, the reasonableness of which notice shall be determined by the court to which the appeal is made; and if it shall appear to such court that reasonable time of notice was not given, then the appeal shall be adjourned to their next sessions, when and where the same shall be finally determined.

Orders of removal,
how to be made.

Appeal allowed.

SECTION 22. For the more effectual prevention of vexatious removals and frivolous appeals, the mayor's court for the city, or the court of quarter sessions for the county of Philadelphia, upon any appeal concerning the settlement of any poor persons, or upon any proof before them there to be made of notice of any such appeal to have been given by the proper officer to the guardians of the poor of the said city, district and township, or to the overseers of the poor of any borough, township or place, (though they did not afterwards prosecute such appeal) shall at the same sessions order to the party in whose behalf such appeal shall be determined, or to whom such notice did appear to have been given, such costs and charges as by the said court in their discretion shall be thought most reasonable and just, to be paid by the guardians, overseers, or any other persons against whom such appeal shall be determined, or by the person that did give such notice; and if the person ordered to pay such costs and charges shall live out of the jurisdiction of the said court, any justice of the peace where such person shall inhabit, shall, on request to him made, and a true copy of the order for the payment of such costs and charges, certified under the hand of the clerk of the court, by his warrant cause the same to be levied by distress, and if no such distress can be had, shall commit such person to the common gaol, until he pays the said costs and charges, or be otherwise legally discharged; and if the said court on such appeal shall determine in favour of the appellant, that such poor person was unduly removed, they shall at the same session order and award to such appellant so much money as shall appear to them to have been paid by the city, district, borough, township or place, on whose behalf such appeal was made towards the relief of such poor person, between the time of such undue removal and the determination of such appeal, with the cost aforesaid, the said money so awarded, and the cost, to be recovered in the same manner as costs and charges awarded against an appellant are to be recovered by virtue of this Act as aforesaid.

Costs, charges, &c.
on vexatious remo-
vals or frivolous ap-
peals, how to be ad-
justed and recovered

Penalty on overseers refusing to receive a pauper removed by warrant.

SECTION 25. If any person be removed by virtue of this Act from any borough, township or county to the said city, district of Southwark, or township of the Northern Liberties, by warrant or order of any two justices of the peace of any county, under their hands and seals, or from the said city, district or township to any other township, borough, county or place, by warrant or order of any two aldermen of the said city, or two justices of the peace residing in the said district or township, under their hands and seals as aforesaid, the guardians or overseers of the poor of the city, borough, township or place to which such person shall be so removed are hereby required to receive the said person; and if any of the said guardians or overseers shall refuse or neglect so to do, he or they so offending, upon proof thereof by one or more credible witnesses, upon oath or affirmation before any one of the aldermen of the said city, or justices of the peace residing in the said district or township, or justices of the peace of any township, borough or county, where the offender doth reside, shall forfeit for every such offence the sum of 20 dollars, to the use respectively of the poor of the said city, district and township, or other township or borough from which such person was removed, to be levied by distress and sale of the offender's goods, by warrant under the hand and seal of the said alderman or justice of the peace as aforesaid, which he is hereby required and empowered to make, directed to the constable of the city, district, township or borough where such offender or offenders dwell, returning the overplus, if any there be, to the owner or owners; and for want of sufficient distress, then the offender to be committed to the gaol of the county where he dwells, there to remain, without bail or mainprize, for the space of 30 days.

Bill of expenses in relieving a poor person sworn or affirmed to by a guardian, and certified under corporate seal, to be evidence, but not conclusive evidence, of the amount against the township, &c. bound to pay the same.

SECTION 27. And whereas it may frequently happen that the place of last legal settlement of poor and indigent persons may be far distant from the city of Philadelphia, Be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, That where any person not having legal settlement within the city of Philadelphia, the township of the Northern Liberties, or the district of Southwark, shall be relieved and provided for temporarily by the guardians of the poor in the city of Philadelphia, district of Southwark, and the township of the Northern Liberties, it shall and may be lawful for the said guardians to transmit with the poor or indigent person or persons so as aforesaid relieved to his last place of legal settlement a bill containing the amount of monies expended in the relief of such poor indigent person or persons, certified under the seal of the corporation, and attested by the oath or affirmation of the guardian furnishing or expending the same, which said bill, so certified and attested, shall be received by the overseers or justices of the township or place where the said poor or indigent person or persons were last legally settled as evidence, but not conclusive evidence, of the amount, if upon an appeal the settlement shall be affirmed; and in case the overseers of the place or township to which such poor and indigent person or persons shall be removed, or the parties removing, as the case may be, shall appeal from the judgment of the said justices to the court of quarter sessions of the county to which such removal shall be made, the said court shall receive the said bill so as aforesaid certified and attested as evidence, but not conclusive evidence, of the amount; and the overseers of the place or township to which such poor and indigent person or persons shall be so as aforesaid removed shall be liable to pay the amount adjudged to be due, whether notice has been given to them or not, of the paupers being within the corporation of the guardians of the poor in the city of Philadelphia, district of Southwark and the township of the Northern Liberties, any law, usage or custom to the contrary in any wise notwithstanding.

Of Paupers too ill to remove.

[ACT of 29th of March 1803.]

Poor persons coming from the country into the city, &c., and falling sick or dying, guardians to give notice to the overseers of the place where such persons last had a legal settlement.

Mode of proceeding in case of refusal to reimburse expenses.

SECTION 26. If any poor person or persons shall remove out of the city of Philadelphia, the district of Southwark and the township of the Northern Liberties, into any other township, borough, or place within this State, or shall remove out of any borough, township or place into the said city, district or township of the Northern Liberties, and shall fall sick or die before he or she hath gained a legal settlement in the said city, district and township, or other township or borough to which he or she shall come, so that such person or persons cannot be removed, the guardians of the said city, district and township of the Northern Liberties, or overseers of the said other township or borough, into which such person or persons is or are to come, or one of them, shall, as soon as conveniently may be, respectively give notice to the overseers of such township or borough, or to the guardians of the said city, district and township of the Northern Liberties (as it may happen to be necessary) where such person or persons had last gained a legal settlement, or to one of the said overseers or guardians, of the name, circumstances and conditions of such person or persons. And if such overseers of a township or borough, or guardians of the said city, district and township of the Northern Liberties, to whom such notice shall be so given, shall neglect or refuse to pay the money expended, as well before as after the said notice, for the use of such poor person or persons, and to take order for relieving and maintaining such poor person or persons, or in case of his, her or their death, before notice can be given as aforesaid, shall on request being made, neglect or refuse to pay the money expended in maintaining and burying such poor person or persons, then and in every such case, it shall be lawful for any two aldermen of the said city, or justices residing in the said district or township of the Northern Liberties, or for any two justices of the peace (not residing in the said district or township of the Northern Liberties) of the county where such poor person or persons were last legally settled, and they are hereby authorized and required, upon complaint made to them, to cause all such sums of money as were necessarily expended for the maintenance of such poor person or persons during the whole time of his, her or their sickness, and in case he, she or they die, for his, her or their burial, by warrant under their hands and seals, to be directed to some constable of the said city, district or township of the Northern Liberties, or of such other township or borough, to be levied by distress and sale of the goods and chattels of the said guardian or guardians, overseer or overseers of the poor, so neglecting or refusing to be paid to the guardians or overseers aforesaid, where such poor person or persons happened to be sick, or to die as aforesaid; and the overplus of the monies arising by sale of such goods, remaining in the constable's hands, after the sum of money ordered to be paid, together with the cost of distress, are satisfied, shall be restored to the owner or owners of the said goods. Provided always, that if any of the said guardians of the poor, or the overseers as aforesaid, shall think him or themselves aggrieved by any sentence of such justices, or by their refusal to make any order as aforesaid, he or they may appeal to the next mayor's court for the said city, or to the next court of quarter sessions for the county where

Persons aggrieved may appeal.

where such guardians or overseers reside, and not elsewhere, who are hereby authorized and required to hear and finally to determine the same.

Of Persons Chargeable, or likely to become so, brought into the District—and the Remedies against those who bring them or entertain them.

[ACT of 29th of March 1803.]

SECTION 23. Upon information given to the mayor or recorder of the city of Philadelphia for the time being, together with one of the aldermen of the said city, or to any two justices of the peace of the county of Philadelphia, residing in the said district of Southwark or the township of the Northern Liberties, that any old persons, infants, maimed, lunatics or any vagabond or vagrant persons are imported, come or are brought within the said city, district or township, the said mayor or recorder and alderman as aforesaid, or any two justices of the peace for the county of Philadelphia, residing in the said district or township, shall cause such aged person, infants or impotent vagrant persons to be brought before them; and if upon examination they shall judge that such person or persons are likely to become chargeable to the said city, district or township, it shall and may be lawful for the said mayor or recorder and alderman, or two justices of the peace as aforesaid, by warrant or otherwise, to send for the master or merchant, or other person, who imported any such infant, lunatic, aged, maimed, impotent or vagrant person or persons as are likely to become chargeable as aforesaid, and upon proof made of their being the importers or owners of such ship or vessel in which such infant, lunatic, aged, maimed, impotent or vagrant persons who shall be judged likely to become chargeable as aforesaid, were imported, then the said mayor or recorder and alderman, or any two of the justices as aforesaid, shall and may compel the said master, merchant or importer of such infant, lunatic, maimed, aged, impotent or vagrant person or persons, to give sufficient security to carry and transport such infant, lunatic, maimed, aged, impotent or vagrant person or persons, to the place or places whence such person or persons were imported or brought from, or otherwise to indemnify the inhabitants of the said city, district and township from any charge that may come or be brought upon them by such infant, lunatic, maimed, aged, impotent or vagrant person or persons. Provided always, that if any person or persons shall apprehend him or themselves aggrieved with any such order or judgment, the person or persons so aggrieved may appeal to the next mayor's court for the city or the next court of quarter sessions of the county of Philadelphia where such order shall be made, whose judgment shall be final; but before such appeal be allowed, the person or persons appealing shall enter into a recognizance, with one good surety at least, to pay the cost and charges of such appeal in case the said order be confirmed.

SECTION 24. If any housekeeper or inhabitant of the said city, district or township shall hereafter take into, receive or entertain in his or her house or houses any person or persons whomsoever, (all mariners coming into this State, and every other healthy person coming from any foreign port immediately into the said State, only excepted) being persons who have not gained a legal settlement in some other township, borough or place within this State, and shall not give notice in writing, which they are hereby required to do within three days next after the taking into or entertaining any person or persons in his or her house, within the said city, district or township, to the guardians of the poor, or some one of them, of the said city, district and township, such inhabitant or housekeeper being thereof legally convicted by testimony of one credible witness, on oath or affirmation before any one alderman of the city of Philadelphia, or before any one justice of the peace residing in the said district or township, shall forfeit and pay the sum of four dollars for every offence, the one moiety for the use of the poor of the said city, district and township, and the other moiety to the informer, to be levied on the goods and chattels of the delinquent, in the manner hereinafter directed; and for want of sufficient distress, the offender to be committed to the gaol of the city and county of Philadelphia, there to remain, without bail or mainprize, for the space of 10 days. And moreover, in case the person or persons so entertained or concealed shall become poor, and unable to maintain him or herself, and cannot be removed to the place of his or her last legal settlement in this or any other State, if any such he or she hath, or shall die, and not have wherewithal to defray the charges of his or her funeral, then and in such case the housekeeper or person convicted of entertaining or concealing such poor person, against the tenor of this Act, shall be obliged to provide for and maintain such poor and indigent person or persons; and in case of such poor person's death shall pay the guardians of the poor so much money as shall be expended on the burying of such poor and indigent person or persons; and upon refusing so to do, it shall be lawful for the guardians of the poor in the said city, district and township, and they are hereby required to assess a sum of money on the person or persons so convicted, from time to time, by a weekly assessment, for maintaining such poor and indigent person or persons, or assess a sum of money for defraying the charges of such poor person's funeral, as the case may be; and in case the party convicted shall refuse to pay the sum of money so assessed or charged to the guardians of the poor for the uses aforesaid, the same shall be levied on the goods and chattels of the offender, in the manner hereinafter directed: but if such person so convicted have no goods or chattels to satisfy the money so assessed for him or her to pay, then it shall and may be lawful for the said aldermen or justices to commit the offender to prison, there to remain until he or she hath paid the same, or until he or she shall be discharged by due course of law.

Of Passengers arriving in Vessels from Foreign Voyages.

[ACT of 5th March 1828.]

SECTION 17. Every master or commander of any ship or other vessel, arriving at the port of Philadelphia, from any country out of the United States, or from any other of the United States than this State, shall, within 24 hours after the arrival of such ship or vessel in the said port, make a report in writing, on oath or affirmation, to the mayor of the city of Philadelphia, or in case of his sickness or absence, to the recorder of said city, or to any alderman or justice of the peace, of the name, place of birth, and last legal settlement, (if known,) age, and occupation of every person who shall have been brought as a passenger in such ship or vessel, on her last voyage from any country out of the United States, into the port of Philadelphia, and of all passengers who shall have

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UNITED STATES.

Philadelphia.

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Penalty on housekeepers entertaining poor persons not having a legal settlement.

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Appendix (F.)

Foreign
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Penalty for neglect to report, and for false report.

Mayor, &c. to direct what master shall do, viz. to pay 2 dollars 50 cents for each passengers, or to give bond of indemnity.

Penalty for neglect.

Ship liable for the penalties.
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been landed or suffered or permitted to land from such ship or vessel, at any place during such her last voyage, or have been put on board, or suffered and permitted to go on board of any other ship or vessel with the intention of proceeding to said port, and of the name or names of the owner or owners, and consignee or consignees, of such ship or vessel, under the penalty on such master or commander, and the owner or owners, consignee or consignees, of such ship or vessel, severally and respectively, of 75 dollars for every person neglected to be reported as aforesaid, and for every person whose name, place of birth, and last legal settlement, age and occupation, or either or any of such particulars, or the name or names of the owners or consignee as aforesaid, shall be falsely reported as aforesaid, to be sued for and recovered as is hereinafter provided.

SECTION 18. It shall be lawful for the said mayor, recorder, alderman or justice to require, by a short endorsement on the aforesaid report, every such master or commander of any such ship or vessel to pay to the guardians of the poor the sum of * two dollars and 50 cents. for each passenger not being a citizen of the United States, or, at the option of the said guardians of the poor, to be bound with two sufficient sureties, (to be approved of by the said board of guardians,) to the said guardians of the poor of the city of Philadelphia, the district of Southwark, and the townships of the Northern Liberties and Penn, in such sum as the said mayor, recorder, alderman or justice may think proper, not exceeding 150 dollars for each passenger not being a citizen of the United States, to indemnify and save harmless the said guardians and their successors, and the inhabitants of the said city, districts and townships, from all and every expense or charge, which shall or may be incurred by them, for the maintenance and support of any such person, or for the support of the child or children of any such persons which may be born after such importation, in case such person, or any such child or children, shall at any time within two years from the date of the said bond become chargeable to the said guardians of the poor, or to the district or townships; and the costs of the proceedings before the mayor and recorder shall be paid by the said master or commander, and a sum not exceeding two dollars for preparing said bond: and that if any such master or commander shall neglect or refuse to pay the aforesaid sum of two dollars and 50 cents. for each passenger, or to give such bond within five days after such vessel have so arrived at the said port of Philadelphia, every such master or commander, and the owner or owners, consignee or consignees of such ship or vessel, severally and respectively, shall be subject to a penalty of 500 dollars for each and every person, not being a citizen of the United States, for whom the mayor or recorder shall have determined that bonds should be given as aforesaid, to be sued for and recovered as hereinafter provided.

SECTION 19. Every ship or vessel on board of which any such person, not being a citizen of the United States, may have been a passenger, shall be liable for the said penalties; and for the purpose of enforcing such liability, a writ in the nature of a writ in an action of debt, may issue from any court, or from any magistrate having jurisdiction of the amount claimed, directed to the sheriff of the city and county of Philadelphia, wherein the masters, owners and consignees of the said ship or vessel, by the said terms and without adding their names, shall be defendants, and a clause shall be inserted commanding the sheriff to seize and attach said ship or vessel, her apparel and furniture, and to keep possession thereof, for the satisfaction of such penalties as may have been incurred during or since the last voyage of said ship or vessel; and said attachment may be dissolved by the said master, owner or consignee of said ship or vessel, giving bond, with sufficient security, to the sheriff for the payment of the said penalties, and every of them, or for paying the value of such ship (to be determined by the most convenient warden of the port and inserted in the bond) or vessel, towards the satisfaction of said penalties, and for the appearance of said master, owner or consignee, to answer to the said suit, which shall then proceed against the said master, owner or assignee, any or all of them thus giving bond, (all of whom, if uniting in the bond, shall be made defendants,) and shall proceed to final judgment; and the persons thus giving bond shall not be permitted to deny their joint or separate liabilities for the said penalties, if the facts be proved; and in such suit the plaintiffs shall be permitted to file a statement of the cause of action, and no judgment shall be reversed for any matter of form, and the said bond, to dissolve the attachment, shall be assignable in the manner of a bail-bond; and if the said attachment shall not be dissolved within 10 days after the return day of said writ, judgment by default shall be given against the masters, owners and consignees of said ship or vessel, for the amount of the penalties claimed in said statement; which statement shall be filed, as well in proceedings before a magistrate, as in those in court; and upon such judgment a *fiери facias* shall issue to the said sheriff directed; and if the proceedings be before a magistrate, a transcript of his judgment shall be filed in the court of common pleas, and a *fiери facias* shall issue from said court, under which writ the said ship, apparel and furniture, shall be sold, and the balance, after paying the debt, interest and cost, shall be paid into court for the benefit of those whom it may concern; and the service of said writ, so far as concerns the summoning of masters, owners and consignees, shall be by nailing a copy thereof to the mast of the said vessel or ship.

Of the obligation of Parents and Grand-parents, Children and Grandchildren, to contribute reciprocally to each others support.—Of the duty of the Husband towards the Wife and her Relations—and of the means of enforcing these several duties by Warrants of Seizure and Desertion.

[ACT of 29th March 1803.]

SECTION 29. The father and grandfather, and the mother and grandmother, and the children and grandchildren of every poor, old, blind, lame and impotent person, or other poor person within the said city, district and township, not able to work, being of sufficient ability, shall at their own charges relieve and maintain every such poor person as the mayor's court for the city, or the court of quarter sessions for the county where such poor persons reside, shall order and direct, on pain of forfeiting seven dollars for every month they shall fail therein.

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* By a supplementary Act, passed February 10th 1832, the justices of the peace are authorized to regulate this amount as they think proper, provided it does not exceed \$2. 50. They have fixed the rate for the present year at \$1. 50.

[ACT of 31st of March 1812.]

SECTION 5. The husband of every wife, whose father or grandfather, mother or grandmother, children or grandchildren, shall be poor, blind, lame, impotent, or otherwise unable to maintain himself or herself, and being within the said city, district or township, not able to work, shall, if of sufficient ability, at his or their own charges, relieve and maintain every such poor person as the mayor's court for the city, or the court of quarter sessions for the county where such persons reside, shall order and direct, on pain of forfeiting seven dollars for every month he shall fail therein; Provided, that such relief, so furnished by such husband, shall be demanded only where such husband shall have obtained possession of personal property, or be entitled to the rents and profits of real estate belonging to his said wife, and then only to the extent of the value of such property so acquired by his marriage.

Husbands bound to maintain the parents, grand-parents, children and grandchildren of their wives to the extent of the value of the property acquired by their marriage.

SECTION 6. And whereas it sometimes happens that men separate themselves without reasonable cause from their wives, and desert their children, and women also desert their children, leaving them a charge on the said city, district and township, although such persons may have estates, rights and credits, which should contribute to the maintenance of such wives or children; Be it therefore enacted by the authority aforesaid, That it shall and may be lawful for the guardians of the poor in the said city, district and township, having first obtained a warrant or order from two aldermen of the said city, or from two of the justices of the peace of the county, residing in the said district or township where such wife or children shall be so left or neglected, to take and seize so much of the goods and chattels, rights and credits, and receive so much of the annual rents and profits of the lands and tenements of such husband, father or mother, as such two aldermen or justices shall order and direct, for providing for such wife, and for maintaining and bringing up such child or children; which warrant or order, being confirmed at the next mayor's court for the city, or quarter sessions for the county, it shall and may be lawful for the said court there to make an order for the guardians of the poor to dispose of such goods and chattels, rights and credits, by sale or otherwise, or so much of them for the purpose aforesaid as the court shall think fit; to receive the rents and profits, or so much of them as shall be ordered by the said court, of his or her lands and tenements for the purposes aforesaid; and if no real or personal estate, rights and credits of such husband, father or mother can be found, wherewith provision may be made as aforesaid, it shall and may be lawful to and for the said court to order the payment of such sums as they shall think reasonable for the maintenance of any wife or children so neglected, and commit such husband, father or mother to the common gaol, there to remain until he or she comply with the said order, give security for the performance thereof, or be otherwise discharged by the said court; and on complaint made to any alderman of the city of Philadelphia, or to any justice of the peace residing in the district of Southwark, or township of the Northern Liberties, of any wife or children there being so neglected, such alderman or justice shall take security from the husband, father or mother neglecting, as aforesaid, for his or her appearance at the next mayor's court or court of quarter sessions, there to abide the determination of the said court, and for want of security to commit such persons.

Mode of proceeding in case of father or mother deserting their children, or husbands deserting their wives and children, and leaving them chargeable.

Collection of Property belonging to Paupers.

[ACT of 29th of March 1819.]

SECTION 1. Whenever any person is chargeable on any township, county or city, the overseers of the poor, or the directors of the poor-house, in any county, as the case may be, shall, and they respectively are hereby authorized to sue for, recover and collect any money due, or property belonging to such person, to be applied in defraying the expenses of keeping such pauper; and if after the death of any such pauper, any debts or property shall be discovered, which were due or belonging to him or her, the said overseers or directors shall have power to sue for and collect the same, and to apply the whole, or so much thereof as may be necessary to defray the expenses incurred by the support and funeral of the said pauper; and if any balance remain, the same shall be paid over by said overseers or directors to the legal heirs and representatives of such pauper, upon demand, and the delivery of a bond to them, with sufficient surety, to indemnify such overseers or directors from the claims of all other persons.

Debts and property of paupers may be collected by the overseers of the poor, &c. After death.

Guardians not to be concerned in Contracts.

[ACT of 2d of April 1821.]

SECTION 1. From and after the first day of May next, it shall not be lawful for any guardian of the poor of the city of Philadelphia, the district of Southwark, and the township of the Northern Liberties, to be, directly or indirectly, concerned in any contract for the supply or delivery of any article of goods, wares, merchandize, food, or other thing intended to be used or consumed in the almshouse, house of employment or children's asylum; and if any such guardian shall be convicted before any alderman or justice of the peace, of having been directly or indirectly concerned or engaged in any such contract, he shall pay a fine of 100 dollars for the use of the poor of the city of Philadelphia, the district of Southwark, and township of the Northern Liberties, to be recovered as penalties are now recovered for offences under the jurisdiction of justices of the peace.

Guardians of the poor, &c. not to be concerned in any contract for supplies.

Penalty.

Audit of Accounts.

[ACT of 2d of April 1821.]

SECTION 2. It shall be the duty of the auditors of the county of Philadelphia, who now are or shall be elected by virtue of the Act of Assembly of this Commonwealth, passed the 16th day of March 1809, to audit, adjust, and settle the accounts of the guardians of the poor, and managers of the almshouse of the city of Philadelphia, the district of Southwark and township of the Northern Liberties, and of the inspectors of the prison, agreeably to the provisions of the Act of Assembly, passed the 30th day of March 1791, subject nevertheless to the right of appeal as contained in the fifth section of the said last-mentioned Act.

Auditors to settle and adjust the accounts of the guardians of the poor, of the managers of the almshouse, &c.

Appendix (F.)

NEW YORK.

Foreign
Communications.

UNITED STATES.

New York.

QUERIES circulated by the Poor Law Commissioners amongst His Majesty's Consuls, and
Answers by *James Buchanan, Esq., Consul at New York.*

THE following Questions apply to customs and institutions, whether general throughout the State, or peculiar to certain districts, and to relief given—

- 1st. By the voluntary payment of individuals or corporate bodies.
- 2d. By institutions specially endowed for that purpose.
- 3d. By the Government, either general or local.
- 4th. By any one or more of these means combined.

And you are requested to state particularly the cases (if any) in which the person relieved has a legal claim.

VAGRANTS.

Question 1. To what extent and under what form does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?—*Answer.* The number of paupers during the year 1833 in the State of New York amounted to 35,777. I confess I do not comprehend, as applicable to this State, the term “under what form does mendicity prevail?” but I would observe that street-begging is contrary to law, yet it prevails.

Q. 2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country, seeking work, returning to their native places or living by begging; and by whom afforded, and under what regulations?—*A.* There is no authorized relief, yet aid is generally granted to pass paupers to their own State by the overseers of the poor rather than support them, although such expense becomes a charge on the town or county to which such pauper belongs, if a citizen of the State.

DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

Q. 1. To what extent and under what regulations are they or any part of their families billeted or quartered on householders?—*A.* No provision made for able-bodied persons, therefore they do not appear as paupers.

Q. 2. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—*A.* No such accommodation.

Q. 3. To what extent and under what regulations are there district houses of industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families, and supplying them with food, clothes, &c., and in which they are set to work?—*A.* No aid nor compassion for such. “Go, work!” “Ye are idle!” “Ye are idle!”

Q. 4. To what extent and under what regulations do any religious institutions give assistance to the destitute, by receiving them as inmates or by giving them alms?—*A.* The Jews and Society of Friends, called Quakers, with one or two obscure bodies of Christians who adopt the Apostolic practice, alone provide for their poor brethren. The Roman Catholics make provision for orphans of any communion.

Q. 5. To what extent and under what regulations is work provided at their own dwellings for those who have trades, but do not procure work for themselves?—*A.* No regulations exist for able-bodied people, save such as proceed from private benevolence.

Q. 6. To what extent and under what regulations is work provided for such persons in agriculture or on public works?—*A.* No provision for such characters.

Q. 7. To what extent and under what regulations are fuel, clothing or money distributed to such persons or their families, at all times of the year, or during any particular seasons?—*A.* The commissioners of the almshouse and overseers of the poor exercise a discretionary power during the severity of winter in the city of New York, but alone dispensed after Christmas (*sic*).

Q. 8. To what extent and under what regulations are they relieved, by their children being taken into schools, and fed, clothed and educated or apprenticed?—*A.* The commissioners of the poor apprentice the children out and send them to distant parts of the country out of the reach of their parents, so that rarely are they called on to provide for children whose parents are alive. There are no schools where children are fed and clothed apart from the pauper establishments of the city, town or county to which they belong.

Q. 9. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are the relatives of the destitute compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking charge of part of their families?—*A.* The father, mother and children, who are of sufficient ability, of any poor person who is blind, old, lame, impotent or decrepit, so as to be unable to work, shall relieve and maintain such poor person, as the overseer of the poor shall approve. In case of refusal, the court of sessions of the peace shall order such support, or part thereof, as those liable are able to sustain.—*N. B.* This law is rarely enforced.

Q. 10. To what extent and under what regulations are they assisted by loans?—*A.* No such assistance is afforded.

IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

Q. 1. To what extent and under what regulations are there almshouses or other institutions for the reception of those who, through age, are incapable of earning their subsistence?—*A.* No peculiar almshouse or institution for the aged.

Q. 2. To what extent and under what regulations is relief in food, fuel, clothing or money afforded them at their homes?—*A.* Answered to No. 7 of preceding queries.

Q. 3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—*A.* No

A. No such arrangement prevails; greatly indeed is all such to be deprecated, as producing in children an incentive to cast their parents on such misapplied bounty.

Q. 4. To what extent and under what regulations are they quartered or billeted on the householders?—No such custom prevails.

Q. 5. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are their relatives compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking part of their families?—A. Answered in No. 9 of preceding queries.

SICK.

Q. 1. To what extent and under what regulations are there district institutions for the reception of the sick?—A. Hospitals are provided in some places, in others medical men are paid for attending the sick in the alms or poor-houses.

Q. 2. To what extent and under what regulations are surgical and medical relief afforded to the poor at their own homes?—A. Alone through benevolent associations.

Q. 3. To what extent and under what regulations are there institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick?—A. Same as No. 2.

Q. 4. To what extent and under what regulations is assistance given to lying-in women at their homes, or in public establishments?—A. Lying-in institutions have not been regarded. None exist apart from private benevolence, and such of a narrow character, being confined to married women only. This puritanical display of charity is altogether at variance with the principle its advocates pretend to regard, who are peculiarly pious Christians; yet Mary Magdalene would have no chance with these devout people.

Q. 5. To what extent and under what regulations are there any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick?—A. There are partial associations (only in cities) called dispensaries, which unhappily produce a disposition to take medicine, because it can be obtained without payment; no region can be in a healthy state where such infectious establishments exist. This assertion is not made on light grounds.

CHILDREN.

Illegitimate.

Q. 1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall, wholly upon the mothers or wholly upon the fathers; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations?—A. The reputed father and mother; in case of inability, to be supported by the county or town in which it shall be born. The property of such liable should they abscond.

Q. 2. To what extent and under what regulations are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards?—A. Not liable.

Q. 3. To what extent and under what regulations are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?—A. They are clothed, educated and apprenticed out when qualified. Superintendents or overseers bound under a penalty of 250 dollars or 56 l. 5s., or imprisonment, if they neglect to provide for any bastard neglected or abandoned.

Orphans, Foundlings, or Deserted Children.

	ORPHANS.	FOUNDINGS.	DESERTED CHILDREN. Whose Parents are known.
Q. 4. To what extent and under what regulations are they taken into establishments for their reception?	Provision as above	Provision as above	Ditto; but parents prosecuted and rendered liable.
Q. 5. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?	No such provision	No such provision	No such provision.
Q. 6. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?	- - Ditto - -	- - Ditto - -	- - Ditto.
Q. 7. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?	- The same as to paupers.	- - Same - -	- - Same.

CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

Q. 1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception?—A. Same as paupers. The State has lately erected an establishment to which the several counties or towns may send their mutes, on certain terms, and to a certain extent free, while others are aided according to the inability of their parents, where these mutes are instructed, dieted and clothed. There are two of these State establishments: one at New York; the annual charge is 29 l. 5s. sterling; the other at Canagoharie, at 18 l. The

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.

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number supported by the State at these institutions, at the city 96, at Canagoharie 24. There are at the two places this year, 1833, 168 deaf mutes receiving education upon the most improved principles.

Q. 2. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?—A. No such practice prevails; the overseers of the poor have charge of such persons.

Q. 3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—A. Same answer as No. 2.

Q. 4. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are their relatives compelled to support them?—A. Same answer as in No. 9, as to paupers; no distinction made.

IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

Q. 1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception?—A. There has been erected at the expense of the State, near the city of New York, an asylum, where the most approved system of medical treatment has been happily administered, to which the overseers of the poor of the several counties in the State may send their poor insane, and for which they pay three dollars a week or 13s. 6d. The numbers during the year 1833 were, lunatics, 602, idiots, 219, in the State establishments.

Q. 2. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?—A. No such system prevails.

Q. 3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—A. They are not boarded when not kept at the county poor-house; they are sent to the establishment at the city of New York or Canagoharie.

Q. 4. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are their relatives compelled to support them?—A. The same as in case of pauperism.

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

You are requested to state whether the receipt, or the expectation of relief, appears to produce any, and what effect—

Q. 1st. On the industry of the labourers?—A. The labour is chiefly performed by emigrants, who soon learn that provision is made for their families. Having no elevation of character to sustain, and from the rate of wages being so much above what they were accustomed to, they are, it may be stated, universally improvident. The evils of such provision I have shown in my Report on the Poor Laws, lately forwarded to Viscount Palmerston, to which I beg leave to refer*.

Q. 2d. On their frugality?—A. Highly injurious.

Q. 3d. On the age at which they marry?—A. No influence, as there is employment for all who will work.

Q. 4th. On the mutual dependence and affection of parent, children and other relatives?—A. The national evil is want of filial reverence; the ills produced by all the other consequences of democracy fall short of this. This sin is cherished by the poor laws.

Q. 5th. What, on the whole, is the condition of the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, as compared with the condition of the person subsisting on alms or public charity? Is the condition of the latter, as to food and freedom from labour, more or less eligible? (See p. 261 & 335 of the "Extracts.")—A. Those supported in the almshouse and prisons much superior to the self-supported labourer: the latter in this climate suffer from fever and ague in summer, and cessation of work in winter. The pauper or felon knows no change; his provision, his comforts are sure.

You are also requested to read the accompanying volume†, published by the English Poor Law Commissioners, and to state the existence of any similar mal-administration of the charitable funds of the country in which you reside, and what are its effects?

You are also requested to forward all the dietaries which you can procure of prisons, workhouses, almshouses and other institutions, with translations expressing the amounts and quantities in English money, weights and measures, and to state what changes (if any) are proposed, in the laws or institutions respecting relief in the country in which you reside, and on what grounds?

In replying to the following Questions respecting Labourers, you are requested to distinguish Agriculturists from Artisans, and the Skilled from the Unskilled.

Q. 1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer by the day, the week, the month or the year, with and without provisions in summer and in winter?—A. House-carpenters, millwrights, rope-makers, sail-makers, iron-founders, brass-founders, bricklayers, plasterers, stone-cutters, house-painters, glass-blowers, glass-cutters, tailors, hatters, sadlers, shoemakers, harness-makers, one dollar and a half a day generally; in winter and dull times one-fourth may be deducted. Ship-carpenters generally and stone-cutters have higher wages, but throughout the year not better for a constancy. House servants have, viz. men from 2l. 10s. to 3l. a month; maids, 1l. 10s.; gardeners, without board,

* Already printed in this Appendix, p. 109.

† "Extracts from the Information received by His Majesty's Commissioners, as to the Administration and Operation of the Poor Laws."

board, 4 *l.* a month; drivers of coaches, the same. Man and horse at labour 8 *s.* a day; yoke of oxen and plough 11 *s.* 3 *d.* a day.

Q. 2. Is piece-work general?—A. Very general, in winter particularly.

Q. 3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—A. The average of a day-labourer throughout the year may be 3 *s.* 6 *d.*, deduct for sickness, &c. one-fifth, leaves 44 *l.*; his board, lodging, washing, &c. 26 *l.*; if married he pays for a room 10 *l.* a year, 3 *l.* a ton for coal; other charges equally great. Agricultural labourers hired by the month, at from 1 *l.* 10 *s.* to 2 *l.* 5 *s.*, board, washing and mending included; in harvest 4 *s.* 6 *d.* a day, with board.

Q. 4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?—A. Labourers who remain in the city rarely become independent; they are kept poor by their children, who as soon as they can earn wages, leave their parents. Education is gratuitous, but not valued; all who can pay prefer doing so. The teachers acting as such from necessity, abandon their vocation as soon as they can. Religious teachers are generally liberally paid; depending on the free will of their hearers, they are assiduous and exemplary. A poor family pays their religious teacher about 1 *l.* 5 *s.* a year.

Q. 5. Is there any, and what employment for women and children?—A. There is no specific employment for women and children, save in cotton factories.

Q. 6. What can women and children under 16 earn per week, in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed?—A. Women, washing, scouring, &c. 3 *s.* 6 *d.* a day; binding shoes and hats, 2 *s.*; tailoring, 1 *s.* 6 *d.* & 2 *s.*; without board: no field-work done by females, except picking fruit. Young girls are in demand as servants, from 13 *s.* 6 *d.* to 18 *s.* a month, with board; in factories they earn 2 *s.* a day, without board, for which they pay 10 *d.* a day.

Q. 7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8 and 5 years respectively, (the eldest a boy,) expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?—A. Labourer's wives in this country rarely can earn wages; they are occupied in their house-work; for as soon as their children are able to earn their living they abandon their parents' dwelling to shift for themselves. No fee is required with apprentices, therefore the child is independent of the parent; on the contrary, wages is paid the apprentice in the city. Some earn by washing, &c., as noticed in No. 6.

Q. 8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children, and if so, on what food?—A family united could subsist well on their aggregate earnings, have tea, coffee, and meat twice a day; but no such order prevails. Democracy destroys restraint, dissolves parental authority, early inculcates freedom from authority; all are equal, all have equal rights, all may become president, &c. &c. &c., and thus poverty is entailed, and the mutual ties of parent and child reduced to a *bearing* of the name.

Q. 9. Could it lay by anything, and how much?—A. Answered in the foregoing.

Q. 10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?—A. No such class exists as labourers provided for in this way.

Q. 11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations?—A. Like answer.

Q. 12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale?—A. None.

Q. 13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—A. Labourers of lands frequently work on shares. The owners of the land furnish the implements of husbandry, the oxen, and the seed for the first crop; the labourer and his family have their living, and they divide the produce with the landlord.

Q. 14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?—A. Returns are not kept save in the cities of New York and Albany; the deaths may be estimated at one in 30.

Q. 15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?—A. No returns kept.

Q. 16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?—A. No returns kept.

Q. 17. The average number of children to a marriage?—A. Five. No registry: this number collected from men of observation; while three come to maturity.

Q. 18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?—A. No registry kept.

Q. 19. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year?—A. Twenty-seven per cent.*

Q. 20. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 10th year?—A. Forty-nine per cent.*

Q. 21. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 18th year?—A. Fifty-three per cent.*

Q. 22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—A. Females, in the country, 18; in cities, 20. Males, in the country, 21; in cities, 27. Early marriages are encouraged, as preventing illicit intercourse. No fear of want if industrious.

Q. 23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—A. No cause intervenes; parents not consulted; no hindrances. All clergymen and magistrates can solemnize marriage; much evil

* In the city of New York. No registry kept in other parts of the State save Albany and Hudson; I believe latterly at Utica.

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evil is prevented by the facility. Early marriages greatly promote virtuous affections; every hindrance in the way of marriage is productive of sinful indulgences and depravity: universally so with men.

Q. 24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried; 2d, the married, save?—A. The unmarried save more generally, but invariably to get married.

Q. 25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—A. In the savings' bank, which pays 5 per cent. The shares in joint-stock companies are so small, as to be within the reach of all; many shares being so low as 10 $\frac{1}{2}$.

[Note.—Where shillings and pence are set forth, sterling money is used, as also with £. sterling is meant; the New York shilling is eight to the dollar, while sterling 4 s. 6 d. The shilling varies in different States.]

New York, 24 March, 1834.

Jas. Buchanan, Consul.

QUERIES of the POOR LAW COMMISSIONERS circulated amongst
HIS MAJESTY'S CONSULS.

SOUTH AMERICA.

VENEZUELA.

VAGRANTS.

1. To what extent and under what form does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?—Mendicity exists to a very considerable extent in most of the larger towns of this Republic. Wednesdays and Saturdays are the two days in usage for begging from house to house, when multitudes of paupers, chiefly old women and men, swarm in the streets. Poverty amongst the once respectable and opulent families is very great indeed; and their chief resource for relief is on the arrival of the above days.

2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country, seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded, and under what regulations?—None.

DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are they, or any part of their families, billeted or quartered on householders?—No regulations exist of the kind.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—No regulations exist of the kind.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there district houses of industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families, and supplying them with food, clothes, &c., and in which they are set to work?—No houses of industry exist.

4. To what extent and under what regulations do any religious institutions give assistance to the destitute, by receiving them as inmates, or by giving them alms?—None exist.

5. To what extent and under what regulations is work provided at their own dwellings for those who have trades, but do not procure work for themselves?—There are no regulations of the kind.

6. To what extent and under what regulations is work provided for such persons in agriculture or on public works?—There are no regulations of the kind.

7. To what extent and under what regulations are fuel, clothing or money distributed to such persons or their families; at all times of the year, or during any particular seasons?—There are no regulations of the kind.

8. To what extent and under what regulations are they relieved, by their children being taken into schools and fed, clothed and educated, or apprenticed?—There are no regulations of the kind.

9. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are the relatives of the destitute compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking charge of part of their families?—There are no regulations of the kind.

10. To what extent and under what regulations are they assisted by loans?—There are no regulations of the kind.

IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there almshouses or other institutions for the reception of those who, through age, are incapable of earning their subsistence?—None exist at present in Venezuela. During the time of the Spaniards, many of the chief cities had establishments of the kind; but the Revolution destroyed them, as well as many other charitable institutions.

2. To what extent and under what regulations is relief in food, fuel, clothing or money afforded them at their homes?—None exist.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—None exist.

4. To what extent and under what regulations are they quartered or billeted on the householders?—None exist.

5. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking part of their families?—None exist.

SICK.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there district institutions for the reception of the sick?—One hospital for sick, and that originally established (viz. since the Revolution) for military patients, but at present is open to others; it is in Caracas, and but a wretched institution in every way. There is another of old existence, for the leprosy alone, containing about 50 wretched beings.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are surgical and medical relief afforded to the poor at their own homes?—None.

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3. To what extent and under what regulations are there institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick?—None exist.
4. To what extent and under what regulations is assistance given to lying-in women at their homes, or in public establishments?—None exist.
5. To what extent and under what regulations are there any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick?—None exist.

CHILDREN :

Illegitimate.

1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall; wholly upon the mothers, or wholly upon the fathers; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations?—The support of hundreds of the illegitimate children falls wholly upon the mothers, in consequence of the mothers not being able to fix upon the fathers; however, a law does exist to compel the father to support the infant, but it is seldom resorted to, from the intricacy of parochial law, as well as expense, as a small bribe on the part of the man to the alcalde will put an end to the proceedings.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards?—None exist to compel maintenance by relatives of parents under such circumstances.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?—No public institutions exist for the reception of infants thus born; but when dead, if left at the cathedral door, are buried at the expense of the church. Hence, weekly, many children of all ages, from a month to four or five years, are thus exposed, often during a whole day.

Orphans, Foundlings, or Deserted Children.

	Orphans.	Foundlings.	Deserted Children, whose Parents are known.
4. To what extent and under what regulations are they taken into establishments for their reception?	-- No establishment for orphans or foundlings exists.	Ditto - -	-- No instances of deserted children, whose parents are known, occurs; but many infants are found within the passage-doors of the dwelling-houses, left early in the night by their mothers: thus entailing their future existence, &c. on the charity of the master or mistress of the house. Many in Caracas are thus brought up.
5. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?	-- None exist -	Ditto.	
6. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?	-- Ditto - -	Ditto.	
7. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?	-- Ditto - -	Ditto.	

CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception?—None exist.
2. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?—None exist.
3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—None exist.
4. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—None exist.

IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

	Idiots.	Lunatics.
1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception?	-- Idiots are met with in the streets of Caracas, but who generally live with their relatives.	-- No establishments exist for their reception under such misfortune. The afflicted reside with their friends or relatives.
2. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?	-- None exist - -	-- None exist.
3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?	-- Ditto - -	-- Ditto.
4. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?	-- Ditto - -	-- Ditto.

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

You are requested to state whether the receipt, or the expectation of relief, appears to produce any, and what effect,

1st, On the industry of the labourers? 2d, On their frugality? 3d, On the age at which they marry? 4th, On the mutual dependence and affection of parent, children, and other relatives? 5th, What, on the whole, is the condition of the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, as compared with the condition of the person subsisting on alms or public charity? Is the condition of the latter, as to food and freedom from labour, more or less eligible? (See p. 261 and 335 of the Poor Law "Extracts.")—The answers to the foregoing questions fully supply those to the above request.

LABOURERS.

1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month, or the year, with or without provisions, in summer and in winter?—Per diem, four rials (or 1 s 6d.), with the usual provisions.

2. Is piece-work general?—Not general.

3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—No harvest-work in the Republic; wheat but little cultivated; nearly all supplied from the United States of North America.

4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?—It is not possible to answer this question, as most of the peons or labourers have small spots of land somewhere, either on the estate they work for, or not far distant, which they cultivate in Indian corn, beans, and other vegetables or fruits, for the support of their families.

5. Is there any, and what employment for women and children?—Yes; in picking and cleaning coffee.

6. What can women and children, under 16, earn per week, in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed?—From three to four rials per diem, being paid by the almod (12th part of 100 lbs.), as much depends on the number gathered. The coffee crop lasts about three months.

7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged fourteen, eleven, eight, and five years, respectively, (the eldest a boy), expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?—About 90 current dollars during the three months of the crop, and but little, if any thing, during the rest of the year; in sterling money about 15 l.

8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children, and if so, on what food?—Maize cakes, vegetables, and fruit, form the chief aliments of the peon and his family; and they can with little difficulty subsist, if they choose to work, on their aggregate earnings.

9. Could it lay by any thing, and how much?—The peons here are never so provident.

10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?—About an acre.

11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations?—Large estate-holders.

12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale?—The common labourer seldom or never pays rent, land is so plenty and so much uncultivated.

13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—About an acre or two, at from three to five dollars per acre.

14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?—No regular registers being kept, cannot be ascertained.

15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?—No regular registers being kept, cannot be ascertained.

16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?—No regular registers being kept, cannot be ascertained.

17. The average number of children to a marriage?—Very prolific; six, eight, and ten.

18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?—The proportion of illegitimate births is very great.

19. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year? 20. Proportion that die before the end of their tenth year? 21. Before the end of their eighteenth year?—No register kept.

22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—Males, from 20 upwards, and females from 15 to 18 and 20; after the last-named age, from climate, they soon become, apparently, old women.

23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—Great poverty.

24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried; 2d, the married, save?—Few or any instances in either case amongst the lower classes; for they are a sad improvident set, and very fond of gambling of various descriptions.

25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—None whatever.

Appendix (F.)

CARTHAGENA DE COLOMBIA.

Foreign
Communications.

SOUTH AMERICA.

Carthugena de
Colombia

VAGRANTS.

1. To what extent and under what form does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?—To a very limited extent, say under one per cent. of the population, and that confined wholly to the towns on the coast.

2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country, seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded and under what regulations?—None whatever, nor is it customary for persons of this class to pass through the country.

DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are they, or any part of their families, billeted or quartered on householders?—The facilities of procuring food, clothing, &c. with but very little labour, is the cause that there are none of this class of poor in this country.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—Same as the preceding answer.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there district houses of industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families, and supplying them with food, clothes, &c. and in which they are set to work?—Same; and there are no district-houses.

4. To what extent and under what regulations do any religious institutions give assistance to the destitute, by receiving them as inmates, or by giving them alms?—No assistance is granted or required by the destitute able-bodied in this country.

5. To what extent, and under what regulations is work provided at their own dwellings for those who have trades, but do not procure work for themselves?—This is never done here.

6. To what extent and under what regulations is work provided for such persons in agriculture or on public works?—The same; and the public works are supplied from convicts or hired labourers.

7. To what extent and under what regulations are fuel, clothing or money distributed to such persons or their families; at all times of the year, or during any particular seasons?—This is never practised or required here.

8. To what extent and under what regulations are they relieved, by their children being taken into schools, and fed, clothed and educated or apprenticed?—There are no regulations, but children or relatives support their parents if they become destitute and unable to work.

9. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are the relatives of the destitute compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking charge of part of their families?—There is no compulsion used except in extreme cases, which rarely occur.

10. To what extent and under what regulations are they assisted by loans?—(No answer.)

IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there almshouses or other institutions for the reception of those who, through age, are incapable of earning their subsistence?—There are only two institutions in this city which admit the aged sick or infirm. The convent of San Juan de Dios receives about 50 of both sexes, who are supplied with medical assistance, food, &c. through the year; and twice in each year the poor (not inmates) who apply receive food for the day, and a small sum in money (6*d.*) It is supported by bequests of individuals; it is under the patronage of government, and the direction of the bishop. The *Obra Pie* admits 30 sick, of the female sex only, who are supported as above; it was founded and endowed by individuals, and is under their control.

2. To what extent and under what regulations is relief in food, fuel, clothing or money afforded them at their homes?—No relief is afforded.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—Not practised here.

4. To what extent and under what regulations are they quartered or billeted on the householders?—Same as the preceding.

5. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking part of their families?—There are no regulations, nor is there any compulsion except in very extreme cases, which rarely ever occur.

SICK.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there district institutions for the reception of the sick?—See the answer under the head "Impotent through Age," No. 1. In addition, there is, about five miles from town (to leeward), an establishment to which all lepers are sent, in number from 50 to 60.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are surgical and medical relief afforded to the poor at their own homes?—This is not practised here; medical men assist, from charitable motives.

3. To

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3. To what extent and under what regulations are there any institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick?—Same answer as No. 1.

4. To what extent and under what regulations is assistance given to lying-in women at their homes, or in public establishments?—Same; but at the Obra Pie medical aid is given to persons in this state.

5. To what extent and under what regulations are there any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick?—None, except through voluntary donations.

CHILDREN:

Illegitimate.

1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall; wholly upon the mothers, or wholly upon the fathers; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations?—They are supported by either father or mother, according to their means; but more generally by the mother.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards?—This very rarely occurs, and when it does, they are compelled to support the child according to their abilities.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?—There is now no establishment of the kind here, nor are they supported by the public.

Orphans, Foundlings, or Deserted Children.

	Orphans.	Foundlings.	Deserted Children, whose Parents are known.
4. To what extent and under what regulations are they taken into establishments for their reception?—	No establishment. Supported by charity.	Same. Supported by the individual at whose house the child is found.	Same. This rarely occurs. Supported by charity.
5. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?—	Not practised -	- - Same - -	- - Same.
6. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—	- - Same - -	- - Same - -	- - Same.
7. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—	No compulsion -	- - Same - -	According to ability.

CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

	Cripples.	Deaf & Dumb.	Blind.
1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception?—	No establishments, except San Juan de Dios and Obra Pie; otherwise supported by charity.	Same -	Same.
2. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?—	- - None - -	None -	None.
3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—	- - Same - -	Same -	Same.
4. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—	In the first degree; but it is a very rare occurrence.		

IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception?—There are no establishments, except the hospital of San Juan de Dios or the common jail.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders? 3. Or boarded with individuals?—Not practised here.

4. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—In the first degree.

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

You are requested to state whether the receipt, or the expectation of relief, appears to produce any, and what effect,

1st, On the industry of the labourers? 2d, On their frugality? 3d, On the age at which they marry? 4th, On the mutual dependence and affection of parent, children, and other relatives?—Produces no effect, as there is no expectation of relief held out; the object of the institutions alluded to being only to support the aged poor and sick of both sexes.

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Appendix (F.)

Foreign Communications.

SOUTH AMERICA.

Carthagenade Colombia.

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.

SOUTH AMERICA.

Carthagen de
Colombia.

5th, What, on the whole, is the condition of the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, as compared with the condition of the person subsisting on alms or public charity. Is the condition of the latter, as to food and freedom from labour, more or less eligible? (See p. 261 & 335 of the Poor Law "Extracts.")—There can be no comparison made, as no able-bodied labourer is supported here by alms or charity.

LABOURERS.

1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month, or the year, with and without provisions, in summer and in winter?—About four rials, equivalent to 2s. sterling, in the towns, and from two to three rials in the country, daily, when work is to be obtained; in both cases, the labourers find their own provisions.

2. Is piece-work general?—Very much so, in the country parts.

3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—About 60 dollars per annum. This is uncertain, as neither in town nor country is there any species of employment permanent.

4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?—About 60 dollars per annum, or 12*l.* sterling. Their children are taught gratis in parochial schools.

5. Is there any, and what employment for women and children?—None, except as house-servants, &c.

6. What can women, and children under 16, earn per week, in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed?—They are employed as above, and earn about one-third of men's wages.

7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8, and 5 years respectively, (the eldest a boy,) expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?—About 250 dollars, or 50*l.* sterling.

8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children; and if so, on what food?—Very comfortably, chiefly on animal food.

9. Could it lay by any thing, and how much?—Such a thing is rarely thought of here by this class.

10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?—Land being so abundant, there is no fixed quantity.

11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations?—The lowest class, or coloured and black population, and Indians.

12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale?—Rarely any rent is paid, except in some cases a trifling sum for the land they wish to occupy; the habitations or huts are built by the labourers.

13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—Same as the preceding.

14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?—Not easily ascertained; probably six to eight per cent.

15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?—Probably from eight to ten per cent.

16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?—This cannot be accurately ascertained, as the cohabiting of the sexes is more frequent than matrimony amongst the lower orders.

17. The average number of children to a marriage?—From four to five.

18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?—Cannot be ascertained accurately; probably the illegitimate exceed the legitimate as six to five.

19. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year?—The number cannot be ascertained, but they are considerable; say one-half the deaths occur in this class.

20. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 10th year?—About a sixth of the preceding.

21. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 18th year?—Very limited; say about five in the hundred.

22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—Twenty-one years males, females from 15 upwards.

23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—The promiscuous intercourse of both sexes, and their frequent practice of cohabiting, amongst the lower class; add to this their demoralized state, and the force of bad example in their superiors.

24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried; 2d, the married, save?—Such a thing is rarely ever thought of in this country; their wants are few, and the means of attaining them abundant.

25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—This is never practised here; they never save or look to the future.

Joseph Ayton, His Majesty's Pro-Consul.

H A Y T I.

VAGRANTS.

1. To what extent and under what form does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?—Mendicity prevails to an inconsiderable extent, and is confined to the aged, crippled, blind or diseased.

2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country, seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded and under what regulations?—There is no relief whatever provided; in either of these cases, they would have to depend entirely on private charity.

DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are they, or any part of their families, billeted or quartered on householders? 2. Or boarded with individuals?—No such provisions under any circumstances.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there district houses of industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families, and supplying them with food, clothes, &c., and in which they are set to work?—There are no establishments of the kind in Hayti.

4. To what extent and under what regulations do any religious institutions give assistance to the destitute, by receiving them as inmates, or by giving them alms?—There is no religious institution in Hayti that can be called upon to afford relief to mendicants of any description.

5. To what extent and under what regulations is work provided at their own dwellings for those who have trades, but do not procure work for themselves?—Work is not provided for any persons except in case of vagabondage, when persons who are found idle, without being able to give a satisfactory account of themselves, are liable to imprisonment and forced labour.

6. To what extent and under what regulations is work provided for such persons in agriculture or on public works?—Able-bodied beggars or vagabonds are liable to an imprisonment, from six days to one month; after which they are compelled to work in the fields (*à la culture*), under the superintendence of the rural police.

7. To what extent and under what regulations are fuel, clothing or money distributed to such persons or their families; at all times of the year, or during any particular seasons?—None.

8. To what extent and under what regulations are they relieved by their children being taken into schools, and fed, clothed and educated, or apprenticed?—Children are never taken from their parents, there being no establishments of the kind for their reception.

9. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are the relatives of the destitute compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking charge of part of their families?—I am not aware of any law that compels relations to take care of each other; there is, however, a strong feeling of relationship amongst the Haytians, and they seldom suffer each other to want the absolute necessities of life, which in this climate, amongst the lower orders, are very few and easily procured.

10. To what extent and under what regulations are they assisted by loans?—The loan system is unknown.

IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there almshouses or other institutions for the reception of those who, through age, are incapable of earning their subsistence?—There are no almshouses or other institutions of that nature in the Haytian republic.

2. To what extent and under what regulations is relief in food, fuel, clothing or money afforded them at their homes?—None of these articles are afforded, except in cases of private charity.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—The aged, crippled, blind or diseased are permitted to beg, under certain circumstances, on Saturdays, when, I imagine, their collections are sufficient to support them the remainder of the week.

4. To what extent and under what regulations are they quartered or billeted on the householders?—No regulations for quartering or billeting them in private houses.

5. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking part of their families?—There is no compulsion in the case.

SICK.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there district institutions for the reception of the sick?—No such institutions in Hayti.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are surgical and medical relief afforded to the poor at their own houses?—None provided for. Surgical or medical aid must depend on private charity.

Appendix (F)

Foreign
Communications.

SOUTH AMERICA.

Hayti.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick?—No institutions of this nature.

4. To what extent and under what regulations is assistance given to lying-in women at their homes, or in public establishments?—Dependent, in such cases, on private charity.

5. To what extent and under what regulations are there any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick?—None whatever.

CHILDREN :

Illegitimate.

1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall; wholly upon the mothers, or wholly upon the fathers; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations?—The support of illegitimate children is generally voluntary on the part of both parents: there being little or no distinctions between legitimate and illegitimate children in Hayti.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards?—There is no compulsion in the case.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?—Not supported, under any circumstances, at the public expense.

Orphans, Foundlings, or Deserted Children.

4. To what extent and under what regulations are they taken into establishments for their reception?—No establishments for orphans, foundlings, or deserted children.

5. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?—Not billeted or quartered, under any circumstances.

6. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—Not boarded, under any circumstances.

7. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—No compulsion in any of the cases mentioned.

CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

1, 2, 3, 4. Same answers as to the four immediately preceding questions.

IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

1, 2, 3. There are no establishments for the reception of idiots and lunatics; nor are they billeted or quartered on householders, nor boarded with individuals.

4. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—There is no compulsion by law that I am aware of; custom, however, has made it obligatory for the relations of idiots and lunatics to support them, and they are in general allowed to go at large.

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

You are requested to state whether the receipt, or the expectation of relief, appears to produce any, and what effect,

1st, On the industry of the labourers?—As no person has a legal claim on charity, the labouring population are obliged to work sufficiently to obtain their subsistence, which in this climate requires very little labour.

2d, On their frugality?—The creoles in Hayti are as improvident and thoughtless as children.

3d, On the age at which they marry?—Marriage is rarely solemnized; young people, however, are "*placé*" as soon as they arrive at the age of puberty; and to be able to support a "*chère amie*" is probably the greatest excitement to industry a Haytian has got.

4th, On the mutual dependence and affection of parent, children, and other relatives?—A strong affection in general prevails between Haytian parents and children; the latter generally support the former in their old age and sickness.

5th, What, on the whole, is the condition of the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, as compared with the condition of the person subsisting on alms or public charity? Is the condition of the latter, as to food and freedom from labour, more or less eligible? (See p. 261 and 335 of the Poor Law "Extracts.")—I have already stated Hayti as without public charities. Taking the climate into consideration, the condition of the labouring population is good, a sufficiency of food and clothing being obtained at the expense of very little labour. That of the wretched beings who subsist by begging is much the same as in other countries.

LABOURERS.

1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer by the day, the week, the month, or the year, with and without provisions, in summer and in winter?—The wages of an artisan is about one dollar a day; exchange from 3 s. to 2 s. 6 d. That of an agricultural labourer 25 cents, or about 7 d. a day.

2. Is piece-work general?—Piece-work is common.

3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—It is impossible to say what a labourer may obtain by piece-work, as that must depend on the bargain made. It is only necessary to ascertain the daily wages, rejecting Sundays and holidays, which will give the artisan about 300 dollars a year, or about 38 l., and the labourer 75 dollars, or about 9 l. 10 s., both of which are ample to supply their respective wants.

4. State

4. State as nearly as you can the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?—I should imagine the labourers spend to their last farthing; or if they do save money it is invariably for the purpose of adding to the number of their wives. This class of people rarely, if ever, think of sending their children to school, the expense being too great for their means.

5. Is there any, and what employment for women and children?—None, except as servants and as labourers in their husband's fields.

6. What can women and children under 16 earn per week in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed?—Women, when hired as servants, receive from four to eight dollars—10s. to 20s.—per month.

7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8, and 5 years, respectively (the eldest a boy), expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?—Except in the capacity of servants, I do not think that women would hire themselves at all. A few are employed in the towns as sempstresses or shopwomen.

8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children, and if so, on what food?—A family can easily subsist on the earnings of their parents. Their food consists of what are termed "Ground Provisions," *i. e.* plantains, sweet potatoes, and other vegetables and fruits, which, if not raised by themselves, are obtained at a cheap rate.

9. Could it lay by anything, and how much?—I should say very little could be laid by, even by a very frugal family.

10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?—A labourer can obtain any quantity of land at a merely nominal rate of purchase; every person resident in the country has a small piece of land (sufficient to maintain his family, and probably producing a surplus) attached to his hut.

11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations?—The labourers in general own their houses themselves.

12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale?—I believe the labourers, even when working other people's land, do not pay rent for their habitations, which are given them, in addition to wages, or a participation in the production, as the case may be.

13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—I do not know an instance of a labourer renting land; if he takes land of another person, the terms are the division of the profits.

14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?—I have no means of ascertaining exactly. They must, however, be nearly equal, as the population is considered stationary.

15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?—Same answer as preceding.

16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?—Legitimate marriage rarely takes place, and never amongst the labouring population; connexions which are considered equally binding are formed between the sexes in almost every case when they arrive at the age of puberty.

17. The average number of children to a marriage?—Three or four to each connexion just mentioned.

18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?—Probably one legitimate to one thousand illegitimate.

19. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year?—I cannot state the exact proportion, but it is large when compared with other countries, owing to a want of judicious treatment.

20. Proportion of children that die before the end of their tenth year?—The above answer applies to this question.

21. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 18th year?—After reaching ten years, I consider the Haytians to be a hardy race of people; many of them live to a great age.

22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males and females?—Males in general procure themselves wives in the manner before stated at the age of twenty. Girls are considered marriageable at fourteen.

23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—Nothing that I am aware of ever delays the forming marriages, such as they are, in this country, except the total inability of the man to support his wife, which very rarely occurs.

24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried; 2d, the married, save?—Savings are rarely made in either case, except for a specific purpose, such as to pay for a service to release the souls of departed relations from purgatory, when the savings of years will be expended in paying the priest, and entertaining their friends on the occasion.

25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—When money is saved it is generally buried, or otherwise hoarded, by which a great deal is supposed to be annually lost. There are no securities in which to invest savings.

I add, as an addendum, the heads of laws affecting mendicity and vagabondage, which, however, are rarely put into execution.

Able-bodied beggars are liable to an imprisonment of six days to one month, and afterwards compelled to work in the fields. Beggars, even unable to work, or cripples, if

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employing threats, or entering a house or inclosure, without the permission of the proprietor, or feigning sores or infirmities, or begging in gangs, unless husband and wife, parents and young children, cripples or blind with leader, are liable to imprisonment of three months to one year.

Beggars or vagabonds disguised or armed, or having in their possession implements for housebreaking, even though not having made use of them, are liable to from one to three years' imprisonment; or in the event of committing any acts of violence, to the penalties thereunto attached likewise.

Penalties in force against bearers of forged certificates or forged passports to be enforced with the utmost rigour in the case of vagabonds and beggars. In every instance after the expiration of their punishment able-bodied beggars or vagabonds are sent to cultivate the soil, whilst those who are unable to work remain under the surveillance of the police from one to three years.

All persons who are neither proprietors nor farmers in the district of their residence, or who have not contracted with a proprietor or farmer, are considered as vagabonds, and liable to imprisonment until they have contracted to work according to law. (The law states, that persons not employed in the service of the state, either as soldiers or workmen, and whose profession it is to cultivate the ground, or to cut wood for exportation, are obliged to make a legal compact with a proprietor or farmer of their district.) If the person so detained has not, at the expiration of a week, taken measures to work as a field-labourer, he will be employed on public works of the town where he has been detained, until the time he shall have entered into the aforesaid compact.

Any labourer found idle on a working day, and during working hours, considered as a vagabond, and liable to be treated as such; and every individual found idle and unable to give a satisfactory account of himself to be treated as a vagabond.

With regard to the dietary of prisons it consists of a small proportion of ground provisions, the rest being made up by charitable contributions.

G. W. C. Courtenay,
His Majesty's Consul in Hayti.

F R A N C E.

LA LOIRE INFÉRIEURE.

VAGRANTS.

1. To what extent and under what form does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?—Vagrants in France are punishable by the law, which recognises different shades of vagabondism, and thus great confusion often takes place before the magistrates. In the Department Loire Inférieure there is no asylum for mendicants; but Nantes has a species of workhouse, "St. Joseph's House," supported entirely by private subscriptions. To this house the tribunals often send vagabonds, in virtue of the 274th Article of the Penal Code, although the directors of the establishment have contested, and still contest, the right assumed by the judges to do so; and they never receive any person so sent as a criminal to be detained a certain number of days at labour as if in a prison, but merely give him a refuge as an act of charity, and liberty to leave the place, if he likes to go, before the time expires. The number of vagrants that formerly infested Nantes (strangers to the department as well as to the city) have decreased to about a tenth part since begging in the streets was prohibited, and the paupers sent to this establishment.

2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded, and under what regulations?—The hospitals of Nantes receive all workmen, travellers, and needy strangers that fall sick in the city (if foreigners, at the charge to their consuls of 1 s. 3 d. sterling per day for men, and 10 d. for women.) If a man, and his family also, being destitute, wishes to return to his native place, and has not rendered himself liable to be committed as a vagrant, the préfet has the power to give a passport to him for that place; on the production of which at the mairie of the commune from which he sets out he receives from the public funds of the department three halfpence per league for the distance from thence to the next place he is to be relieved at, and so on to the end of his journey, each place he has to stop at being set down on his passport; if he deviates from the route designated, he is arrested as a vagabond.

There is in France throughout the whole country a general union for each of several trades, the carpenters, bakers, masons, tailors, &c. In each city or town of consequence, each society has a member who is called "the mother," who receives the weekly contributions of those who reside in that place, affords relief to all of its members passing through it, and is obliged to procure work for the applicant, or support him at a fixed rate, established by their bye-laws, until a situation be provided for him there or elsewhere. Those unions sometimes assume a very dangerous power, by compelling masters to hire all their members that are without work, before they engage one man who does not belong to them.

DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

1. To what extent, and under what regulations are they, or any part of their families, billeted or quartered on householders?—There are no laws nor regulations on the subject.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—In Nantes there are poor persons who receive travelling paupers, resident poor, and poor labourers, for the trifling sum of a penny per day. The propriety of placing those houses under police regulations has often been considered, for the purpose of introducing regularity, order, and cleanliness, but as yet nothing more has been done than to subject them to the visits of a commissary of police, to ascertain if they contain any felons escaped from justice. The persons who keep these houses are themselves generally poor labourers. For the penny per day the lodger has the half or a third part of a bed, has the use of the candle, and of the fire to warm himself, and has his soup made for him, *i. e.* his bread boiled in cabbage-water, a pint of which is the usual allowance served up with his bread. Poor families seldom live with such persons; they occupy a room from 30 to 40 francs per annum; frequently three or four old women hire an apartment between them; they spin, and the Bureau de Bienfaisance (a charity under the auspices of the mayor and the control of a board of administration) gives them some trifling assistance in bread, from 6 to 12 lbs. per month, fire-wood, straw, and medicines. Thus they subsist, or rather exist, until sickness increases their misery; when being unable to pay their proportion of rent, they are obliged to have recourse to the hospital or to St. Joseph's.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there district houses of industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families, and supplying them with food, clothes, &c., and in which they are set to work?—There are no establishments of the kind; the "St. Joseph's" is called a refuge and workhouse, but the labour required of the inmates is a regulation with a view to the preservation of order and prevention of laziness more than to the object of gain; the proceeds of the work done there is divided with the labourers; the average of each person's work does not produce above a penny per day.

4. To what extent and under what regulations do any religious institutions give assistance to the destitute, by receiving them as inmates, or by giving them alms?—There are

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no religious institutions that receive the poor, or give alms to them, or provide work for them; on the contrary, the convents in the city are all feebly supported, and several of them are always on the look-out for work for themselves, of which they would deprive those who live by needle-work in the city, if they were not strongly recommended to charge the same prices, or at the lowest rate, not to work for less.

5. To what extent, and under what regulations is work provided at their own dwellings for those who have trades, but do not procure work for themselves?—In times of political commotion, of unforeseen events, of rigorous seasons, when the usual courses of labour are stopped, the civil administrations create temporary workshops, furnish tools, &c., to the labourers, and enter into contracts for repairs to the streets, quays, bridges, roads, &c., from which a large city, as well as the country parishes, can always draw some advantages for the money so distributed to employ those persons who would otherwise be supported without work by the same funds. The money required on those occasions is furnished by the treasury of the city or commune, assisted by private subscriptions from nearly all persons in easy circumstances. The want of regular or parish workhouses for labourers, unemployed, is in some measure supplied by private charities, for a great number of wealthy families and others of the middling class give employment to old men, women and children, in spinning, and in weaving of coarse linen, at prices far beyond those that the articles can be purchased at in the shops; but this plan is adopted to prevent a disposition to idleness, although at a greater sacrifice, perhaps, than would be made by most of the promoters of it, in a public subscription.

6. To what extent, and under what regulations, is work provided for such persons in agriculture, or on public works?—Refer to the previous reply. In the winter 1831–32 the shipwrights, ropemakers, sailmakers, &c., of Nantes, were in great distress, arising from the few ships that were being built, and the total want of work in not fitting out those that were in port. A subscription was raised for their relief; when, in lieu of giving the money to the men to support their families until confidence in the government and situation of France might be restored, and commerce become more active, a committee of merchants and others was formed to superintend the building of three ships, from 300 to 400 tons burthen each, which provided employment for nearly all those who required it, and who worked on those vessels only when unengaged elsewhere. The ships so built met a ready sale, and thus a great many families were supported at a trifling expense; good workmen saved from the shame attending the life of a pauper, and at the same time kept from a state of idleness.

In various parts of the country the government occasionally employs a number of labourers in draining public lands, and cutting or improving canals; the greater part of the money expended on the former is considered as given in charity, and the time, the extraordinary length of time, that is occupied on the works connected with the canals (the one from hence to Brest, for example), makes it appear as if it were work for the labourers only when in want of employment, instead of a communication that is required by the public between the towns situated on it. The unemployed labourers of the country are generally set to work on the roads in the winter; but there are not many in this part of France that are not required on the farms, that give them work in the summer. The number of hands hired by the farmers regularly is so small that there always remains a sufficient quantity of ordinary work, such as digging trenches, topping trees, cropping hedges, &c. during the winter. The new roads that are being cut in *La Loire Inférieure* and *La Vendée* will give employment for all the labourers not otherwise occupied in the two departments for at least four years; that is, if the same inactivity be observed in the completion of those works as has been observed in all others. There is some idea of establishing in Lower Brittany a colony similar to that of Fredericksvord.

7. To what extent, and under what regulations are fuel, clothing or money, distributed to such persons or their families; at all times of the year, or during any particular seasons?—The Bureau de Bienfaisance distributes annually about 80,000 fr.; the chief part, or very nearly the whole, to poor families at their homes, in clothes, food, fuel, and sometimes money; but of the latter as little as possible. Les dames de charité (ladies of the first families, who are appointed annually to visit and give relief to the poor, each having a fixed district) distribute about three-fourths of that sum, which would be insufficient for the indigent if it were not assisted by distributions made by the priests of the different parishes and other persons employed to do so by private families, who give their alms in that manner, and not at their own residences. It is generally supposed that, in the whole, not less than 250,000 fr. are so distributed annually in the city of Nantes. In making this distribution care is always taken to prefer invalids to those in health.

8. To what extent, and under what regulations are they relieved by their children being taken into schools, and fed, clothed and educated, or apprenticed?—A law has lately passed the chambers for the free instruction of the children of poor persons in every parish; but Nantes has had her schools for some time. About 3,000 of both sexes are educated by private subscriptions. Boys receive instruction only, but girls receive in addition a proportion of clothing and nourishment. About a tenth of the boys are apprenticed out from the funds when they leave the school.

9. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are the relatives of the destitute compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking charge of part of their families?—The law requires parents to support their children in a direct line, and children their parents, according to their means. The judges have to consider those means, and to award assistance accordingly. It is not often a case comes before the tribunals, although the refusals of workmen to assist their infirm parents.

parents are very numerous, they arise sometimes from a life of debauchery, or from ingratitude; but oftener from inability to spare any part of their earnings from the money required to support their wives and children.

10. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they assisted by loans?—The city of Nantes has a "monte de piété (a pawnshop, under the direction of the government; no other is permitted), which, with a capital of 250,000 fr., lends annually 500,000 fr. upon an average of 70 to 80,000 deposits, at the rate of 12 fr. Two-thirds of the estimated value of the articles is the sum generally advanced.

IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there alms-houses or other institutions for the reception of those who, through age, are incapable of earning their subsistence?—In the city of Nantes there is a general hospital called the "Sanitat" for the reception of the old and impotent; at present it contains about 800; it answers to an English workhouse; the inmates are lodged, fed, clothed, and are taken care of in every way; they are employed about trifling work, but the average gain by it does not exceed 20 fr. per annum for each. The average cost appears to be about 11 to 12 sous per day for each person. The establishment of St. Joseph's, already alluded to, is in fact a sort of assistant to the Sanitat (although supported by private charity) for the 100 to 120 old people it contains. The Sanitat has a ward for dangerous as well as ordinary lunatics; is under the same board and direction as the Hôtel Dieu (the general hospital for the sick); but each is supported by its own funds, arising from bequests and donations from private persons and from the city funds; yet if either hospital should require any assistance, the money wanted would be voted by the city treasury.

The general council for the department votes about 1,200 to 1,250 francs annually to the Sanitat from the departmental funds.

2. To what extent and under what regulations is relief in food, fuel, clothing or money afforded them at their homes?—3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—4. Or quartered or billeted on the householders?—5. And to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking part of their families?—These questions have been replied to in the answers respecting the destitute able-bodied.

SICK.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there district institutions for the reception of the sick?—Nantes has a general hospital (Hôtel Dieu) for the sick, containing 600 beds, 300 of which are reserved for the indigent of the city. The expense of this establishment is about a franc to 25 sous per day to each person. The military are received at 20 sous per man per day, which is paid by the government. It is supported by its own funds, arising from bequests and donations, and grants made from time to time by the city; is under the same board and direction as the Sanitat. If a poor person becomes sick in the country, he is either relieved by the curé of the parish or by some of the more wealthy neighbours, or he comes into Nantes and resides there for a week or ten days before he makes an application to the mayor to be admitted into the hospital; he is then sent there as an inhabitant of the city. The authorities in the country have not the right to send a patient to the Hôtel Dieu, yet a great number arrive at the hospital sent by country practitioners, who have not the skill, or perhaps the leisure or inclination, to attend to them; and *they are always received* if it be possible to take them in. The students at the hospital are ever ready to admit any difficult cases or fractures from the country, for their own improvement.

There are also hospitals for the sick at the following places in the Loire Inférieure: Ancenis, for the town and commune; Chateaubriand, Paimbœuf, Savenay and Clisson, for the towns only.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are surgical and medical relief afforded to the poor at their own homes?—Besides the succour afforded to the poor at their homes by the Bureau de Bienfaisance, there are three dispensaries supported by that establishment for administering relief to the sick, who are attended at their homes if necessary by the nuns of St. Vincent de Paule; 12 or 14 of whom are kept in the pay of and are wholly supported by the Bureau. They carry to them soup and other victuals, remedies, &c., and lend them linen and clothes, if wanted. There are a number of young men, who are either studying or have just completed their study of medicine, who are anxious to give their assistance gratis, and who are in constant attendance on those who are receiving relief from the dispensaries. It is impossible to state the extent to which such relief is given; the nuns are paid by the Bureau de Bienfaisance, which also pays for the medicines, &c. they distribute; but the sum that is thus expended bears but a small proportion to the amount that is distributed by the hands of those sisters, who, from the accurate knowledge they possess of the real situation and condition of each person they visit, are employed by numerous wealthy persons to distribute privately such charities as they feel disposed to give; and can thus be well applied in providing those little comforts for the invalids, as cannot be sent from the Bureau to all those who require them, although the funds are increased from time to time by the proceeds of representations at the theatre, public concerts, &c. given for that purpose.

Independent of the foregoing, there are several tradesmen's societies on the plan of benefit societies in England; the members of which pay five or six sous per week, and

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receive in case of sickness all necessary assistance in medicines, &c., besides an indemnity of a franc to a franc and a half per day, during the time they are unable to work.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick?—The dispensaries, as observed at No. 2, supply food, clothing and medicines from the Bureau de Bienfaisance, which gives as little money as possible, fearing the abuse that might be made of it by the parents or children of the invalids.

4. To what extent and under what regulations is assistance given to lying-in women at their homes, or in public establishments?—The Hôtel Dieu possesses a medical school, superintended by the most distinguished physicians and surgeons of the city, who give lectures daily; it has a branch for midwifery, and in that department are received and treated gratuitously 15 to 20 women daily; they are admitted, if they wish it, a month to six weeks before their expected delivery, and they leave the hospital when they are re-established. Those who are confined at their homes are under the care of the dispensaries. There is also a "Société Maternelle" in the city, for giving assistance at their homes to poor married women of good character, that provides yearly for about 100 at their accouchement, supported by private contributions. The city treasury voted 2,000 francs per annum to be paid to this society. To each woman on her delivery is given some bed-linen, shifts, &c.; a basket of all necessary baby-linen, and 12 francs in money. Another basket of baby-linen in three months, and five francs per month for 10 months. A physician, surgeon and midwife attend them gratuitously.

5. To what extent and under what regulations are there any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick?—Answered above by observations on the Hôtel Dieu, dispensaries, Société de Maternité and the benefit societies. One of the latter receives very liberal subscriptions annually, (probably from those who have been members of it, and are now in easy circumstances,) which enables it to give more extended relief to its claimants than it could otherwise grant.

CHILDREN:

Illegitimate.

1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall; wholly upon the mothers, or wholly upon the fathers; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations?—The laws of France prohibit any search for the father of an illegitimate child; it is the mother who must provide for it.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards?—It does not appear that the parents of a woman are obliged to support her illegitimate children; if the mother should die, and the parents possess no tenderness for their grandchild, then it becomes abandoned, and would be received as such at the hospital.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?—The directors of the hospitals at Nantes, with a view to the preservation of children, allow 3 to 4 francs per month for three years to all single women who present themselves with their child and a certificate that they are unable to support it. No one is refused, yet the number of children thus supported during three years has seldom exceeded 120 at a time. It has been observed, that the mortality of children so left under the care of their parents is considerably less than among those who are abandoned and provided for by other means than through the mother.

Orphans, Foundlings or Deserted Children.

4. To what extent and under what regulations are they taken into establishments for their reception? 5. Or billeted or quartered on householders? 6. Or boarded with individuals? 7. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—The law requires an establishment (a tour) in each department, for the secret reception of children. Every arrival is particularly noted and described in a register kept for that purpose, that the infant may be recognised if it should be claimed. The children, after having received all necessary assistance and baptism, are confided to women in the country, (a regulation of this department only,) to dry-nurse them, (au biberon); they are paid eight francs per month for the first year, seven for the second and third, six until the ninth year, and four francs per month from that time until the child is 12 years old; when the nurse who has taken care of one from its birth to that age receives a present of 50 fr. for her attention; a basket of requisite linen is given with the child, and a new suit of clothes annually for seven years. These regulations are observed for orphans and foundlings. The registers for the last 20 years give an average of 360 to 370 admissions annually; more than one-half of them die under one year old; therefore, with the deaths at other ages, and the claims that are made for some of them before they attain 12 years, the establishment has seldom at its charge more than from 1,200 to 1,300, of all ages from 0 to 12. *Vide note, p. 178.*

The parents being unknown when they place their infants in the "tour," cannot be traced afterwards unless they acknowledge themselves; they are, however, as has been observed before, liable for the expenses of their offspring; and whenever they are discovered, whether by claiming their children or otherwise, the right to make them repay the costs they have occasioned is always maintained, and they are compelled to pay the whole, or as much as their finances will admit of.

Deserted children of the city, or the children of poor persons who cannot support them,
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are received and treated in a similar manner, without being placed in the "tour;" they are admitted according to the state of the finances appropriated to such branch of the establishment, which in general permits from 80 to 100 to be on it. Certificates are required that the parents are dead, the child abandoned, or that the mother is totally unable to support it, or that she has a number of young children. Independent of the 1,400 children thus received by the Hôtel Dieu, the Bureau de Bienfaisance supports 200 *legitimate* children, and the Société Maternelle from 60 to 80, until they attain the age of 18 years.

CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception? 2. Or are they billeted or quartered on householders? 3. Or boarded with individuals?—All these are received at the hospitals as if they were old and infirm poor; but if the parents or children are in such circumstances as will justify the demand, they have to pay for the support of their relatives, or a small allowance towards it. There is no special establishment for those unfortunate beings, further than the directors allow a certain sum to a professor in the city, for instructing such deaf and dumb children as may be at the hospital. When it was proposed, some time since, to have an asylum for the latter class exclusively, it was ascertained that there were but 90 deaf and dumb of every age, sex and condition in the whole department.

4. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—Answered before.

IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception? 2. Or are they billeted or quartered on householders? 3. Or boarded with individuals? 4. Are their relatives compelled to support them?—A new hospital in lieu of the buildings hitherto occupied as the "Sanitat" is nearly completed. The apartments for idiots and lunatics are calculated for 400, besides accommodation for 50 or 60 epileptics, who will be treated after the most approved process of modern science. Private apartments will be allotted to those whose families will pay for them. The others will receive the same attentions as the poor invalids in the Hôtel Dieu; but, if sent from the country, or any other department, the commune that sends the patients will have to pay 300 fr. per annum for each. The convent "La Maison de Providence" receives a few females, at a pension of about 800 to 1,000 francs per annum; and Dr. Drouet has a "Maison de Santé," where he receives all invalids, lunatics, &c., and charges, according to circumstances, from 100 to 300 francs per month. Relatives are compelled to support them, as explained before respecting destitute able-bodied, No. 9.

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

You are requested to state whether the receipt, or expectation of relief, appears to produce any, and what effect,

1st, On the industry of the labourers?—There can be no doubt that the prospect of an asylum for the indigent creates amongst the working class a disposition to idleness and debauchery, whilst at the same time there are those who look down with disgust on their miserable brothers who are compelled to accept a public charitable support; and the shame which they consider attaches to a man who does it stimulates them to avoid the doors of an hospital, by industry and sobriety. The number of these however is very small, whilst the applications for admittance to the Sanitat and to St. Joseph's are so very numerous, so far beyond the accommodation that can be granted, that after the name of an applicant is registered he has (frequently) to wait 18 to 24 months for his turn. For the sick, however, at the Hôtel Dieu it is not so; for arrangements are made that no delay takes place with any case requiring immediate relief or treatment.

2d, On their frugality?—Frugality in Nantes with the labouring classes is the effect of necessity more than of virtue. Drunkenness is common, and temperance almost a stranger to them. In the country it is nearly as bad; nine out of ten of the little farmers who come to this market, Wednesdays and Saturdays, and particularly at the fairs, return home in a state of intoxication. The life led by them when on military duty, from the age of 20 to 28, most certainly demoralizes them.

3d, On the age at which they marry?—Marriages are not contracted at a young age, seldom under 25; domestic women-servants get married when they have saved from 200 to 400 francs by their wages, which are from 100 to 150 per annum; by the time they have saved such a fortune they have attained the age of 30 or perhaps 40; and then they marry men younger than themselves, who look more to the money than to the happiness of the women.

4th, On the mutual dependence and affection of parent, children, and other relatives?—There appears to be but little affection on the part of the men. In general the wife and children either support themselves, or are supported by charity, whilst the husband spends all his earnings in debauchery.

5th, What, on the whole, is the condition of the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, as compared with the condition of the person subsisting on alms or public charity? Is the condition of the latter, as to food and freedom from labour more or less eligible? (See p. 261 and 335 of the Poor Law "Extracts.")—The shades between the

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healthy labourers of the lowest class that support themselves, and those who obtain relief from charitable institutions, are so slight, that it is almost impossible to state the difference in their conditions. *No man* has a *legal claim* upon any of the charities; in the distribution of which, however, there is but one fixed rule that governs the distributors, and that is, to compel the applicants for relief to work to their utmost power, and to give such relief only in each individual case as they suppose to be necessary with the wages he can or ought to earn, according to the demand for labourers at the time.

LABOURERS.

1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month, or the year, with and without provisions in summer and in winter?—In Nantes the wages of workmen, without provisions, are,

Masons, from 2 to 2½ francs per day,	1 s. 8 d. to 2 s. 1 d.	
Stone-cutters, 2½ to 3 fr. *	-	2 s. 1 d. to 2 s. 6 d.* (* sic.)
Shipwrights, 2 to 3 fr. *	-	2 s. 1 d. to 2 s. 6 d.*

Rope-makers, painters, tailors, carpenters and others generally are the same.

Labourers get from 1½ f. to 1½ f. or 1 s. 0½ d. to 1 s. 3 d. per day.

In the country, workmen obtain about two-thirds to three-fourths of the foregoing prices.

Agricultural labourers get, per day, without food,

Men, 15 to 20 sous	-	-	-	or 7½ d. to 10 d.
Women, 8 to 16	-	-	-	or 4 d. to 8 d.
Men during harvest, 25 to 30,	or 1 s. 0½ d. to 1 s. 3 d.			
Women ditto	-	20	-	or 10 d.

If supplied with food, a deduction is made from these rates.

Men, hired as servants, are lodged and boarded with the farmer, and their wages vary from 120 to 200 francs, 5 l. to 8 l. 6 s. 8 d. With allowances at harvest, and other little presents, a man-servant is supposed to cost his master yearly 250 to 300 francs, or 10 l. 8 s. 4 d. to 12 l. 10 s.; a woman-servant 150 to 200 francs, or 6 l. 5 s. to 8 l. 6 s. 8 d. With the exception of harvest and vintage, the wages are the same in the summer as they are in the winter.

2. Is piece-work general?—Contractors generally hire the workmen by the piece, but the finances of the latter are not improved by it; for if they work extra hours in five days, they will spend the sixth in a debauch.

The difference between the price of an ordinary day's labour and the earnings of a man by piece-work is, in nine cases out of ten, so dissipated, either daily after leaving work, or on the Sunday or Monday following.

3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—A workman (mechanic or trades-journeyman) in Nantes is supposed to be employed, on the average, 250 days in the year; the average wages are about 2½ francs, or 2 s. 1 d. per day, which will give him yearly 26 l. 0 s. 10 d. A labourer in Nantes, on the average, obtains nearly the same number of days' work, at 1 s. 0½ d. to 1 s. 3 d. per day, which will give him yearly 13 l. 0 s. 5 d. to 15 l. 12 s. 6 d.

In the country, a labourer, on the average, obtains nearly 300 days' employment, which, at the average rate of his wages, 9 d. per day, will give him yearly 11 l. 5 s. The extra wages at harvest do not amount to 20 francs, and perhaps 10 more will fully compensate the farmer for any sustenance or douceur that he may give him. From 12 l. to 12 l. 10 s. is the utmost sum of his wages and emoluments.

4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?—According to the price of lodgings, victuals and clothing in Nantes, a steady labourer at the highest rate of his wages, 1 s. 3 d. per day, supposing he had 300 days' employment in the year, is considered to be able to support a wife and three young children; if he has a larger family, is out of employ, or is at a lower rate of wages, without his wife and children being able to gain a little, he is regarded as indigent, and in need of succour. A labourer, his wife, and three children consume in the day from 8 to 10 lbs. of bread, which is their chief food, and will cost him 240 fr.; his cabbages and other vegetables, butter or fat for his soup, 90 fr.; his room, 50 fr.; leaving 70 fr. or 2 l. 18 s. 4 d. for clothes, fuel, &c.; which make up the sum of his wages for 300 days at 1½ fr., or 1 s. 3 d. per day. The wife in general adds a little to the husband's earnings by spinning, and sometimes weaving; but it is not much when the family is young. They are at no expense for teachers, as already explained.

In the country, the children have been instructed by some nuns of the same order as those who attend at the hospitals; but the whole population is so scattered, and the distances so great from one village school to another, that very few of the peasants' children get any instruction at all.

5. Is there any, and what employment for women and children?—Women are employed in some of the manufactories in Nantes, as washers, &c. When they have not an infant at the breast, the mother confides her child or children to the care of some aged neighbour, which enables her to go out to a day's work. Examples are but too frequent of the husband dissipating all he earns, whilst the poor wife is obliged to exert herself for her own and children's support.

To

To prevent the increase and lessen the present state of disorder into which the greater part of the labouring class and mechanics of Nantes has fallen, a number of master tradesmen and proprietors of factories will not employ those men who do not agree to allow a certain sum weekly to be retained from their wages for the use of the wife and family. The example spreads, and will no doubt become more general; but this circumstance shows forth, in strong colours, the immoral state of the working class in France.

6. What can women, and children, under 16, earn per week, in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed?—Women in the city earn from 12 sous to a franc, 6*d.* to 10*d.*, per day; children under 16 years get from 6 to 10, and even 12 sous, 3*d.* to 5*d.* and 6*d.*, per day. A great number of women and girls are employed by tailors and slop-sellers, who not only supply the numerous ships' crews and the bargemen of the inland navigation, which is immense, but export considerable quantities of clothing to the colonies. The most part of this work is done by the piece, but it seldom gives more to the labourer than is above stated. In the country they get as stated at No. 1.

On some farms in Lower Brittany the women sow the corn, but in general they are occupied in household work, knitting and spinning, and also in attending upon the cattle. The cows are daily led out to the wastes, public roads and paths, by women or girls, who remain with them until they are brought home again, the women being occupied all that time in spinning or knitting. They also carry the produce of the dairy to market.

7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8, and 5 years, respectively, (the eldest a boy), expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?—In Nantes there are several instances of a woman with a family of four children, from the age of 5 or 6 to 16, gaining together from 360 to 400 francs, or 15*l.* to 16*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*, during the year. In the country it must be considerably less, as the children cannot be so profitably employed.

8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children; and if so, on what food?—If the father obtains constant employment, as stated at No. 4, and applies the whole of his earnings to the support of his family, and his wife and children are enabled to add 200 or 300 francs thereto, he may have it in his power to buy a little bacon or other meat now and then, and maintain his family without assistance from the Bureau de Bienfaisance; but it was observed at No. 4 that there remained only 70 francs to provide fuel and clothes for the whole family, after the hire of a room, the bread, and vegetables for the soup had been paid for out of the father's wages.

9. Could it lay by any thing, and how much?—The foregoing replies show the impossibility of any saving.

10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation? 11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations? 12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale? 13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—There are no cottages for labourers, as are seen in England: the chief part of the work on farms in this part of France is done by servants in the house of the farmer, or by married labourers, to whom an acre or two, sometimes as high as 10, according to the quality, is fenced off from the estate for the use of the man and his family; for which he has to give a certain number of days' work. If such patch of land requires to be ploughed, the farmer does it for him for an additional number of days' work. Besides those, there are an immense number of little proprietors, having from an acre and a half to 10 or 15 acres; and they give their labour also to the farmers of larger estates, receiving in return either assistance with oxen, carts, ploughs, &c., or an equivalent in some produce which they do not raise on their own land. Very little money, if any, passes between them. These little properties have sprung up from labourers and others fencing in small patches of commons or waste lands. Nearly all the vineyards in the Loire Inférieure are cultivated by labourers, who have a small spot of ground partitioned off from the main estate; it is for married men only that ground is so divided; the single men live with their families in the villages, or in public-houses, but generally in the latter. In regard to these questions, it must be observed that almost every farmer who hires an estate takes such a one as will just sustain his family, without the aid, or with the assistance only of a man or a man and woman servants, and that therefore very few daily labourers find employment. Few estates run to 200 acres, and, if so large, a daily labourer is only hired during harvest, so wretchedly is the husbandry of the country managed.

The cottages or houses in villages for labourers are in general the property of the owners of the large estates in the neighbourhood, as well as those that are built on the patches of land for the use of those who are married; some of the latter, however, are built at the joint expense of the farmer and labourer. A cottage or cottages in a detached place from a village, or a house in such a situation, with a little plot of ground for a garden for each apartment, lets for about 20 to 30 francs a year per room, whether the building consists of one or of four rooms. In the villages the rent is a little higher, from 30 to 50, and sometimes as high as 80, if the garden be large to a cottage with only one room. These buildings are so seldom on sale, that the price cannot be stated with accuracy.

14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?—The population of the Loire Inférieure being 470,093, and the deaths (1832) having been 11,999, gives one death to every 39.

15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?—The births during the same year were 13,840, which gives one birth to every 34.

16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?—The number of marriages the same year was 3,182, which gives one to every 147.

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FRANCE.

La Loire Inférieure.

17. The average number of children to a marriage?—The number of legitimate births was 11,805, which gives $3\frac{2}{3}$ to each marriage.

18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?—About 8 to 1 in Nantes, 12 to 1 in the country.

19. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year?—The number of deaths in 1832, under one year old, 1,970. Chateaufort states, *for all France*, 33 deaths, under one year old, out of every hundred births, which is nearly double the number of deaths of that description for this department; but the mortality is much greater amongst the orphans, foundlings and deserted children of this city received at the hospital. An account, made up to the year 1828, gave an average of 52 deaths, under one year old, of every hundred children received there; and since that date it has increased considerably. A similar calculation for the city of Paris gives $62\frac{9}{10}$.

20. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 10th year?—The number of deaths under 10 years old was $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} 1,970 \\ 2,504 \end{smallmatrix} \right\} 4,474$.

21. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 18th year?—The number of deaths under 18 years old was $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} 4,474 \\ 616 \end{smallmatrix} \right\} 5,090$.

22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—The average age of the men, about 25; women, 30.

23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—The greater part of the men look out for women who have saved a little fortune from their wages, and have realized from 200 to 400 francs. By marrying a woman who has been able to accumulate this sum, they calculate on two advantages: first, the money; and secondly, the chance of having fewer children, as she has in general attained the age of 30 to 35 or 40 before she can have saved so much.

Farmers' sons and daughters marry rather earlier in life; but the union of a young couple is often delayed by an unproductive harvest, and they remain single until after a good one, when the parents of each set them out in the world by giving them a cow, an ox, and perhaps a few sheep and some seed-corn.

24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried, 2d, the married, save? 25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—In Nantes the unmarried workmen and labourers save nothing, and it has been already shown that the married cannot lay up anything. There is a savings' bank of about 12 years' standing in the city, which receives so small a sum as a franc, and allows $3\frac{1}{2}\%$ interest, but does not permit above 2,000 fr. to be invested in one name. Servant-girls generally deposit their earnings with it. Master tradesmen, and women who keep small shops, students, merchants' clerks, children whose parents are dead and have left them a small pittance, with other children who have received presents in money, form the greater part of the proprietors of the stock in the bank. Some of the foregoing classes place their money in the hands of notaries to be lent at a higher rate of interest than is paid by the bank; but this is not the case so frequently as it used to be before the establishment of the bank, the proprietors being so liable to be and being so often cheated by the notaries, who never fail to state the money has remained unemployed for many months, although it may have been at interest from the time it was placed with them.

Henry Newman,

His Majesty's Consul at Nantes, Department Loire Inférieure.

Note respecting Orphans, Foundlings, &c.

When they have attained their twelfth year, they are brought into the city and placed in a building at the Sanitat appropriated to that purpose, unless the woman who has nursed the child or any other person in the country wishes to keep it, which frequently happens. They are provided for at the Sanitat, taught to work, and instructed until they attain the age of 18, if they are not previously taken from thence by housekeepers for servants, or by tradesmen for apprentices, subject to the control and surveillance of the administration until they arrive at that age, when they are free to go where they please, and to act for themselves.

There are women in the city who make it their business to place infants in the "Tour," and who afterwards attend the delivery of them to the country nurses, and thus, knowing where certain children are placed, give notice to the parents, who can visit them without being discovered. Children thus recognised are frequently demanded by their parents for servants, in the ordinary way; and by this plan they screen themselves from the payment of the child's support.

DIETARY of the Prison in Nantes.

		English.
Each person, per day, $1\frac{1}{2}$ lb. bread, contract price,	$11\frac{1}{2}$ centimes	$26\frac{1}{2}$ oz. $1\frac{12}{100}$ d.
1 litre soup, made with lard		
and cabbages	8	1 qt. $-\frac{8}{10}$ d.

St. Joseph

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<i>St. Joseph's Refuge.</i>				English.	
Each man, per day	- 1 lb. bread	- - -	2 sous	- -	17 $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. 1 d.
Each woman, per day	- $\frac{3}{4}$ lb. do.	- - -	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	- -	13 $\frac{1}{8}$ - $\frac{3}{4}$ d.
Soup made with { 1 litre, served twice a day, and					
vegetables and fat { 2 oz. bread added for each					
person each time - - }					
			1 $\frac{1}{2}$	- -	1 qt. - $\frac{3}{4}$ d.
On 3 days in the week	6 oz. meat to each	- -	3	- -	6 $\frac{3}{4}$ oz. 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.
On 4 ditto ditto	rice, potatoes or harricots	- -	2	- -	1 d.

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La Loire Inférieure.

L'Hôtel Dieu.

At the hospital there are four classes, arranged by the physicians and surgeons, who order the inmates to be considered in such as they judge proper, according to their state of health. Those of the first class, in good health, so far as regards their diet, receive

				English.	
Each person, daily	10 oz. meat, dressed and clear of bones	- 8 sous	-	11 oz.	4 d.
	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. white bread	- - -	3	- -	27 - 1 $\frac{1}{2}$
	1 chopine red or white wine	- - -	2	- -	1 pint 1
Served twice per day, with { 2 oz. bread each time to					
each person - - } 1 litre of soup { of the meat, with					
cabbages and other vegetables					
			1 $\frac{1}{2}$	- -	1 qt. - $\frac{3}{4}$

The second class receive three-fourths of each of the above.

The third - ditto - one-half - ditto.

The fourth - ditto - one-quarter - ditto.

Sanitat.

Daily to a man in tolerable health,	{ 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. bread	- 3 sous	-	27 oz.	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.
who works well	- - -	{ 3 chopines white wine,	3	- -	3 pts. 1 $\frac{1}{2}$
At 10 in the morning	- - -	1 do. soup, and beef	2	- -	1 pt. 1
At 4 in the afternoon	- - -	8 to 10 oz. roast meat	4	- -	9 oz. 2

Two days in the week, fish, potatoes, rice, haricots, and other vegetables are served in lieu of meat.

To a woman who works well, 1 lb. of bread and 2 chopines of wine daily, with the other rations as for a man.

To those men and women who are old and feeble is given as much of each as they can make use of, which on the average is not more than one-half of the above rations.

The foundlings, &c. have their rations served out to them three times per day, in lieu of twice, as the men and women.

HAVRE.

Havre.

VAGRANTS.

1. To what extent and under what form does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?—Mendicity is not allowed by law; still it exists to a considerable extent amongst the old and infirm, which is tolerated by the police.

2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded and under what regulations?—The only relief granted to persons passing through the country seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging, is a passport gratis, and three sous per five kilometres (1 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. sterling) for 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ British miles, allowed by the mayor from the funds of the town.

DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are they, or any part of their families, billeted or quartered on householders?—There are no regulations respecting destitute able-bodied persons, nor are they, or any part of their families, ever billeted or quartered on householders.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—They are never boarded.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there district houses of industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families, and supplying them with food, clothes, &c., and in which they are set to work?—There are no district houses of industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families.

4. To what extent and under what regulations do any religious institutions give assistance to the destitute, by receiving them as inmates, or by giving them alms?—There are no religious institutions for assisting the able-bodied destitute.

5. To what extent and under what regulations is work provided at their own dwellings for those who have trades, but do not procure work for themselves?—There are no institutions or regulations for finding them work either at their dwellings or otherwise; they are entirely dependent upon private individuals.

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6. To what extent and under what regulations is work provided for such persons in agriculture or on public works?—As the above, No. 5.

7. To what extent and under what regulations are fuel, clothing or money distributed to such persons or their families; at all times of the year, or during any particular seasons?—There are no regulations for their relief; in severe winters private subscriptions are raised and placed at the disposal of a committee of ladies, who distribute tickets for bread, soup, wood and clothing, according to the merits of the case, but never sufficient to support, but merely to assist them to live.

8. To what extent and under what regulations are they relieved by their children being taken into schools, and fed, clothed and educated, or apprenticed?—Persons proving that they cannot educate their children, receive an order from the mayor to admit them to a free school paid by government; they are taught reading, writing, arithmetic and the principles of religion; but are not fed or clothed.

9. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are the relatives of the destitute compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking charge of part of their families?—There are no regulations to compel persons to assist their destitute relatives in any way.

10. To what extent and under what regulations are they assisted by loans?—There are no loans made to them.

IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there almshouses or other institutions for the reception of those who, through age, are incapable of earning their subsistence?—The impotent through age are admitted to the hospital by an order from the mayor (see Annex A. 1, p. 182); they also receive relief from the *Bureau de Bienfaisance* (see Annex B. 3, p. 182.)

2. To what extent and under what regulations is relief in food, fuel, clothing or money afforded them at their homes?—When received into the hospital they are clothed and fed (see A. 5, 6, 8); and they are also relieved by the *Bureau de Bienfaisance* in food and clothing (see B. 9, 10, 11, 12, 13 and 14.)

3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals? 4. Or quartered or billeted on the householders?—They are never so boarded, quartered or billeted.

5. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking part of their families?—Persons are not obliged to assist their relations.

SICK.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there district institutions for the reception of the sick?—The sick are received into the hospital (see A. 2); there are no other institutions for their reception.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are surgical and medical relief afforded to the poor at their own homes?—They receive surgical and medical relief at their homes from the *Bureau de Bienfaisance* (see B. 14, 15, 16.)

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick?—The *Bureau de Bienfaisance* gives relief to those on their lists; (see B. 9, 10, 11, 12, 13 and 14); seldom money. Others when not in the hospital are dependent on private charity.

4. To what extent and under what regulations is assistance given to lying-in women at their homes, or in public establishments?—Lying-in women are received at the hospital, or relieved by the *Bureau de Bienfaisance* (see B. 14 and 16.)

5. To what extent and under what regulations are there any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick?—There are no other modes of public assistance in Havre; and the sick are often dependent on individual charity.

CHILDREN:

Illegitimate.

1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall, wholly upon the mothers or wholly upon the fathers; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations?—The support of illegitimate children falls wholly upon the mothers.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards?—The relatives of mothers or fathers of bastards are in no way compelled to assist them.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?—When abandoned at the door of the hospital they are received and supported by that establishment to the age of 12 (see A. 4.)

Orphans, Foundlings, or Deserted Children.

4. To what extent and under what regulations are they taken into establishments for their reception?—They are received into the hospital (see A. 4.)

5. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?—They are never billeted or quartered on householders.

6. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—When infants they are put out to nurse by the hospital.

7. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—Relatives not obliged to support them.

Foreign
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CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception?—Received into the hospital; no other establishment.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders? 3. Or boarded with individuals?—Never so billeted or boarded.

4. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—Relatives not compelled to support them, except the father and mother, if able.

IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception?—No establishment here; they are sent to Rouen.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders? 3. Or boarded with individuals?—They are not so quartered or boarded.

4. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—The fathers and mothers are alone obliged, when able to do so.

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

You are requested to state whether the receipt, or the expectation of relief, appears to produce any, and what effect,

1st, On the industry of the labourers? 2d, On their frugality? 3d, On the age at which they marry? 4th, On the mutual dependence and affection of parent, children, and other relatives?—The relief is so trifling from the public institutions, that no persons will enter the hospital if they can possibly obtain a miserable existence out of it, and I think this is a great incentive to industry and frugality. Men and women generally marry young, but they never do so until they are in some regular employ; children are generally careful of their parents.

5th, What, on the whole, is the condition of the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, as compared with the condition of the person subsisting on alms or public charity? Is the condition of the latter, as to food and freedom from labour, more or less eligible? (See p. 261 and 335 of the Poor Law "Extracts*.")—I consider a labourer in average employment able to live with comfort to his ideas, that is, he has sufficient bread and a little cider; whereas those in the hospital are sparingly fed and confined to the building; an able-bodied beggar is never seen here.

LABOURERS.

1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month or the year, with and without provisions, in summer and in winter?—The average amount of the wages of a male labourer is in the country 2 fr. = 1 s. 6 d., in summer, and 1 fr. 50 c. = 1 s. 2 d., in winter, without food; in towns it is 2 fr. 50 c. = to 2 s. a day, all the year.

2. Is piece-work general?—Piece-work is seldom or never done.

3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—A labourer ought to make 600 fr. a year, = 24 l.

4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?—Labourers are not able to save much, nor am I able to state in what proportion they spend their gains; religious instruction is given gratis to the poor children.

5. Is there any, and what employment for women and children?—There is no regular employment for women and children, as we have no manufactories; they are employed as servants, &c. &c.

6. What can women, and children under 16, earn per week in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed?—A woman generally makes 1 fr., or 10 d. a day, with her food; children are so seldom employed, that I cannot say.

7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8 and 5 years respectively (the eldest a boy), expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?—I should suppose 1,000 fr. (40 l.), provided the two eldest children are employed.

8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children; and if so, on what food?—Families do subsist and are respectable upon these earnings. Their food is bread, a few vegetables and cider, never animal food, or very rarely; coffee and treacle is also used.

9. Could

* The Volume published by the Poor Law Commissioners does not in any way apply to the existing regulations in this country, where mendicity is entirely confined to the aged, decrepit and sick, and that only tolerated; of course no comparison can be drawn.

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9. Could it lay by anything, and how much?—I do not think they can lay by anything; those that do so put it into the savings bank.
10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?—None.
11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations?—No particular class.
12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale?—Rent from 50 fr. to 100 fr., = 2 s. to 4 l. a year.
13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—None.
14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?—About $\frac{1}{34}$.
15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?—About $\frac{1}{26}$.
16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?—About $\frac{1}{110}$.
17. The average number of children to a marriage?—About 3.
18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?—About $\frac{1}{5}$.
19. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year?—About $\frac{1}{6}$.
20. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 10th year?—About $\frac{1}{3}$.
21. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 18th year?—About $\frac{1}{3}$ to $\frac{1}{4}$.
22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—Men about 22 to 24; women 18 to 20 years.
23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—No causes to delay marriages, if the parties and their parents consent.
24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried, 2d, the married, save?—I cannot say, so much depends upon the character and employment of the individual.
25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—Savings are generally invested in a saving bank, guaranteed and sanctioned by Government.

Arch. Gordon, Consul.

Annex (A.)—HOSPITAL REGULATIONS AT HAVRE.

1. AGED persons of 60, without distinction of sex, are admitted into the hospital upon a certificate of indigence delivered by the mayor of their district, and a ticket of admission signed by one of the directors of the establishment.
2. The sick are admitted if they can produce a certificate of indigence from the mayor or curate of their parish, and every care is taken of them at the expense of the establishment.
3. Sailors, wounded or sick, are admitted without regard to age, provided they are French. If the sailor has any pension from Government, the hospital receives it, and places the amount to the credit of the establishment, allowing him 3 fr. (2 s. 6 d.) a month for his private use.
4. Orphans, foundlings, or deserted children are admitted, provided they are under 12 years; they are then engaged as servants or apprentices, but should they get out of employment from no fault of their own, they are at liberty to return until the age of 21 years.
5. Food for each man, 1 lb. of bread per day, and 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. of cheese or butter; for each woman, 3 lbs. of bread every four days, and 2 oz. of cheese or butter four times a week; for men and women 1 quart of soup, 2 oz. dressed meat, with potatoes, to each person three times a week.
6. Drink, a quart of cider per day to each man; half-quart ditto to each woman.
7. The principal of the establishment receives 84,000 fr. (3,360 l.) for the maintenance and relief of 600 persons, and the support of the institution.
8. The inmates, male and female, have woollen clothing in winter, and linen in summer.

Annex (B.)—REGULATIONS OF THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE BUREAU DE BIENFAISANCE, OF HAVRE.

1. NONE are admitted but those whose poverty is well known, and who have lived 12 months in the town. The number of persons to be relieved is fixed by the Bureau, whose names must be entered in a register, stating their age, date of application, place of residence, number and age of their children.
2. There is a second register for such poor who, having resided one year in Havre, shall apply after the closing of the register mentioned in the above article. This inscription is made in order of their dates, and the paupers carried upon it will only be entitled to relief in turn, and as vacancies occur in the first list, by departures, deaths or discharge.
3. No poor of either sex can receive relief more than 15 years old, or under 50. This exclusion is not applicable to widows with young children, or with four children under 15 years. In all cases they must produce a certificate that their children attend the free school, and are diligent.
4. The inscription in the register mentioned in No. 2 can only take place after inquiry has been made respecting the claimant, and authorized by the Bureau, which meets for this purpose once a month.
5. No children can be admitted to the assistance of the Bureau, nor into the classes of instruction and work, above the age of 15, and without having been vaccinated.
6. If the number of children attending the classes and work shall be too many, either on account of the size of the building or the attention of the instructors, preference will be given

given to the children whose parents are already on their lists, and who are known to require assistance for the education of their children.

7. Every year, at the period of the first communion, a certain number of children shall be clothed. But to be admitted to this assistance they must produce a certificate from the clergyman appointed to give religious instruction, or from the nuns of the convent, that they have been attentive and are deserving. The boys are clothed in brown cloth; the girls in coloured calico.

8. Every year the sum of 650 fr. (26 l.) shall be given to the clergymen of the town, in tickets of 1 fr. (9 d.), and 50 c. (4 ½ d.), to be distributed where they think proper, of which only those who are past 60 or under 15 can participate.

9. Each person shall receive 3 lbs. of bread, two in the same family 6 lbs. of ditto, three to five persons in the same family, whose children are under 15, 12 lbs. of ditto, for 15 days. The number admitted to this relief to be regulated each year, so that the distribution shall not exceed 3,000 lbs. a month; these distributions will take place to the most needy each Monday and Friday, from 9 to 12 o'clock, after which no more will be given.

10. In the distribution of clothing, which will be made once a year, each individual will only be clothed once in two years.

11. When the establishment is enabled to give woollen clothing, it will only be to such as are above 60 years, or to children under seven years, and those the most destitute; this relief once in two years.

12. If any one who receives bread and clothing from the Bureau sells or pawns the same he shall be struck off.

13. All clothes given by the establishment shall be marked, so that they may be known.

14. Assistance to lying-in women, new-born children and sick, will be rendered at their houses; those who are not on the lists cannot be assisted until their case is examined; money will not be given to women in labour but when absolutely necessary; soup is distributed on Mondays and Wednesdays, from two to three o'clock.

15. There is attached to the establishment a doctor, at 400 fr. (16 l.), and two assistants, at 500 fr. (20 l.) each per year, who attend such as are named by the Bureau; and also women in extraordinary cases of labour.

16. A midwife is attached, at 200 fr. (8 l.) a year, who attends all women designated by the Bureau.

17. In hard weather, if it should be thought expedient to make a subscription, the poor who are upon the second list (article 2) will be relieved from it.

18. Each year, in the month of October, there will be a general meeting, who will examine the registers.

ROUEN.

Rouen.

DEPOT DE MENDICITE DE ROUEN.

POLICE INTERIEURE.

Titre 1^{er}. *Service du Portier de l'Extérieur.*

Art. 1^{er}. TOUTES les portes qui communiquent à l'extérieur resteront constamment fermées.

2. Aucun étranger ni externe ne sera admis pendant la nuit dans la maison, excepté pour des cas extraordinaires et urgents, et sur l'autorisation expresse du directeur.

3. Le portier ne laissera entrer ni sortir, pendant le jour, aucun individu sans un permis ou laissez passer du directeur.

S'il s'agit d'affaires concernant les bureaux ou les travaux de l'établissement, les personnes admises seront conduites par le portier de l'intérieur aux lieux indiqués, de manière à empêcher toute communication avec les mendiants.

4. Le portier visitera soigneusement tous paquets, outils, meubles, et autres effets entrant ou sortant de la maison; il en fera mention sur son registre et retiendra les permis de sortie qui doivent accompagner les objets.

5. Il est défendu à toutes personnes sans exception de stationer dans la loge du portier.

6. Il est défendu expressément et sous peine de destitution aux portiers de l'extérieur et de l'intérieur, ainsi qu'à tous autres préposés du dépôt, de favoriser, ou de permettre aucune commission, communication ni correspondance des reclus avec l'extérieur; les lettres des mendiants ne seront reçues ou expédiées qu'après avoir été communiquées au directeur, afin de prévenir toute atteinte au bon ordre et à la sûreté de l'établissement.

7. Les employés de toute classe ne peuvent sortir ni s'absenter sans le permis du directeur, qui fixera la durée de leur absence. Dans tous les cas, les préposés quels qu'ils soient, devront être rentrés, en hiver, à neuf heures du soir, et en été à dix heures; après quoi toutes les portes seront fermées, et les clefs déposées à la direction.

8. Il est enjoint au portier de l'extérieur de se conformer ponctuellement aux articles ci-dessus, à peine de destitution et de répondre personnellement des effets de sa négligence.

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Titre 2. *Portier de l'Intérieur.*Foreign
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Art. 1^{er}. Le portier de l'intérieur aura sa loge dans la première cour et s'y tiendra tout le temps qu'il ne sera pas en fonctions.

Une cloche particulière sera destinée à l'avertir quand son service l'appellera ailleurs.

2. Il est chargé spécialement de sonner la cloche aux heures fixées par le règlement.

3. Afin d'empêcher toute communication des mendiants des deux sexes et d'âges différents, il lui est enjoint de tenir fermées, aux heures prescrites, les portes des dortoirs, des ateliers, des cours de récréation et autres lieux occupés par les détenus aussitôt qu'ils les ont évacués.

4. Il tiendra la main conjointement avec les servants et surveillants, à ce que les reclus soient exactement renfermés dans leurs appartements respectifs; il fera des rondes pendant le jour, pour s'assurer de l'exécution de cette partie essentielle du règlement.

5. Tout mendiant qui sera trouvé à des heures indues, et sans permis, hors de son district sera saisi et conduit au surveillant ou chef des ateliers, qui en fera son rapport au directeur, afin qu'il soit puni suivant le cas.

6. Il est expressément défendu au portier de l'intérieur de confier aucune clef ni passe-partout, soit aux caporaux de garde ou sergent pour relever les sentinelles intérieurs soit aux préposés, surveillants ou servants pour conduire les ouvriers au travail, soit aux ouvriers extérieurs occupés dans l'établissement, en un mot, à qui que ce soit et sous aucun prétexte, sous peine d'être personnellement responsable et puni des abus résultants de l'infraction du présent article. Il ouvrira et fermera lui-même les portes.

7. Le soir, après l'appel et pendant le souper des reclus, il fermera les portes des jardins et cours de récréation, et veillera à ce que tous les feux et lumières soient éteints dans les lieux qui auront été évacués.

8. Le portier veillera à ce que les loges de correction soient tenues proprement et balayées par les reclus, et leur paille renouvelée aussi souvent qu'il sera nécessaire.

9. Aucun détenu ne pourra sortir de sa loge (si ce n'est pour le travail) pendant la durée de sa punition.

Titre 3. *Dortoirs.*

Art. 1^{er}. La cloche annoncera le reveil à quatre heures du matin, depuis le 1^{er} Mars jusqu'au 30 Sept^{re}, et à six heures depuis le 1^{er} Oct^{re} jusqu'au 28 Fev^{er}. Aussitôt les surveillants et servants des dortoirs tiendront la main à ce que les reclus s'élèvent avec décence et tranquillité.

2. Après le lever, chaque reclus fera son lit, videra son pôt aux latrines et le videra dans les baquets à ce destinés, il lavera ses mains et son visage, et se rendra dans son dortoir pour assister à la prière, qui ne durera qu'un quart d'heure.

3. La prière finie à six heures en été et à sept heures dans l'hiver, les reclus se rendront accompagnés des surveillants dans leurs ateliers respectifs pour se livrer au travail; les dortoirs seront fermés après avoir été balayés et nettoyés par deux reclus désignés tour à tour dans chaque dortoir pour cet emploi.

4. A neuf heures du soir, en toute saison, la cloche sonnera le coucher. Les reclus se rendront aussitôt dans leurs dortoirs respectifs; le surveillant fera l'appel nominal, et l'on entendra avec recueillement la prière, qui ne durera qu'un quart d'heure; après la prière chacun se couchera tranquillement et le plus profond silence regnera dans les dortoirs.

5. Chaque servant des dortoirs et les surveillants dans les ateliers, veilleront à ce que les appartements soient aérés et ouverts pendant le jour, et les croisées arrêtées soigneusement avec leurs crochets, afin de prévenir les dommages que pourroient résulter par l'effet du vent ou autres causes.

6. Les servants et surveillants, le chef d'atelier et tous autres préposés en ce qui les concerne sont chargés de tenir la main à la stricte exécution des règlements, et de dénoncer au directeur dans leur rapport journalière ou aux inspecteurs de semaine, toutes les contraventions dont ils auront connaissance, afin que les contravenans soient punis selon les cas.

Titre 4. *Refectoires.*

Art. 1^{er}. Le déjeuner aura lieu pendant le semestre d'été à huit heures précises du matin, et à neuf heures pendant le semestre d'hiver; il durera un demi-heure.

Les reclus retourneront au travail immédiatement après le déjeuner, jusqu'à midi et demi précis, heure du diner en toute saison.

2. Il est enjoint aux servants de servir la soupe avant le son de la cloche, afin que les reclus trouvant leurs rations à leur place, on évite toutes difficultés au sujet des distributions.

3. Les détenus prononceront leur bénédiction à haute voix avant le repas et rendront grâce à la fin.

4. Le plus grand ordre devra regner pendant le repas, après lequel chaque reclus lavera sa gamelle et son assiette et les portera aux lieux indiqués.

Les refectoirs seront balayés avec soin après chaque repas et les tables bien nettoyées par les détenus qui seront de corvée.

5. La récréation qui suivra le diner se prolongera jusqu'à deux heures en tout saison, sous la surveillance immédiate d'un servant dans chaque district. A deux heures précises la cloche annoncera la reprise des travaux, et les surveillants feront l'appel dans leurs ateliers respectifs.

6. A huit heures du soir en tous tems la cloche sonnera le souper; chaque reclus se rendra

rendra au refectoire dans le même ordre qu'au diner, jusqu'à neuf heures au plus tard, heure à laquelle on rentrera dans les dortoirs.

7. Le même régime sera observé dans les dortoirs et les refectoirs des deux sexes, exceptés pour les malades et les vieillards et les infirmes.

Titre 5. Cuisines et Dépense.

Art. 1^{er}. Les clefs des cuisines, offices, dépense et des armoires, qui en dependent sont confiées aux sœurs hospitalières chargées du service, qui veilleront à la conservation et à l'économie des comestibles et provisions de bouche commis à leurs soins et sous leur responsabilité.

2. L'entrée des cuisines, office et de la dépense est interdite aux reclus, hors le cas où ils y seraient employés par corvée et pour le service domestique, mais en aucun cas les reclus des deux sexes ne pourront être de corvée ensemble dans le même lieu ni pour service permanent.

3. Il est interdit aux préposés, surveillans et servans de toute classe de stationer dans les cuisines notamment aux heures des distributions, et des repas ni de s'y introduire sous aucune prétexte, hors les cas où ils y seraient appelés par leurs fonctions ou pour service domestique.

4. Les distributions journalières se feront en ce qui concerne la nature, et les quantités d'aliments, d'après le tableau de semaine affiché interieurement sur la porte de la cuisine.

5. Il est enjoint à la cuisinière en chef de veiller avec le plus grand soin à l'appret, à la salubrité, et à la parfaite cuisson des alimens; de mettre la plus scrupuleuse impartialité dans le partage et la distribution des rations, ainsi que dans l'assaisonnement des mets destinés tant aux reclus qu'aux employés; lesquels dans leurs classes respectifs doivent participer aux mêmes soins.

6. La cuisinière en chef tiendra la main à ce que les alimens soient prêts à porter aux refectoirs aux heures fixés pour les repas et avant la cloche, afin que le service n'éprouve ni retard ni interruption et que chaque reclus trouve en entrant sa ration à sa place.

7. L'aide des cuisines est spécialement chargé de la surveillance des chaudières, marmites et autres ustenciles de cuisine, qu'elle fera recurer et nettoyer jour par jour, afin de les entretenir dans la plus grande propreté.

Les tables, tablettes et potagères seront pareillement lavés et nettoyés chaque jour à l'eau bouillante, et toutes choses remise en place, afin de maintenir le bon order et l'arrangement.

8. Il est expressement defendu de distribuer aux employés et servans leurs rations crues ou en nature pour les emporter chez eux; toutes les rations, au contraire, seront apprêtées ensemble à la cuisine et distribuées par le guichet aux heures indiquées, afin d'éviter les préférences et la confusion.

9. Il sera remis tout les soirs, par la cuisinière en chef chargé des livres de dépense, au jardinier un bulletin des legumes à cueiller dans les jardins, pour les besoins du lendemain; le jardinier gardera ces bulletins pour être recensés à la fin de chaque mois par le commis aux entrées, qui en dressera un état sommaire, pour être inscrit en recette sur le registre de la dépense.

10. Il est expressement defendu à toutes personnes, et sous quelque pretexte que ce soit, de cueiller ou faire cueiller des fruits et legumes du jardin sans un bulletin dans la forme prescrite par l'article précédent, lequel restera pareillement aux mains du jardinier.

Titre 6. Ateliers.

Art. 1^{er}. Les surveillans attachés aux ateliers veilleront à ce que chaque ouvrier s'occupe assidûment et ne perde pas son temps.

Ils feront regner l'ordre et la tranquillité, dans leurs departemens respectifs, et en cas de desordre ou d'insubordination, ils feront leur rapport aux chefs des ateliers chargé du maintien de la discipline, qui infligera la punition après en avoir referé au directeur.

2. Les ateliers seront fermés pendant le travail, afin que les reclus n'en sortent que pour leurs besoins et aux heures indiquées.

3. Les reclus valides devront être imposés à une tâche de travail proportionnée à leur force et à leur aptitude; tout ouvrier qui ne fera pas sa tâche journalière ne sera payé qu'en raison de la quantité qu'il aura faite; il sera mis au pain sec et restera dans l'atelier pour travailler pendant les heures de récréation.

4. Tout ouvrier qui pendant trois jours consecutifs manquerait à faire sa tâche, restera durant les heures de repas et de récréation et pendant la nuit enfermé dans la loge de discipline, au pain sec de punition et à l'eau jusqu'à ce qu'il ait atteinte la tâche qui lui est imposée.

5. Tout ouvrier qui par négligence ou par méchanceté gâterait les matieres, outils, et ustensiles confiés à ses soins payera les dommages sur son tiers de réserve et sera puni en outre selon l'exigence du cas.

6. Tout ouvrier soigneux de son travail et qui fera plus que sa tâche *ordinaire* aura à son profit, independamment du tiers de réserve, les deux tiers de l'excédent de sa tâche, à titre de recompense et d'encouragement.

7. Tout reclus qui aura encouru la peine d'emprisonnement, subira sur le produit, de son tiers de réserve, une retenue de cinq centimes pour chaque jour de prison.

Le montant de ces retenues joint au produit des autres rétributions de l'oratoire, amendes, etc. formera un fonds de reserve qui sera reparté deux fois en forme de prime d'encouragement, aux reclus qui par leur bonne conduite et leur travail se seront fait distinguer parmi leurs camarades.

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Titre 7. *Oratoire.*

Art. 1^{er}. Conformément au règlement général, il y aura instruction de religion et de morale deux fois par semaine dans la chapelle les Jeudis et Dimanches à sept heures du soir.

Tout les reclus valides sont tenus d'y assister dans le silence et le recueillement, sous l'inspection de leurs surveillans respectifs.

Les Dimanches et jours de fête maintenu par le concordat, tous les reclus et les employés du dépôt assisteront à la masse, qui se dira à huit heures et demi du matin, et aux vêpres, qui se diront à une heure et demi après midi.

2. Indépendamment de ces exercices religieuses il y aura, aux époques déterminées par l'autorité ecclésiastique, une instruction particulière pour les enfans destinés à faire leur première communion; cette instruction durera deux mois.

3. Les reclus une fois entrés dans la chapelle ne pourront en sortir qu'après l'office; c'est pourquoi les surveillans seront tenus de leur rappeler, en entrant cette disposition, afin qu'ils prévoient tous leurs besoins avant de se placer.

4. Les surveillans tiendront la main à ce qu'il n'y ait aucune communication pendant l'office entre les reclus et les assistants extérieurs; il leur est sur tout expressément défendu de rien recevoir par les barrières pour être remis aux reclus sous peine de punition exemplaire suivant le cas.

5. Le portier de l'intérieur chargé de l'ouverture et la clôture des portes de l'église veillera particulièrement au bon ordre et à la tranquillité dans la partie de la chapelle occupée par le public.

6. Les bulletins du produit de la quête et de la location des chaises seront remis le lendemain des fêtes au directeur pour être enregistrés.

7. En cas d'infraction au présent règlement il en sera référé par les surveillans et proposés à Monsieur le Directeur du dépôt, qui prononcera suivant les cas les peines encourues par les reclus.

(An exact Copy.)

Havre, 1 May 1834.

Arch. Gordon, Consul.

MARSEILLES.

Marseilles.

VAGRANTS.

1. To what extent and under what form does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?—It has been calculated that the average number of beggars in this department (the Mouths of the Rhone) is 1,060, whereof 900 are natives and 105 strangers, besides 240 who traverse the department. The calculation having been made some years ago, the numbers may have increased with the population, which was then 313,000, and is now 359,000.

2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country, seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded, and under what regulations?—The only relief granted to the poor travelling is by giving them a "passport d'indigent," furnished by the local authorities, in which their exact route is designated, and not to be deviated from; they receive, as they pass through each commune, three sous for every league of distance, equal to a halfpenny per mile, and lodging for the night: beggars have no relief but private charity.

DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are they, or any part of their families, billeted or quartered on householders? 2. Or boarded with individuals?—They are never billeted or quartered on householders or individuals, except it may be for the night, as above stated.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there district houses of industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families, and supplying them with food, clothes, &c., and in which they are set to work?—There are no houses of industry in this department.

4. To what extent and under what regulations do any religious institutions give assistance to the destitute, by receiving them as inmates, or by giving them alms?—The religious institutions do not give assistance to the destitute, except it may be casually, and excepting the distribution to the poor by the priests of the money collected at the different churches.

5. To what extent and under what regulations is work provided at their own dwellings for those who have trades, but do not procure work for themselves? 6. Or in agriculture or on public works?—No work is provided for the destitute, as alluded to in these questions. In times of great distress, arising from scarcity or otherwise, the government may set forward some public work for the express purpose of giving employment to the poor; but it is by no means a regular system, and is seldom resorted to.

7. To what extent and under what regulations are fuel, clothing or money distributed to such persons or their families; at all times of the year, or during any particular seasons?—The principal establishment of this nature at Marseilles is the Bureau de Bienfaisance, whose revenues, arising partly from the remnant property of some charitable institutions existing before the Revolution, partly from an annual allowance granted by the budget of the commune, partly by a tax on theatrical admissions, and from private sub-
scriptions,

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scriptions, amount altogether to about 140,000 francs, or 5,600 l., of which the major part is distributed in money to the "pauvres honteux" (those who have seen better days), and in providing necessities and medical assistance to the poor in general, by five directors, and at their sole discretion. Similar establishments exist in the other arrondissements of this department, but, with the exception of Aix, with very small means, principally dependent on the communal budgets, which in many cases furnish nothing. I am informed that in this commune, with a population of 140,000 inhabitants, the bureau relieves, more or less, 800 families of "pauvres honteux," and 4,000 families of indigent poor. There is also at Marseilles a Société de Bienfaisance, supported principally by private charity, whose chief object is the establishment of soup kitchens and dispensaries for the relief of the poor, and a school for the education of their children from four to nine years of age. No relief is ever given in money. Their annual revenue is about 40,000 francs, or 1,600 l.; and in times of great distress the local administration increases its funds, and supplies the poor with soup through its means.

8. To what extent and under what regulations are they relieved by their children being taken into schools and fed, clothed and educated, or apprenticed?—The number of children received in the school above-mentioned is about 200: they receive two meals a day and sleep at home; they are taught various trades, and apprenticed at the expense of the commune; there are also several gratuitous day-schools for children of the age of seven years and upwards, and who bring their own food.

9. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are the relatives of the destitute compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking charge of part of their families?—By the articles 203 to 211 of the Code Civil, relations are obliged to assist each other reciprocally when in a direct line of descent. A reference to those Articles will explain this subject more fully, and in greater detail, than I can at present give.

10. To what extent and under what regulations are they assisted by loans?—I am not aware of any assistance being granted by loans.

IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there alms-houses or other institutions for the reception of those who, through age, are incapable of earning their subsistence?—The only public establishment for the reception of this class is that called "La Charité," in which those are admitted who have attained the age of 70, and none before; the number of those individuals at present is about 350: they are there boarded, clothed and fed.

2. To what extent and under what regulations is relief in food, fuel, clothing or money afforded them at their homes?—They partake, in common with the other classes of the poor and destitute, of the relief afforded by the charitable establishments before-mentioned in No. 7.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?
4. Or quartered or billeted on the householders?—They are never so boarded, quartered or billeted.

5. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to assist them with money food or clothing, or by taking part of their families?—See the foregoing No. 9.

SICK.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there district institutions for the reception of the sick?—There are no district institutions for the reception of the sick, except the general hospitals. The average number of sick in the hospital of Marseilles may be about 450.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are surgical and medical relief afforded to the poor at their own homes? 3. Are there institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick?—None is afforded, except by the charitable establishments before mentioned in No. 7.

4. To what extent and under what regulations is assistance given to lying-in women at their homes, or in public establishments?—There is a branch of the general hospital at Marseilles particularly destined for the reception of lying-in women; by its regulations unmarried women are obliged to remain 15 months after their confinement as nurses to the infant foundlings. There is also an institution at Marseilles, called "La Société de Charité Maternelle," whose funds amount to about 1,000 l., raised by private charity and by an allowance from the commune, whose object is to assist lying-in women at their own houses who have more than two children.

5. To what extent and under what regulations are there any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick?—There are no other modes, except the above mentioned, that I am aware of.

CHILDREN:

Illegitimate.

1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall; wholly upon the mothers or wholly upon the fathers; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations?—The French law does not consider an individual to be the father of an illegitimate child, or to be charged with its support, unless he voluntarily

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admits himself to be the father, and takes upon himself the consequences of such admission. Although the French code does not appear to notice the point, it is understood that a mother, proved to be such, is liable for the support of her illegitimate child. No such proof is allowed to be brought against the reputed father; his liability must be voluntary.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards?—I presume that the relatives of the mothers or fathers are in nowise compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?—One large branch of the administration of hospitals of Marseilles is “La Charité,” which receives, as before mentioned, old men, and also all children under 12 years of age, whether illegitimate, orphans, foundlings or deserted; they are there received, and, when infants, principally nursed in the country. At this time there are 2,240 infants in this situation, and on their return they are boarded, lodged and educated.

Orphans, Foundlings, or Deserted Children.

4. To what extent and under what regulations are they taken into establishments for their reception? 5. Or billeted or quartered on householders? 6. Or boarded with individuals? 7. And to what degree of relationship are their relatives compelled to support them?—These questions are answered by the foregoing; they are never billeted on householders, nor boarded with individuals, except with their nurses.

CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception? 2. Are they billeted or quartered on householders? 3. Or boarded with individuals? 4. And to what degree of relationship are their relatives compelled to support them?—There are no public establishments peculiar for the reception of these classes of the indigent poor; they obtain relief with the poor in general. In other respects these questions are answered by the foregoing.

IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception?—Another branch of the administration of hospitals of Marseilles extends to the care of these classes, who are received into the hospital of St. Lazare, peculiarly destined for them; the establishment is very confined, and can hardly contain more than 120 individuals, although in some years it has been found necessary to admit a greater number, and it is now intended to build one much larger at the expense of the commune. There are also some private establishments, but which do not, I presume, come within the meaning of these inquiries.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders? 3. Or boarded with individuals? 4. And to what degree of relationship are their relatives compelled to support them?—These classes are similarly situated, with reference to these questions, to the other classes of the poor, as before detailed.

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

You are requested to state whether the receipt, or the expectation of relief, appears to produce any, and what effect,

1st, On the industry of the labourers? 2d, On their frugality? 3d, On the age at which they marry? 4th, On the mutual dependence and affection of parent, children, and other relatives? 5th, What, on the whole, is the condition of the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, as compared with the condition of the person subsisting on alms or public charity? Is the condition of the latter as to food and freedom from labour more or less eligible? (See p. 261 & 335 of the Poor Law “Extracts.”)—As the relief, as detailed above, can afford no encouragement to idleness, (although it may to immorality, from the facility with which illegitimate children are disposed of,) the expectation of it can have no prejudicial effect with regard to the points alluded to in these questions, and I should decidedly be of opinion that the individual subsisting on alms or public charity is a condition less eligible than the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class.

LABOURERS.

1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer by the day, the week, the month, or the year, with and without provisions in summer and in winter?—A day-labourer would obtain from 15 *d.* to 18 *d.* a day, without food; and a labourer by the year from 7 *l.* to 8 *l.* a year, with board and lodging.

2. Is piece-work general?—Piece-work is not general.

3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—About 400 to 500 *fr.*, or 16 *l.* to 20 *l.* a year; but owing to the climate being very fine, the wants of the labourer are less, and a comparison of his earnings with those of a labourer of a more northern climate might form an erroneous datum whereon to judge of their comparative well-being.

4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?—This question is so very general, and would require such a mass of detailed information to form any thing like a correct general result, that it is impossible for me to reply to it.

5. Is

5. Is there any, and what employment, for women and children?—The employment of women and children is in the lighter labours of agriculture, the care of animals, and domestic services.

6. What can women, and children under 16, earn per week in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed?—Women would earn, on an average all the year round, 7 *d.* to 9 *d.* a day; children under 11 cannot be counted upon to earn their bread; from 11 to 16 they would earn about the same as women.

7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8 and 5 years respectively (the eldest a boy), expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?—This is replied to in the preceding.

8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children; and if so, on what food?—They could subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children; their food is usually composed of vegetables, bread and farinaceous substances, made into soup, &c., and meat-soup or bouilli probably once a week.

9. Could it lay by anything, and how much?—With a fair share of work during the year, and proper economy, they might make some savings; but they would be very trifling, probably not more than 2 *l.* to 3 *l.*, if so much.

10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?—It is not usual to annex any land to a labourer's habitation.

11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourer's habitations?—Labourers' habitations, when not situated on a farm, are generally owned by themselves, or by the poorer classes.

12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale?—The rent varies very much, according to the situation; about 2 *l.* a year may probably be a fair average for a man with his family.

13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—It is not customary to let land to labourers in the sense implied in this question.

14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?—According to the population returns of this department, made out for the year 1831, there were 11,941 deaths in a population of 359,473 inhabitants, making a proportion of about 1 in 30.

15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?—10,874 births to 359,473 inhabitants; about 1 in 34.

16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?—2,304 marriages among 359,473 inhabitants; about 1 in 156.

17. The average number of children to a marriage?—From calculations made of the whole births and marriages in this department during the years 1791, 1801, 1811, 1821, the average number of children to a marriage is 4½.

18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?—On an average of the years 1816 to 1824, the proportion has been 11 legitimate births to 1 illegitimate for the whole department; but taking the commune of Marseilles separately, the proportion therein was 5 to 1. According to the population return of 1831, there were in the whole department 9,735 legitimate to 1,139 illegitimate births; about 9 to 1.

19. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year? 20. Proportion that die before the end of their 10th year? 21. Before the end of their 18th year?—The information required in these questions may be obtained from the following table, made out on an average of 31 years, from 1791 to 1821, showing the ages of the then population at different periods of life, and deaths at each period, for the whole department:

	Deaths.	Individuals existing.	Proportion to the whole Population.
From Birth to 1 year -	2,271	8,161	$\frac{2}{78}$
1 to 10 years -	2,309	62,289	$\frac{15}{78}$
10 to 20 — -	483	54,220	$\frac{14}{78}$
20 to 40 — -	1,208	90,290	$\frac{22.5}{78}$
40 to 60 — -	1,297	63,390	$\frac{16}{78}$
60 to 80 — -	1,839	32,550	$\frac{8}{78}$
80 to 100 — -	462	2,150	$\frac{5}{78}$
Above 100 — -	-	1	—
		313,051	

22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females? 23. Causes by which marriages are delayed? 24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried, 2d, the married, save?—I have no means within my reach of answering these questions.

25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—There is established in this city a savings bank, but of which the agricultural population do not much avail themselves; the most favourite manner of investment among the poorer classes is to buy a little property, either in a house or land.

British Consulate, Marseilles, }
21 March, 1834.

P. L. (F.)

Alex. Turnbull, Consul.

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CANTON DE BERNE.

LETTER from *D. R. Morier*, Esq. to the Right Honourable Viscount *Palmerston*, K. E.
&c. &c. &c.

My Lord,

Berne, April 5th, 1834.

IN obedience to the instructions of your Lordship, conveyed to me in two circulars from the Foreign Office, dated respectively August 12 and November 30 of last year, directing me to transmit a full report of the legal or charitable provision for the support of the poor in Switzerland, I have now the honour to forward the accompanying documents, described in a memorandum thereto annexed, relative to that extensive and complicated subject as far as the canton of Berne is concerned.

The time required for collecting and arranging the materials of these documents, and the necessity of getting them translated from the German, will, I trust, plead my excuse with your Lordship for the apparent delay in transmitting them; indeed, but for the remarkable complaisance of Monsieur Tcharner, the chief of the department of the interior, it would have been impossible for me to have complied with your Lordship's directions in a manner at all corresponding with their object. With respect to the remaining 21 cantons of Switzerland, I must for the present crave your Lordship's indulgence; when it is considered that not only is each governed by different laws in respect to the maintenance of their poor, but that varieties exist in different districts of the same canton, the impossibility will be admitted of attempting to fill up the blanks in the paper of queries, inclosed in the circular of November 30th, with general answers comprising the whole subject, in the slightest degree approaching to accuracy.

On the general question, as to the effect of the Poor Laws on the moral condition of the population, it may suffice to point out to the attention of the Commissioners engaged in the inquiry, the following conclusion of the Bernese document, marked (No. 2), in answer to the last of a set of queries founded on your Lordship's first circular.

"Experience has clearly proved, that the number of paupers increases with the increase of the resources provided for them; and the 'communes,' which have the greatest revenues, have also a population the most in arrear in point of social industry and activity.

"This state of things, and particularly the charge constantly increasing in some districts of the country, and the complaints of the communes, which claim the protection of the Government against the demands and insolence of the poor and pretended poor, have induced the Government to think of a remedy for the evil. . . . It is nearly certain, that compulsory assistance will be, if not abolished, at least restricted to the case of paupers incapable of work. . . . The administration of the poor in the canton of Berne is thus on the eve of undergoing a radical reform."

I have, &c.

D. R. Morier.

No. 1.

Recueil d'Ordonnances sur l'Entretien des Pauvres, sur les Ressources qui y sont affectées, sur leur Administration, et sur la Mendicité.

CANTON DE BERNE.

Ordonnance, relativement au traitement des pauvres, du 22 Décembre 1807; ayant les §§ 13 et 14, changés en vertu d'un décret du 16 Décembre 1812.

Voyez aussi, page 193 F, le changement apporté à l'égard de la suspension des droits de bourgeoisie.

Nous, Avoyer, Grands et Petits Conseils du Canton de Berne, savoir faisons :

Que, voulant faire droit aux plaintes réitérées, que l'on nous a adressées relativement au nombre toujours croissant des pauvres, et de ceux surtout qui s'attiraient leur misère par une vie licencieuse et oisive; nous nous sommes vu obligés de reprendre en main d'anciennes ordonnances oubliées, mais non supprimées, de les modifier selon qu'il conviendra maintenant, et de les remettre en vigueur; afin de mettre à l'abri le bien des gens laborieux et paisibles, et afin de faciliter et améliorer le traitement des personnes véritablement nécessiteuses, dignes de pitié et de secours.

C'est pourquoi, Nous

Ordonnons :

Ordonnons :

1. Les communes et les bourgeoisies, à la ville et à la campagne, sont obligées comme par le passé, à accorder protection mutuelle, secours et assistance à leurs concitoyens nécessiteux.

2. Nul ne pourra prétendre à l'assistance de sa commune, à moins que ne possédant pas de fortune, des défauts physiques ne l'empêchent de travailler, ou qu'il soit dénué de tout travail, sans que cela ne provienne de sa faute.

3. Chaque commune devra établir un contrôle des pauvres, d'après un modèle qu'on lui communiquera, sur lequel devra être marqué soigneusement, le nom de chaque pauvre secouru, l'état de sa fortune et de sa santé, ainsi que le montant et la nature du secours qu'il reçoit; on y ajoutera un rapport véridique sur sa conduite et sur les changemens qui surviendraient dans sa position.

4. Chaque commune devra à cet effet choisir un homme probe et estimable pour remplir la charge d'aumônier, pour administrer les fonds destinés aux pauvres, et pour percevoir soit les offrandes spontanées, soit les contributions légales pour les nécessiteux. Les communes considérables pourront établir plusieurs aumôniers, ou des adjoints pour un seul; elles pourront de mêmes fixer les conditions et la durée de la place d'aumônier et de ses adjoints. Ceux qui refuseront, sans excuse valable, de remplir la charge d'aumônier, seront mis sous cautionnement par sentence de juge, jusqu'à ce qu'ils veuillent l'accepter.

5. Les aumôniers sont particulièrement adstreints à prendre connaissance exacte de l'état des pauvres, à surveiller attentivement ceux qui reçoivent des secours et à les exciter au travail. Ils rendront annuellement leurs comptes, et feront leur rapport sur l'état des nécessiteux. Durant tout le tems qu'ils rempliront la fonction d'aumônier, on ne pourra les forcer d'aucune manière à se charger d'autres devoirs publics, soit de préposé, soit de tuteur, etc.; ils seront de même exempts du service militaire pendant ce tems.

6. Pour satisfaire à l'entretien des pauvres, les paroisses et les communes sont adressées aux ressources suivantes :

- a) Usufruit des fonds appartenant aux pauvres, et des legs qui peuvent leur échoir.
- b) Aumônes et offrandes gratuites, données pour être distribuées.
- c) Assignations de terrain sur les biensfonds communaux.
- d) Dans les endroits où ces ressources seraient insuffisantes, ou manqueraient tout-à-fait, on pourra prélever sur tous les biens immeubles situés dans les limites de la paroisse ou de la commune une contribution en argent ou en nature au profit des pauvres; et au cas que les biensfonds soient trop chargés de cette taxe, on pourra les prélever sur les biens et la fortune mobiles de tous les bourgeois de la commune. Avant que ces contributions puissent être prélevées, elles devront être sanctionnées par notre conseil d'état.

7. La manière, dont les communes se sont servies jusqu'à présent pour régler et arrêter leurs comptes relativement aux pauvres, pourra à l'avenir être la même.

8. De même les communes pourront s'en tenir à telle manière, pour assister et maintenir leurs pauvres, qu'elles le jugeront convenable; soit par des secours d'argent régulièrement administrés, soit en les mettant en pension, soit en se partageant les enfans des pauvres, soit en les réunissant en un seul ménage, soit enfin en les plaçant dans des hôtels-dieu. Seulement il sera défendu, qu'à l'avenir quelqu'un des pauvres soit maintenu de maison en maison, à tour de rôle, à moins que des circonstances extraordinaires ne l'exigent; et que l'autorisation en ait été obtenue par les autorités du district.

9. La punition à infliger aux personnes qui seront arrêtées pour cause de mendicité, et conduites à la commune dont elles font partie, sera prononcée par les préposés de la commune, en en prévenant toutefois le juge du district; la punition pourra être de 8 jours au plus d'emprisonnement au pain et à l'eau, ou bien de 15 jours de travail domestique en tout genre, d'enchaînement au bloc, ou de travail aux champs, aux routes, aux digues, et aux fontaines.

Sont soumis aux-mêmes mesures de rigueur tous ceux qui étant assistés par la commune, se montreraient récalcitrans ou donneraient d'autres sujets de plaintes fondées contre eux; on peut de même leur défendre l'entrée des cabarets et auberges, et punir de la manière sus-dite ceux qui contreviendraient à cette défense.

10. Les communes ont encore le droit de faire surveiller par la voie de leurs préposés tous ceux qui par le luxe, l'ivrognerie, l'avidité des procès, et par une conduite deshonorante se mettent en danger de s'appauvrir; et de demander par voie légale, qu'on les mette sous tutelle. Tous les individus, qui se trouvent dans ce cas, pourront, sur la demande de la commune, et par un arrêt de défense du préfet, être empêchés pour un tems, plus ou moins long, de fréquenter les auberges.

11. Au cas qu'un pauvre assisté par sa commune parvienne à quelque fortune par voie d'héritage ou par d'autres événemens heureux, la commune pourra lui redemander le montant des secours qu'elle lui a fourni, sans y comprendre toutefois les intérêts. En cas que la commune ne fasse pas usage de ce droit du vivant de cet individu, elle pourra s'en servir auprès des héritiers de ce dernier, à moins qu'elle n'y renonce en leur faveur.

12. Aucun pauvre secouru ne pourra se marier sans le consentement de sa commune, et à moins qu'il n'ait remboursé les secours qu'il en a reçus. Cette loi est de même applicable aux veufs, qui, lors de leur premier mariage, auraient reçu pour eux ou pour leurs enfans des secours de la commune. On ne devra accorder des permissions de mariage à ceux, qui sont secourus à cause de maladie ou de défauts physiques, que par des raisons de

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force majeure. C'est pourquoi aucun ministre ne devra annoncer en chaire le mariage d'un individu, qu'il sait être secouru par sa commune, sans le consentement préalable de cette dernière.

(N. B.—Les §§ 13 et 14 ont été changés par la loi du 16 Decembre 1812.)

13. Si l'oisiveté, la licence, la passion du jeu, ou l'abandon volontaire d'un père de famille sont la cause que ses enfans tombent tous ou en partie à la charge de la commune; s'il est avéré, qu'il pourrait les maintenir à lui seul, en menant une vie laborieuse et économique, et s'il n'a tenu aucun compte des avertissemens de ses supérieurs, l'aumônier aura le droit de le faire citer en justice pour la restitution des secours que ses enfans auront reçus; et au cas qu'il ne paie pas, il pourra être condamné à être suspendu de ses droits civils et de bourgeoisie, ou à deux années au plus d'emprisonnement dans une maison de correction; en cas de récidive il sera condamné à une punition plus sévère. Ce règlement est de même applicable dans tous ses points aux hommes, dont les enfans illégitimes tombent à la charge de la commune.

Au cas qu'un individu accusé d'un des délits ci-dessus mentionnés soit hors du pays, ou que son lieu de domicile ne soit pas connu, on procédera d'abord contre lui par voie de citations publiques; ensuite par sentence à contumace, il sera honni et suspendu de ses droits civils et de bourgeoisie, jusqu'à ce qu'il ait comparu devant le juge; et qu'il se soit ou justifié des griefs dressés contre lui, ou soumis à la sentence prononcée contre lui, au cas contraire.

Cette suspension des droits civils et de bourgeoisie, prononcée par le juge, devra être rendue publique par les feuilles officielles, et n'a d'autres suites, quant au canton Suisse, dans lequel l'accusé se trouverait alors, que celles: que les enfans illégitimes que le dit accusé pourrait avoir eut après la proclamation ne seraient ni reconnus ni admis dans le notre; il en est de même d'un mariage qu'il contracterait sans le consentement de sa commune. Cette règle est aussi applicable à toutes les sentences de contumace prononcées depuis la promulgation de la loi du 22 Decembre 1807, par lesquelles des bourgeois du canton de Berne auront été suspendus de leurs droits civils et de bourgeoisie.

14. L'information et l'arrêt en première instance des causes que le sus-dit § nous désigne, appartiennent aux préfets des districts, sous réserve du droit d'appel à notre conseil d'état. Mais afin d'établir un traitement uniforme pour ces causes, nous ordonnons, que toutes les sentences prononcées pour des causes désignées dans le sus-dit § (soit qu'elles aient eu lieu après l'interrogatoire de l'accusé, soit qu'elles aient été prononcées à contumace) devront être envoyées au conseil de justice et de police, qui a été établi par le conseil d'état, et qui les soumettra à ce dernier en cas qu'il le jugera nécessaire. Nous voulons en outre, que, lorsqu'un condamné par contumace rentrera au pays, et qu'il proteste contre l'exécution de la sentence prononcée contre lui, le préfet du district d'où le condamné est, commence une nouvelle information de la procédure, et qu'il prononce une autre sentence, avec laquelle on en devra agir ainsi que prescrit cette règle.

15. Une mère qui négligerait ses devoirs maternels en abandonnant méchamment ses enfans, sera reconduite dans sa commune; elle y sera tenue au travail, et en cas qu'elle s'évaderait, ou qu'elle se montrerait récalcitrante, elle pourra, sur la demande de la commune et sous réserve de l'appel au conseil d'état, être condamnée à trois années au plus de réclusion dans une maison de correction.

Une même punition pourra, sur la demande des communes, être infligée aux femmes de mauvaise vie qui auraient eu plusieurs enfans illégitimes tombant à la charge de la commune.

16. Nul homme qui aura reçu ou recevrait encore des secours de sa commune, soit pour lui-même, soit pour ses enfans en bas âge, ne pourra siéger ni voter aux assemblées communales, à moins qu'il n'ait rembourse dûment ces secours, ou que la commune ne lui accorde par autorisation authentique le droit d'assister aux dites assemblées.

17. Si quelqu'un, étant en droit d'après cette ordonnance de réclamer secours et assistance de sa commune, n'en recevrait point du tout ou insuffisamment, il pourra porter plainte devant le préfet, qui entendra alors les raisons de la commune; il prendra des informations exactes sur la position du plaignant, et au cas qu'il ait quelque doute sur l'existence effective des défauts physiques de ce dernier, il pourra le faire visiter par un médecin patenté; ensuite il ordonnera ce qui lui paraîtra nécessaire; le tout sans aucune retribution en argent.

18. Nos préfets en général doivent prendre soin, de s'attacher particulièrement à cette branche importante de leurs devoirs, et de faire tenir en règle les contrôles et les comptes des pauvres; ils s'appliqueront à faire sentir peu à peu aux paroisses qui sont chargées d'un grand nombre de pauvres les avantages qui résultent à créer des établissemens, où l'on distribue tous les jours de la soupe aux indigens, et d'autres établissemens, où les nécessiteux, surtout les jeunes d'entre'ux, sont obligés de travailler; ces établissemens pourraient fort bien s'effectuer, si plusieurs paroisses se réunissaient, et elles pourraient à cet effet demander des avis à notre commission des pauvres. Enfin, les préfets sont tenus d'envoyer chaque année à notre conseil d'état un rapport sur l'état des pauvres de leur district, et sur les secours qu'ils auront reçus pendant l'année. Ces rapports seront conçus d'après un modèle fixe, dont on leur fera part.

19. Les ministres des paroisses, où de pareils établissemens auraient eu lieu devront les surveiller et chercher par leurs conseils à les améliorer. Ils sont tenus de faire un rapport consciencieux sur les progrès et l'état de ces établissemens, chaque fois que les préfets l'exigeront, ou du moins tous les six mois. Ils doivent en outre observer attentivement si les pauvres fréquentent le service divin, s'ils envoient leurs enfans à l'école, s'ils donnent à ces

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ces derniers une nourriture et des habillemens suffisans ; et s'ils les accoutument de bonne heure au travail et à l'application.

20. Les préposés doivent user rigoureusement du droit que leur donne le § 9, et les suivans, à l'égard des pauvres paresseux et indignes de secours ; et ils doivent avoir des procédés d'autant meilleurs envers ceux qui sont laborieux, et qui ne se sont pas attiré leur pauvreté par une mauvaise conduite. Les communes devront aider surtout et particulièrement les pauvres, non par de l'argent dont on fait souvent mauvaise usage, mais en leur fournissant des vêtemens, des outils, des vivres, et en leur procurant de l'ouvrage, même à ceux dont tout l'entretien leur tombe à charge.

21. Nous exhortons enfin tout père de famille et tout citoyen opulent et charitable, à ne pas donner son superflu ou le bien qu'il destine aux pauvres, à des mendiens oisifs, à des gens qui ne le méritent pas ; en général à s'informer si les objets de sa bonté en sont dignes, à mettre plutôt ensemble ces dons charitables, afin de les faire parvenir à des pauvres vraiment nécessiteux, soit par la voie des autorités, soit en les donnant aux fonds des pauvres. Cette exhortation devra être répétée de tems à autre par les ministres du culte.

22. La présente ordonnance devra être imprimée et ajoutée au recueil de nos lois ; elle sera distribuée en nombre suffisant aux ministres et aux communes, et elle devra être lue publiquement en chaire tous les Dimanches après Pâques.

Donné et ordonné dans notre assemblée du grand conseil, Berne le 16, 18, 19, 22 Décembre 1807.

(signé) L'Avoyer en Charge,
C. F. Freudenreich.

(signé) Le Chancelier d'Etat,
Thormann.

CIRCULAIRE du Grand Conseil, en date du 4 Mars 1822.

Changement apporté dans le Règlement des Pauvres, relativement à la Suspension des Droits de Bourgeoisie.

Les relations fédérales à l'égard de tous les autres cantons Suisses, obligèrent le grand conseil, sous date du 16 Décembre 1812, de modifier la punition, que prononçaient contre des individus dont les enfans, soit légitimes soit illégitimes, tombent par leur conduite légère à la charge de leur commune, les §§ 13 et 14, de l'ordonnance sur les pauvres en date du 22 Décembre 1807, il commuta la peine de la perte totale des droits de bourgeoisie, que celle-ci prononçait, en simple suspension de la jouissance des dits droits. Mais cette suspension devint à son tour difficile à exécuter, à cause d'un concordat relativement aux heimathloses, convenu en 1820, entre la plupart des cantons Suisses et ratifié par nous, tellement que nous nous voyons dans l'obligation de changer les articles de l'ordonnance et loi du 16 Décembre 1812, qui se rapportent à ce sujet et d'ordonner ce qui suit :

“ Si l'oisiveté, la licence, la passion du jeu, ou l'abandon volontaire d'un père de famille, sont la cause que ses enfans tombent tous ou en partie à la charge de la commune, s'il est avéré qu'en menant une vie laborieuse et économe, il pourrait suffire à lui seul à l'entretien de sa famille, et qu'il a méprisé les exhortations de ses supérieurs ; de même si un homme devient onéreux à sa commune par l'entretien de plusieurs enfans illégitimes ; l'un et l'autre pourront être cités en justice par l'aumônier, pour le remboursement des secours fournis à leurs enfans, et au cas qu'ils ne paieraient pas, on sera en droit de leur infliger une des punitions designées dans le § 9, de l'ordonnance sur les pauvres ; on les punira préférentiellement par des travaux publics, plus ou moins longs, par la diffamation publique afin de mettre sur leurs gardes les personnes du sexe, par la suspension de leurs jouissances du droit de bourgeoisie, jusqu'à ce qu'ils aient satisfait à leur devoir ; ils pourront enfin être condamnés à deux années au plus de détention dans une maison de correction, et en cas de récidive on pourra leur infliger des punitions plus graves, suivant les cas et suivant le jugement du préfet, ces peines pourront être infligées au coupable partiellement ou plusieurs à la fois.

“ Au cas qu'un individu accusé d'un de ces délits, soit hors du pays, ou que son lieu de domicile ne soit pas connu, on procédera contre lui d'abord par voie de citations publiques, et ensuite au cas de non comparution, on le jugera par sentence de contumace ; en vertu de laquelle il pourra être condamné à une ou à plusieurs des peines ci-dessus marquées.

“ Nous supprimons par contre les sentences, qui condamneraient ces coupables au bannissement, et à la suspension perpétuelle de leurs droits de bourgeoisie ; et nous voulons que les sentences prononcées, en vertu de notre première ordonnance, soit contre des accusés présens, soit par contumace, et qui peseraient encore actuellement sur les condamnés, soient soumises à une révision, si ces derniers la demandent, ou si conseil d'état l'ordonne ; en cas qu'après cette révision les accusés se trouvassent encore punissables, l'on pourra alors leur infliger une des punitions notées dans l'article précédent.”

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La présente ordonnance devra à l'avenir vous servir de règle, lorsque de pareils cas se présenteront; à telle fin elle devra être reçue et admise dans le recueil de nos et décrets.

Donné ce 4 Mars 1822.

(signé) L'Avoyer en Charge,
Fr. de Mullinen.

(signé) Le Chancelier d'Etat,
Gruber.

ORDONNANCE relativement aux Patentes de Secours, aux Certificats de Pauvreté, et aux Permis de Mendier; en date du 29 Août 1803.

Nous, Avoyers et Conseils du Canton de Berne,

Savoir faisons :

Que, ayant remarqué à plusieurs reprises, que non seulement les gouvernemens d'autres cantons Suisses conféraient des patentes de secours, mais que souvent même des autorités cantonales et des ministres du culte accordaient des soit disans permis de mendier, ce qui étant contraire à une bonne police et devenant onéreux au pays et à ses habitants: nous

Ordonnons,

1. Sans notre consentement exprès et donné par écrit, aucune autorité du canton ne pourra et ne devra conférer une patente de secours.
2. Toutes les autres patentes de secours devront être retirées par nos préfets et envoyées immédiatement à notre conseil de justice et de police.
3. Sans notre consentement par écrit nul étranger ne pourra aller dans notre canton à la quête de secours, sous peine de la confiscation de ses papiers et d'une punition plus sévère encore suivant les circonstances.
4. MM. les pasteurs et les autorités communales à la campagne, qui seront dans le cas de donner des certificats de pauvreté, devront les donner étant fermés, parcequ'il se commet souvent de grands abus par le moyen de pareils certificats ouverts.
5. La présente ordonnance sera imprimée, lue publiquement en chaire et affichée aux endroits accoutumés, afin qu'un chacun puisse en prendre connaissance et se régler là-dessus.

Donné à Berne, le 29 Août 1803.

(signé) L'Avoyer en Charge,
R. de Wattenvyl.

(signé) Le Chancelier d'Etat,
Gruber.

CIRCULAIRE du Conseil de la Justice et de la Police à tous les Préfets des Districts; relativement aux Permis de Mendier et aux Certificats d'Indigence.

Quelques préfets ayant à plusieurs reprises et occasions conférés ou du moins scellés des permis à mendier, en contrevenant ainsi à l'ordonnance du 29 Août 1803, le conseil de la justice et de la police trouve convenable de vous la rappeler en mémoire tant à vous M. le Préfet, qu'à tous les autres MM. vos collègues, en vous invitant de veiller attentivement à son execution.

On vous prie en même tems M. le Préfet de vouloir bien signifier à MM. les pasteurs et aux autorités communales de votre district, qui pourraient être dans le cas de conférer des certificats d'indigence, d'y marquer soigneusement à quelle fin on les a conférés, afin d'éviter par là les abus qui se font fréquemment des certificats conçus en termes généraux.

Berne, ce 9 Février 1821.

Le Président du Conseil de la Justice et de la Police,
 (signé) *Tschanner.*

Le second Secrétaire du Conseil de Justice,
 (signé) *Forer.*

ORDONNANCE de la Police contre les Mendians; en date du 19 Février 1808.

Nous, Avoyers et Conseils du Canton de Berne,

Savoir faisons :

Que, afin de mettre des bornes à la mendicité toujours croissante, et afin de purger le pays de gens sans aveu et sans domicile, et pour établir enfin à ce sujet une surveillance sévère de la police, nous avons trouvé convenable et nécessaire d'ordonner ce qui suit :

1. Il est défendu à un chacun, qu'il soit du pays ou étranger, de mendier sous aucun prétexte, soit à la ville, soit à la campagne, soit sur les routes, soit dans les maisons.

2. Les mendiants de tout sexe et de tout âge, qu'ils soient ou non munis de passeports, devront être arrêtés par les gendarmes ou par les agens de police; ils seront conduits à leur commune, s'ils sont du district, et amenés pardevant le préfet, s'ils sont domiciliés dans un autre district, ou s'ils sont d'un autre canton ou d'un pays étranger.

3. Si ces pauvres arrêtés se trouvaient infirmes de manière à ne pouvoir gagner leur vie, la commune à laquelle ils appartiendront, devra, comme il est ordonné par le § 13, payer ces frais de transport, pour avoir négligé l'entretien de ses pauvres.

4. Mais s'il se trouvait que ces individus fussent du canton, et que ce ne fut que le penchant à l'oisiveté qui les eût portés à vivre ainsi aux dépens et à la charge de leurs concitoyens, le préfet aura le droit de leur faire infliger une punition corporelle, et la commune sera autorisée à les forcer au travail, jusqu'à ce qu'ils aient par là remboursé les frais de leur arrestation et de leur transport.

5. En cas de récidive tous les mendiants pourront être condamnés à huit jours au plus d'emprisonnement au pain et à l'eau; et si malgré cela ils retombent en faute, et que la commune le demande, ils pourront être punis par une détention plus ou moins longue dans une maison de correction; détention dont les frais retomberont sur la commune.

6. Les enfans qui seront attrappés à mendier devront être ramenés à la commune où ils sont domiciliés, après les avoir grondés et menacés; en cas de récidive ils seront fouettés avec les verges; et au cas qu'il soit avéré, que leurs parens ou ceux qui devaient leur en tenir lieu, savaient qu'ils allaient mendier et qu'ils ne les en aient pas empêchés, ils seront punis suivant l'exigence du cas; dans tous les cas ils seront tenus à payer les frais de transport occasionnés par leurs enfans.

7. Au cas que le mendiant arrêté appartienne à un autre canton, on pourra lui infliger selon le cas une punition corporelle; on le conduira sur les frontières du canton, après l'avoir muni d'un passeport, pour se rendre chez soi, et on lui fera payer ces divers frais, si toutefois il est en état de le faire.

8. Mais si ce mendiant appartenait à une des trois classes désignées ci-après:

- a.) Des soldats vagabonds, qui n'ont point ou de mauvais congés, des déserteurs de troupes étrangères;
- b.) Des heimathlosen, qu'ils soient ou non munis de passeports;
- c.) Des compagnons de métier dont les passeports et les livrets ne seraient pas en bon ordre;

il devra être conduit sans retard par les gendarmes sur les frontières, et cela le plus que possible du côté de sa patrie, ou de son lieu de naissance, ou du lieu de sa résidence précédente, et dans le cas qu'il rentre une seconde fois dans le canton, on lui infligera une punition corporelle; et la punition de sa troisième infraction pourra alors être augmentée selon la gravité du cas, par la marque ou par une peine plus forte; et afin de reconnaître mieux de pareils individus, on devra prendre dès la première fois leur signalement bien exactement.

9. On conduira par devant le préfets, et on traitera d'après les ordonnances du 29 Août 1803 et du 27 Avril 1804, tous ceux qui, sans une autorisation, quêteront des secours; ainsi que les colporteurs, qui n'auraient pas de patentes ou qui en feraient mauvais usage.

10. On devra surtout examiner et interroger avec grand soin les vagabonds qui traversent le pays en troupe, c. à d. avec femme et enfans et autre compagnie, qui séjournent dans les bois, qui parlent l'argot des coquins, et qui porteraient des armes; on les punira selon qu'ils l'auront mérité, et on les fera conduire sur les frontières de leur domicile. Mais au cas que de graves soupçons tomberaient sur eux, on devra les conduire sur le champ à Berne, pardevant le juge d'instruction, et cela à leurs propres frais s'ils sont en état de payer. Cette règle est applicable aux autres vagabonds qualifiés dans les §§ 8, 9.

11. Il est défendu à tout habitant du pays de loger des mendiants qui rodent le pays, sous peine de sa propre responsabilité, en cas que malheur n'en arrive; au village, un chacun est tenu de conduire de pareils rôdeurs, en cas qu'ils demanderaient le logement pour la nuit, où qu'ils chercheraient à s'introduire furtivement dans les maisons, pardevant le préposé de la commune nommé à cet effet, qui prendra aussitôt les mesures nécessaires pour les loger, et pour les faire conduire le lendemain par un gendarme à la préfecture du district, pour en disposer selon l'exigence du cas.

12. Tous les étrangers, et les gens du pays suspects, qui seront amenés pardevant nos préfets en vertu de la présente ordonnance, devront être notés sur un contrôle dont le modèle sera envoyé à chaque préfet; tous les six mois il sera envoyé un extrait de ce contrôle à notre conseil de la justice, afin d'en faire part au juge d'instruction, et au chef des gendarmes.

13. Tout mendiant, vagabond, etc. qui aura été saisi par la police, conformément à la présente ordonnance, et qui aura été conduit, soit à sa commune, soit pardevant le préfet, soit pardevant le juge d'instruction, soit enfin aux frontières, payera à moins d'être entièrement pourvu de moyens; la valeur de 5 batz au gendarme qui l'a arrêté; il lui paiera de plus pour une distance de moins de six lieues, deux kreutzers par lieue; et pour une distance de plus de six lieues, un batz. par lieue; y compris toutefois son voyage de retour. Ensuite pour la nourriture, qui consistera en trois fois de soupe et de pain par jour, et à deux batz par fois; et un batz pour le lit, dans les endroits où ils devront s'arrêter la nuit.

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Les mêmes émolumens et frais doivent être payés par les communes négligentes, auxquelles on aurait reconduit un de leurs pauvres.

Toutefois les gendarmes n'auront pas droit à des émolumens plus forts, lorsqu'ils arrêteront et conduiront une troupe entière de vagabonds, que pour un seul individu.

Pour l'entrée et la sortie de prison, si cette punition a été infligée en vertu du § 8, ou si ce n'est que pendant le tems du transport, il ne sera rien payé, si le prisonnier n'en a pas les moyens.

14. Tous les agens de police en général, et particulièrement nos préfets et employés, ainsi que les autorités communales, sont chargés d'exécuter exactement cette ordonnance.

15. Cette ordonnance sera imprimée et affichée aux endroits accoutumés, afin qu'un chacun en prenne connaissance; elle sera distribuée en nombre suffisant aux communes, et sera lue publiquement en chaire.

Donné à Berne, ce 19 Février 1808.

L'Avoyer en Charge,
(signé) *R. de Wattenwyl.*

Chancelier d'Etat,
(signé) *Gruber.*

CIRCULAIRE de l'Avoyer et Conseil d'Etat de la Ville et République de Berne à tous les Préfets, hormis ceux du Jura, en date du 20 Février 1829, relativement aux Enfans Illégitimes et aux Dots Communales.

Les demandes réitérées de quelques communes, relativement à l'emploi que l'on pourrait le plus utilement faire des secours en argent, qu'un père était forcé, par sentence judiciaire, à fournir pour l'entretien et l'éducation de son enfant illégitime; nous ont engagés, après avoir oui notre conseil de la justice, à publier à ce sujet les ordonnances qui suivent ci-après. En même tems, nous avons été déterminés, par des publications fréquentes des communes relativement à l'abus qui existe, de doter des femmes pauvres, à établir à ce sujet aussi une règle et une loi générale. Quant à l'égard:

1. De l'emploi des sus-dits secours: les communes exerçant sur les enfans illégitimes le droit de père et vertu du § 204, du code civil, auront par conséquent le droit, et ce sera même leur devoir de chercher à utiliser le mieux possible les secours que sont obligés de payer les pères de ces enfans. Ainsi lorsque les communes appréhenderont des suites préjudiciables aux enfans, si on les laissait auprès de leurs mères, auxquelles leur entretien et leur première éducation appartient, en vertu du § 203 du dit code civil, ou que l'on voie, que le secours n'est pas employé et dépensé conformément à son but, les communes pourront placer ces enfans dans une autre pension, et payer cette pension des secours légaux du père; le surplus qui en resterait devra être placé à l'intérêt dans une caisse d'épargne, ou dans d'autre mains sûres, et le montant soigneusement gardé, pour être remis plus tard entre les mains de ces enfans.

2. Quant aux dots accordés à des femmes pauvres; outre qu'elles causent souvent des abus scandaleux, elles sont une assistance illégale accordée aux pauvres; car le § 2, de l'ordonnance, datée de Décembre 1807, concernant les pauvres, prescrit clairement, que ce ne sont que les indigens dénués de toute fortune, que des défauts physiques empêchent de travailler, ainsi que ceux qui souffrent innocemment d'un manque total d'ouvrage, qui y aient droit. Par cette raison, et parceque la loi du mois de Juin 1823, relativement aux contributions obligatoires pour les pauvres, n'autorise pas à percevoir des contributions pour cet objet, et parceque donc il serait fort illégal de se servir, pour de pareils secours, du produit provenant des contributions destinées à soulager de véritables nécessiteux: "Nous défendons, comme étant illegal, tout secours pareil, qui aura été pris sur le produit des fonds des pauvres ou des contributions; et nous vous chargeons par la présente à surveiller dans votre district, à ce qu'elle soit exécutée; à telle fin, lorsque vous arrêterez et examinerez les comptes des pauvres et des communes, et que vous y trouverez des articles de dépense pour de pareils secours; vous êtes autorisé de les rayer sur le champ."

La présente ordonnance sera ajoutée à notre recueil de lois et décrets, on vous en envoie ci-joint un nombre suffisant d'exemplaires imprimés, pour les distribuer à MM. les pasteurs et aux communes de votre district.

Donné à Berne, ce 20 Février 1829

L'Avoyer en Charge,
(signé) *R. de Wattenwyl.*

Le premier Secrétaire d'Etat,
(signé) *Wurstemberger.*

ORDONNANCE sur le Transport des Pauvres, en date du 17 Mai 1811.

Nous, Avoyers et Conseil d'Etat du Canton de Berne, savoir faisons:

Que, d'après des rapports réitérés du directeur de notre police centrale, et du juge d'instruction, nous avons été convaincus des mauvaises ordonnances et de l'arrangement vicieux, qui existent relativement au transport des pauvres; et que nous voulons aviser aux

aux moyens propres à fournir aux personnes indigentes et infirmes le transport nécessaire pour les conduire à leur lieu de domicile ou de destination, voulant par là leur ôter le prétexte pour mendier, et soulager le pays et les communes. C'est pourquoi après avoir ouï le rapport de notre conseil de justice et de police, nous avons résolu, et nous

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Ordonnons :

1. Il devra y avoir à chaque station de gendarmerie, soit sur les frontières, soit dans l'intérieur du canton, des voitures pour le transport des pauvres de station en station ; ces voitures devront être fournies par un pourvoyeur, élu par les communes avec l'approbation du préfet.

2. Ces voitures de pauvres sont destinées à transporter les personnes indigentes, qui se trouveraient dans un des cas ci-après marqués, à la frontière la plus voisine de leur pays, si elles sont étrangères, et à leur commune ou au lieu de leur destination, si ce sont des gens du canton :

a) Des personnes malades ou qui ont des défauts physiques qui les empêchent de marcher ; des vieillards, des enfans, des femmes grosses, qui ne pourraient continuer leur route à pied.

b) Des prisonniers pauvres, qui seraient dans un des cas ci-dessus mentionnés.

c) Des personnes qui arriveraient sur la frontière par les moyens de transport d'un autre pays ou canton ; qui se trouveraient dans un cas pareil à ceux qui sont désignés plus haut, et qui pourraient se légitimer comme citoyens du canton, ou qui seraient obligés d'y passer pour arriver au lieu de leur destination.

Les stations de gendarmes placées aux frontières n'accepteront aucune autre classe de pauvres transportés sur nos frontières par voies de transport étrangères ; et ils les renverront aussitôt.

3. Pour obtenir un pareil moyen de transport on devra s'adresser au préfet du district, qui examinera le cas, et qui se fera donner au besoin un certificat du médecin ; lorsque de cette manière il aura reconnu la nécessité du transport, il délivrera au requérant une feuille de route et autant de coupons de transport qu'il aura de stations à faire pour arriver au lieu de sa destination, ce qui devra être noté sur la feuille de route. Ces feuilles de route et ces coupons devront être conçus et imprimés d'après un modèle, voulu pour tel effet.

Dans les districts des frontières, où la préfecture serait à une grande distance de la frontière, le préfet aura soin d'établir dans le voisinage des stations de frontière, un agent auquel il pourra conférer le droit d'accorder des permis pour moyens de transport aux personnes venant de l'extérieur, qui seraient à ranger dans une des classes désignées dans le § 2.

4. En cas que les pauvres, dont l'état nécessite les moyens de transport, demeuraient dans les endroits du canton éloignés des stations de transport, ils devront être voiturés par leurs communes ou par les propriétaires jusqu'à la station la plus voisine dans la direction du lieu de leur destination, ainsi que cela a eu lieu jusqu'à présent ; il faudra toutefois avoir obtenu auparavant du préfet la feuille de route et les coupons.

5. Pour une voiture à un collier, qui doit être solide, bien arrangée, et qui ne doit recevoir que quatre personnes y compris le voiturier, il sera payé au fournisseur à raison de cinq batz par lieue, et autant pour le retour ; une pareille voiture à deux colliers sera payée sept batz et demi par lieue, et autant pour le retour, qu'elle ait eu une charge ou non. Le paiement n'aura lieu que sur la présentation des coupons en bonne forme, tels que les prescrit le § 3. Le paiement sera refusé, si le transport a été fourni au moyen d'autre attelage que des chevaux.

6. A ces fins les fournisseurs devront remettre annuellement dans le courant de Janvier, leurs coupons aux préfets, qui les délivreront au directeur de la police centrale et au juge d'instruction, ce dernier en soldera le montant et rendra ses comptes au conseil de la justice et de la police.

7. Les frais du transport des pauvres étrangers au canton, sont portés en entier par le gouvernement ; mais les communes devront rembourser au directeur de la police centrale et au juge d'instruction les frais occasionnés par le transport de pauvres qui auraient droit de bourgeoisie dans les dites communes ; fait exception le transport de prisonniers qualifiés plus haut dans le § 2, art. 6, dont les frais seront comptés dans les frais de la procédure.

L'Etat ne bonifie rien pour les transports fournies de l'intérieur du canton jusqu'à la station la plus voisine.

8. Ne sont pas compris sous cette règle du précédent § les contrées ou les domaines sur lesquels, suivant des titres et des documens encore existens, pèse le transport obligatoire des pauvres ; cette obligation reste donc alors soumise à la détermination de la loi du 17 Décembre 1804.

9. Si le cas avenait, que plusieurs individus venant de différentes directions arrivassent à la fois dans la même station, ou que pour diverses raisons ils eussent reçu plusieurs coupons, mais que ce n'eût été qu'une seule voiture qui les eût transportés, le gendarme de garde à cette station devra le noter sur les coupons, afin que le même transport ne soit pas payé deux fois ; il en est de même, lorsque la voiture en s'en retournant aurait à conduire un autre transport de pauvres.

10. Les distances d'une station à une autre seront les mêmes que celles fixées dans le règlement pour la gendarmerie (p. 103—124.)

11. Nos préfets ainsi que leurs agens aux stations des frontières, qu'ils sont en droit de

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s'adjoindre conformément au § 3, sont autorisés à payer comme argent de route, à chaque individu, auquel ils donneront un coupon, un batz par heure; s'il est du canton il le recevra jusqu'à sa destination, et jusques aux frontières s'il est étranger.

Deux enfans âgés au dessous de quatre ans, recevront ensemble l'argent de route d'une grande personne.

12. Cet argent de route devra être marqué à mesure sur la feuille de route. Les voyageurs devront s'en nourrir, et ne sont autorisés à demander que le logement pour la nuit. Ils ne devront pas mendier, ni tomber à charge à qui que ce soit et d'aucune autre manière sous peine d'être punis selon la détermination de l'ordonnance du 19 Février 1808.

13. Le compte du montant de ces indemnités de route sera envoyé (ainsi qu'il a été ordonné déjà relativement aux frais du transport, § 6 et 7.) par MM. les préfets, au directeur de la police centrale et au juge d'instruction; et si cela concernait des citoyens du canton, leurs communes devront les restituer.

14. Du reste, nous confirmons toutes nos ordonnances de police, relativement aux mendiants et aux passeports, et nous enjoignons sérieusement à tous nos agens de police, de renvoyer et d'éloigner des frontières les mendiants étrangers, et tout individu qui ne serait pas muni de passeports bien en règle; d'avoir le même soin à l'intérieur, à l'égard des mendiants et des vagabonds, de les faire passer les frontières, ou les faire conduire à leur commune, suivant l'exigence du cas, et de les faire punir avec toute la rigueur de la loi, s'ils l'ont mérité.

15. L'exécution de cette ordonnance est conférée à tous nos préfets en général, mais en particulier à notre directeur de la police centrale, et à notre juge d'instruction, lequel devra donner les instructions nécessaires aux fournisseurs des transports, et faire imprimer les feuilles de route et les coupons.

16. La présente ordonnance sera imprimée et rendue publique par les voies accoutumées, et elle aura force de loi pendant un espace de tems d'épreuve de quatre ans; après lequel tems, nous nous réservons, ou de garder pour toujours ces nouvelles institutions, après y avoir toutefois apporté les modifications convenables, ou de remettre cet objet dans l'ancien état de choses.

Donné à Berne ce 17 Mai 1811.

L'Avoyer en Charge,
(signé) *C. F. Freudenreich.*

Le Chancelier d'Etat,
(signé) *Thormann.*

ORDONNANCE relativement à la Perception de l'Impôt Aubain et du Droit d'Entrée;
en date du 23 Mai 1804.

Nous, Avoyer, Grand et Petit Conseils du Canton de Berne, savoir faisons:

Que, en considération du projet que notre conseil d'état nous a présenté relativement à la fixation des droits et devoirs des aubains, envers la commune dans laquelle ils établiraient leur domicile, ainsi que de ceux qui acquerreraient des biensfonds dans une commune de laquelle ils ne seraient pas bourgeois; nous avons trouvé convenable d'établir ce qui va suivre. A cet effet, nous

Ordonnons:

1. Tout citoyen, soit du canton, soit de la Suisse, qui voudra s'établir dans une commune dont il n'est pas bourgeois, est tenu, soit qu'il y acquierre des biensfonds, soit que simplement il y établisse sa demeure, de déposer, avant son entrée, une lettre d'origine pour lui et pour tous les siens, entre les mains du conseil de la ville ou de la commune; faute de quoi il devra être aussitôt renvoyé de la dite commune.

Quant à l'établissement des étrangers, on devra se conformer d'après notre ordonnance du 5 Décembre 1803.

2. Le conseil de la ville ou de la commune remettra à ceux qui auront déposé leurs lettres d'origine, un certificat, dans lequel devra être marqué le reçu des dits papiers.

3. Tous les 10 ans ces lettres d'origine devront être ou changées ou renouvelées.

4. A cet effet lorsque l'on rendra annuellement les comptes sur les biens communaux, on devra en même temps présenter une liste exacte de ces aubains, avec la date de leurs lettres d'origine, ainsi que les lettres d'origine de ceux qui se seront établis dans la commune pendant l'année dernière.

5. En cas qu'un aubain ait été toléré dans une commune pendant l'espace de dix années, sans qu'on lui ait demandé la déposition ou le renouvellement de sa lettre d'origine, et au cas que le dit aubain ne jouisse d'aucun autre droit de bourgeoisie, la commune devra le secourir ou entretenir s'il tombait dans la misère et l'indigence.

6. Lorsqu'un aubain quittera la commune dans laquelle il s'était domicilié, on devra lui remettre sa lettre d'origine, après que lui-même aura rendu la quittance qu'on lui en avait donnée.

7. Sont exempts de déposer leurs lettres d'origine, ainsi que le prescrit le § 1.

a) Les ecclésiastiques et les employés civils, que leur charge oblige à demeurer dans les communes.

b) Ceux qui sont employés au service militaire dans une commune, et les sergens de police pendant qu'ils sont en charge, enfin les vachers, en tant qu'ils ne demeureront pas

pas plus de huit mois dans une commune ; ils devront cependant montrer leur lettre d'origine aux autorités communales si elles le demandent.

8. Tout conseil de ville ou de commune est autorisée à percevoir un droit annuel, appelé impôt aubain, de tous ceux qui fixent leur domicile dans leur territoire ; qu'ils soient Suisses, ou étrangers, ou citoyens du canton.

9. Le conseil d'état fixera le montant de l'impôt aubain que chaque commune sera en droit de percevoir ; à cet effet il exigera de chaque conseil de ville ou de commune un rapport, qui sera déposé dans le greffe de chaque district, afin que les aubains puissent en prendre connaissance, et adresser au cas de besoin leurs réclamations au préfet ; pour cela il leur est donné un terme de quatre semaines, à dater du jour où la connaissance du rapport aurait été rendue publique.

10. Cet impôt aubain ne pourra être fixé en dessus de dix francs, ni en dessous de sept batz et demi.

11. Sont exempts de payer l'impôt aubain :

- a) Ceux désignés dans l'article 7.
- b) Ceux qui rempliraient à la ville ou au village l'emploi de professeur ou de maître d'école.
- c) Ceux enfin qui en vertu du § 14 ont été chargés de quelque tutèle, ou qui pendant ces charges auraient eu à vaquer à un emploi communal.

12. L'impôt aubain sera payable d'avance tous les six mois, savoir : chaque 1^{er} Janvier et chaque 1^{er} Juillet, ou sans cela à dater du moment, où quelqu'un fixe son domicile sur le territoire de la commune. Les autorités auront soin de fixer et de faire connaître publiquement le jour ou les jours auxquels la perception devra se faire.

13. Si un aubain ne paye pas l'impôt voulu au terme fixé, on commencera d'abord par le prévenir et l'exhorter, en cas qu'il n'en tiendrait pas compte, et que sous le délai de quinze jours il ne payerait pas son dû, le conseil de la ville ou de la commune sera autorisé à le faire poursuivre par voie de saisie, contre lequel procédé l'aubain ne pourra alléguer ni excuse ni défense. Mais au cas qu'il ne possède aucun bienfond à la commune, on pourra porter plainte au préfet et demander à ce que le coupable soit éloigné sur le champ et sans remise hors de la commune.

14. Dans aucun cas et sous aucun prétexte les communes ne pourront exiger que les aubains fournissent, outre le paiement de leur impôt légal, une part plus grande pour les dépenses publiques, que n'en paient les bourgeois mêmes de la commune ; ils sont toutefois obligés au mêmes service personnels que ces derniers, et ceux d'entr'eux qui possèdent des biensfonds dans la commune et qui sont citoyens du canton, pourront être tenus à remplir des charges communales et l'emploi de tuteur ; de même qu'ils auront à supporter les contributions perçues sur les biensfonds par la commune, aussi bien que les autres propriétaires.

15. A part les cas notés dans les § 1 et 13, on pourra chasser pour les cas suivans un aubain qui ne posséderait pas de biensfonds dans la commune.

- a) Si lui ou les siens se rendent coupables à plusieurs reprises de délits forestiers. Le conseil d'état est autorisé, pour empêcher les aubains de nuire aux bois, à imposer aux propriétaires des maisons telles obligations qui lui paraîtront convenablement pourvoir se faire à l'égard de la localité.
- b) Si lui ou les siens tombent par leur mendicité à la charge de la commune, malgré les avis et les exhortations.
- c) S'il n'envoie pas ses enfans à l'école, malgré que l'invitation lui en ait été faite ; à moins qu'il ne puisse prouver que d'une autre manière il prenne soin de leur éducation.
- d) Si en dépit des remontrances il continue par son penchant à l'ivrognerie, et par une conduite licencieuse à troubler le repos de ses voisins.
- e) S'il se fait mettre entre les mains de la justice criminelle, ou si pour des fautes plus ou moins graves, il a comparu à plusieurs reprises devant une cour civile.

Dans un de ces cas et sur la dénonciation de la commune, le coupable pourra être renvoyé hors de la commune par le préfet, du reste le séjour d'un aubain dans une commune est entièrement indépendant de la volonté de l'autorité du lieu.

16. Tout conseil de ville ou de commune est autorisé à percevoir un droit d'entrée de tout individu qui n'étant point bourgeois de la commune, y acquiert un bienfond.

17. Sont exempts du paiement des droits d'entrée les aubains qui auraient un droit de bourgeoisie dans une commune de la même paroisse ; ainsi que ceux qui deviennent propriétaires d'un bienfond par voie d'héritage, ou par suite de banqueroute du premier possesseur. Quant aux contrées, dans lesquelles les communes se sont désaisies entr'elles du droit d'entrée reciproque, cette ancienne coutume pourra continuer à y faire loi.

18. Le droit d'entrée, payable par l'acquerreur du bienfond, sera fixé au quatre pour cent de la valeur du dit bienfond. On pourra avoir recours à une estimation impartiale dans les cas où la valeur du bienfond ne serait pas marquée sur le titre d'acquisition.

19. Les conseils des villes et des communes auront de plus le droit de percevoir un droit d'entrée, même de ces aubains, qui ne posséderaient aucun bienfond dans la commune ; ce droit d'entrée équivaldra le montant annuel de l'impôt aubain.

20. Les droits d'entrée seront affectés aux fonds des pauvres, et placés à intérêts. Les produits de l'impôt aubain par contre devront servir, ou à l'entretien annuel des pauvres, ou à celui des églises et des écoles publiques.

21. Toutes les difficultés qui surviendraient par rapport à cette ordonnance, entre les

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municipalités et les aubains, seront jugées sommairement par le préfet du district, après qu'il aura entendu les raisons des deux parties; sous réserve de l'appel au conseil d'état.

22. La présente ordonnance prendra force de loi, relativement à la perception des droits d'entrée et de l'impôt aubain, à dater du 1 Juillet 1804.

23. Par cette loi sont supprimés les déterminations et les significations de toutes les précédentes ordonnances, lois et concessions à ce sujet.

24. La présente ordonnance sera imprimée et rendue publique, et elle sera affichée aux endroits accoutumés.

Donné dans notre assemblées du Grand Conseil, Berne, le 9, 11, 21, et 23 Mai 1804:

L'Avoyer en Charge,
 (signé) *R. de Wattenwyl.*

Le Chancelier d'Etat,
 (signé) *Thormann.*

ORDONNANCE qui autorise à renvoyer les Aubains, non seulement hors de la Commune mais encore hors du District. Circulaire en date du 18 Décembre 1821.

Le § 15 de l'ordonnance sur les aubains détermine les cas pour lesquels un aubain peut être renvoyé de la commune, sur la dénonciation de celle-ci et de l'autorité du lieu. Mais l'expérience a prouvé que le renvoy simple hors de la commune était souvent fort indifférent au coupable, et que des mesures de police étaient nécessaires pour éloigner et bannir ces sortes de gens.

C'est pourquoi, après avoir ouï le rapport de notre conseil de justice, nous avons trouvé bon et convenable d'étendre le sens du § 15 de la dite ordonnance, que nous confirmons entier, de manière que, dans les cas désignés, et sur la dénonciation des communes et de l'autorité du lieu, le préfet sera autorisé à renvoyer, selon les cas, les coupables hors de la commune et même hors du district, s'ils n'en sont pas bourgeois. Après quoi vous devrez agir en cas de besoin.

Donné à Berne, le 18 Décembre 1821.

L'Avoyer en Charge,
 (signé) *R. de Wattenwyl.*

Le Chancelier d'Etat,
 (signé) *Gruber.*

DECRET relativement au Droit d'Entrée, qui doit être payée quand on se marie avec une Femme étrangère ou d'une autre Commune; en date du 20 Décembre 1816.

Nous, Avoyer, Grand et Petit Conseils de la Ville et République de Berne, savoir faisons:

En considérant d'une part que les droits d'entrée "qui existaient avant l'année 1798 dans beaucoup de villes, dans des communes, et dans des districts entiers, par suite d'anciens titres et de privilèges expressement accordés par l'ancien gouvernement, en vertu desquels il fallait que des femmes étrangères ou d'une autre paroisse obtinssent en payant le droit de bourgeoisie de l'endroit du mari et cela avant le mariage," étaient fondés sur la justice et sur l'équité, puisque ces femmes acquerraient par leur mariage les droits et jouissances attachés à la bourgeoisie de leur mari: En considérant d'une autre part que la perception de ces droits offre une ressource nouvelle et abondante aux communes pour l'entretien de leurs pauvres, dont les fonds ont été considérablement diminués par l'époque actuelle et par l'augmentation prodigieuse des nécessiteux; nous avons été portés à acquiescer au vœu général du pays, en rétablissant ces droits par une loi, et en leur donnant une plus grande extension sur toutes les communes du canton. C'est pourquoi et afin de mettre en une proportion équitable le montant des droits, et les revenus et droits de chaque endroit, et afin d'alléger aux communes la perception de ces droits, nous

Ordonnons:

1. Toute commune du canton est autorisée à percevoir ce droit d'entrée chaque fois qu'un de ses concitoyens se marie avec une femme d'une autre paroisse; bien entendu toutefois, que dans les paroisses composées de plusieurs communes qui ont chacune une caisse des pauvres à part et une concession spéciale pour la perception de l'impôt aubain, l'on pourra percevoir le droit d'entrée pour chaque mariage qui aura lieu entre les habitants de ces différentes communes, quoiqu'elles soient de la même paroisse. De même il est entendu, que l'on ne pourra pas percevoir ce droit dans ces communes du canton qui, en vertu d'anciens privilèges sanctionnés par le gouvernement, ne perçoivent réciproquement aucun impôt aubain entr'elles.

2. Le montant de ce droit d'entrée a été fixé ainsi qu'il suit:

- a) Pour les bourgeoisies du canton qui se trouveront dans un des cas désignés dans le § précédent, ce droit d'entrée se montera à cinq fois la valeur de l'impôt aubain établi par suite de concession dans la commune de leurs maris.
- b) Les Suissesses des autres cantons auront à payer quinze fois cette valeur.
- c) Les étrangères devront payer vingt fois la valeur de l'impôt aubain.

Quant

Quant aux communes qui ne perçoivent pas d'impôt aubain, ou qui autrefois percevaient, en vertu d'anciens titres, des droits d'entrée plus considérables, le conseil d'état pourra y fixer le montant de ce droit proportionnellement aux biens communaux, aux jouissances résultant du droit de bourgeoisie, et aux anciens titres fondés; toutefois le montant pour la plus haute classe ne pourra pas être fixé au de là de deux cents francs.

Note.—Conformément à une ordonnance du 13 Janvier 1823, un bourgeois du canton, qui se mariera avec une femme du canton de Soleure, paiera cinquante francs à sa commune; et la mariée paiera un droit d'entrée de cent francs.

3. Jusqu'à ce que le paiement de ce droit d'entrée soit certifié par un reçu en bonne forme de l'autorité du lieu, nul ecclésiastique aura le droit de bénir le mariage d'un bourgeois du canton avec une femme qui n'est pas de la même commune que son époux. Les ministres qui contreviendront à cette ordonnance, seront garans et responsables du paiement à la commune.

4. Pareillement, et sous la même responsabilité de l'ecclésiastique contrevenant, le mariage d'aucun bourgeois du canton que se trouve à l'étranger, ne pourra être annoncé en chaire, si le dit reçu n'a été présenté auparavant; ainsi que le prescrit le § 3.

5. Au cas que de pareils mariages se contractent à l'étranger sans avoir été préalablement annoncés dans notre canton, le contrevenant sera suspendu de ses droits et jouissances de bourgeoisie, lui et toute sa famille, jusqu'à ce qu'il ait payé le droit d'entrée voulu; sauf encore en outre les autres suites qui pourraient résulter de sa contravention.

6. Les droits d'entrée échéans seront joints à la ville et dans les communes aux fonds des pauvres; et leur usufruit sera employé à assister les pauvres, conformément aux ordonnances.

7. Le présent décret abolit et supprime toutes les précédentes ordonnances relativement à ce sujet, mais nommément la loi Helvétique du 18 Août 1798; il prendra force de loi à dater du 1 Janvier 1817; et de là en six années le conseil de la justice est tenu de nous faire un rapport sur la réussite et l'efficacité de ce décret. Il sera imprimé dans les deux langues, lu publiquement en chaire, et affiché aux endroits accoutumés; afin qu'un chacun puisse en prendre connaissance, et il sera joint au recueil de nos lois et décrets.

Donné dans notre assemblée du grand conseil, Berne, le 14, 16 et 20 Décembre 1816.

L'Avoyer en Charge,
(signé) *Fr. de Mullinen.*

Le Chancelier d'Etat,
(signé) *Gruber.*

COMMENTAIRE sur la Perception des Droits d'Entrée, en date du 6 Mars 1829.

Il est parvenu à notre connaissance, que l'on interprétait de différentes manières le § 19 de la loi du 23 May 1804, relativement à la perception de l'impôt aubain et du droit d'entrée; savoir, que dans des endroits, on suivait le principe, "de se faire payer le droit d'entrée par un jeune homme, dont les parens demeureraient comme aubains dans la commune sans posséder des biensfonds, si, pour raisons de mariage ou autres causes, il faisait ménage à part;" tandis qu'en d'autres endroits on suivait le principe contraire.

Après avoir examiné le cas, et ouï là dessus le rapport de notre conseil de la justice et de la police, nous avons trouvé convenable de donner l'éclaircissement suivant au § 19 de la dite loi: c. à. d. qu'il ne pourra être exigé des droits d'entrée, puisqu'il n'y a pas lieu à une entrée proprement dite, et que d'après le § 17 les héritiers des aubains qui possèdent des biensfonds, ne peuvent être obligés à payer de rechef le droit d'entrée.

Cette interprétation devra être mise à la connaissance de tous les préfets, et elle sera ajoutée au recueil des lois et décrets.

Donné à Berne ce 6 Mars 1829.

L'Avoyer en Charge,
(signé) *R. de Wattenwyl.*

Le Chancelier d'Etat,
(signé) *Fr. May.*

STATUTS DU CODE CIVIL.

Indemnisations d'une Commune pour les Enfants Illégitimes.

Statut 170. Le consistoire condamnera le père d'un enfant illégitime à payer une somme d'indemnisation à la commune, à la charge de laquelle le dit enfant tombe.

Statut 171. Cette somme sera fixée d'après les principes contenus dans le statut 169, et ne devra pas passer la somme de cinq cents francs, ni être en dessous de cinquante francs. Cette somme est payable aussitôt qu'elle aura été fixée, et son paiement pourra être requis par voie judiciaire, après quinze jours d'écoulés.

Statut 172. On devra rembourser cette somme d'indemnisation au père, si son enfant obtient d'une des manières désignées dans les statuts 147, 167, le droit de bourgeoisie de l'endroit du père.

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RESTRICTION des Contributions Communales pour les Pauvres; Ordonnance datée
du 14 Avril 1819.

Les Avoyers et Conseils de la Ville et République de Berne, à tous les Prefets, hormis
ceux du Jura :

Il nous est parvenu que nonobstant le meilleur marché actuel des vivres, les contributions communales et celles des pauvres ont plutôt augmenté qu'il diminué dans plusieurs communes, surtout dans l'Emmenthal, et qu'en général la dépense et l'emploi s'en faisaient dans beaucoup d'endroits fort arbitrairement. Nous avons été engagés par là à charger notre commission d'économie rurale de prendre des informations exactes sur l'état des dites contributions dans tout le canton, et de faire établir à ce sujet des règles générales.

Mais en attendant et jusqu'à ce que ce travail long et pénible soit achevé, nous avons trouvé convenable d'ordonner quelques mesures préalables, afin de limiter d'une part autant que possible les contributions communales et celles des pauvres; et afin de supprimer d'autre part plusieurs abus qui se sont glissés dans les administrations communales, et dont la continuation et autant préjudiciable à la chose publique, qu'elle menace le bien-être du pays. A cet effet, nous

Ordonnons :

1. Afin de limiter le plus possible les contributions communales, ainsi que celles pour les pauvres, qui sont devenues un fardeau bien onéreux pour la plupart des citoyens de notre canton, il est défendu expressément à toutes les autorités communales d'imposer à l'avenir des contributions plus fortes que celles qui résulteront d'une moyenne tirée du montant des contributions des années 1813, 1814 et 1815; y compris les frais occasionnés par les pauvres entretenus tour à tour et la part équitable dont sont taxés les contribuables qui demeurent hors de la commune. Cette moyenne devra être aussitôt extraite des dits comptes et calculée à part, pour les contributions communales, et à part pour celles des pauvres; nos préfets la confronteront avec les comptes, et en donneront sans retard avis et connaissance à notre commission d'économie rurale.

Au cas que cette somme, moyenne de l'une ou l'autre espèce de contributions, ne suffise pas pour faire face aux besoins, les communes qui se trouveraient dans ce cas, pourront nous demander notre consentement, à ce qu'elles perçoivent encore une ou plusieurs contributions, ce qui leur sera accordé, entant qu'elles produiront un certificat en bonne forme, comme quoi la susdite somme moyenne est insuffisante.

Les communes qui pendant les dites années n'auraient point perçu de contributions, et qui seraient plutôt obligées d'en percevoir, devront aussi demander notre autorisation à cet effet.

Au cas que les particuliers d'une commune ne pourront s'accorder sur la détermination du maximum, on en informera le préfet, qui, si les partis ne peuvent s'arranger à l'amiable, devra en faire son rapport à la commission de l'économie rurale, et lui envoyer, sans entrer en correspondance ultérieure, tous les comptes en original des trois années d'après lesquelles l'évaluation de la moyenne doit avoir lieu. Cette règle devra être appliquée quand même elle ne serait pas conforme aux principes de telle ou telle concession sanctionnée par le gouvernement.

2. Comme l'expérience a prouvé depuis quelque tems, avec quelle facilité et légèreté les communes se laissent entraîner à être caution pour leurs concitoyens, Nous ordonnons, afin d'arrêter ce mal qui appauvrit les communes et qui porte préjudice aux personnes, qui n'étant pas bourgeois de ces communes, y possèdent cependant des biensfonds, que toutes les assemblées communales, où il se devra traiter de cautionnements, doivent être d'abord approuvées par le préfet, et seront ensuite lues publiquement en chaire deux Dimanches de suite après le service divin, avec la spécification des sujets que l'on devra y traiter.

Le cautionnement ne pourra être arrêté que sur le vote des deux tiers au moins des bourgeois de la commune présents à l'assemblée et ayant droit de vote, et les conséquences d'une pareille caution seront mises à la charge uniquement des bourgeois de la commune.

3. Quant aux emprunts que les communes seront dans le cas de faire, ils ne pourront être arrêtés que dans une assemblée des bourgeois de la commune, convoquée de la manière prescrite dans le § 2, et dans laquelle les deux tiers au moins des assistans devront voter en faveur de l'emprunt.

Les mêmes règles s'appliqueront, non seulement aux emprunts, qui devront servir uniquement aux bourgeois de la commune, mais aussi aux emprunts dont une partie retombe sur les personnes qui sans être bourgeois de la commune, possèdent des biensfonds sur son territoire; tels sont, par exemple, les emprunts pour la construction d'églises, pour couvrir des frais de guerre, etc. Mais dans ces cas l'assemblée communale devra être convoquée aux moyens de publications insérées à temps, dans la feuille d'avis, et contenant la spécification exacte du sujet qui devra être traité dans la dite assemblée.

4. Quant aux procès que les communes auront à soutenir, il faudra préalablement obtenir l'autorisation du préfet chaque fois qu'une commune voudra en intenter un. Si le préfet refuse, et que la commune ne trouve pas ses raisons de refus justes et satisfaisantes, elle aura le droit d'en appeler à nous.

Cette ordonnance a été arrêtée, dans la vue du bien et de la prospérité de tous nos concitoyens, et pour l'avantage de la chose publique. Elle pendra force de loi du moment où les communes en auront été avisées et instruites, de ce dont vous êtes chargé par la
présente

présente circulaire; vous aurez soin de l'inscrire dans votre livre de mandats du district; et vous veillerez surtout à ce qu'elle soit exécutée et observée fidèlement dans tous ses points.

Cette ordonnance et circulaire devra être ajoutée au recueil de nos lois et décrets.

Donné à Berne ce 14 Avril 1819.

L'Avoyer en Charge,
(signé) *R. de Wattenwyl.*

Le Chancelier d'Etat,
(signé) *Gruber.*

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LOI sur les Contributions, en date du 14 Juin 1823.

Nous, Avoyers, Grand et Petit Conseil de la Ville et République de Berne; savoir faisons:

Que nous avons dû nous convaincre, par le rapport de notre conseil d'état, que l'on agissait dans beaucoup de communes du canton d'une manière inégale et d'après des principes souvent entièrement opposés les uns aux autres, à l'égard de la perception des contributions imposées; soit pour l'entretien des pauvres; soit pour d'autres dépenses communales; soit pour couvrir des frais de guerre; soit enfin pour faire face à des dépenses extraordinaires de l'état. Considérant que de là il s'en est suivi un rapport fort disproportionné entre les contribuables, ce qui a donné lieu à mainte plainte; afin d'établir une manière égale pour percevoir ces contributions,

Nous Ordonnons:

1. Les contributions pour les pauvres devront être perçues:

- a) De tous les biensfonds et bâtimens situés entre les limites d'une commune. En sont exceptés: tout les bâtimens appartenans à l'état, avec les fermes et les jardins qui en dépendent; tous les biensfonds et bâtimens appartenans à l'église, ainsi que les maisons d'école, qui étaient francs d'impôts jusqu'en 1798, à moins que les uns ou les autres n'aient été rendus depuis contribuables, par un arrêté du conseil d'état, ou par des arrangemens.
- b) Des biens et forêts, ainsi que des privilèges qui y ont rapport; hormis ceux qui appartiennent à l'état ou à l'église, et qui avant 1798 étaient francs d'impôt, à moins qu'ils n'aient depuis été rendus contribuables, par convention, ou par un arrêté du conseil d'état.
- c) De toutes les usines, qui se trouvent dans les limites de la commune.
- d) Des biens meubles en nature de tous les bourgeois de la commune, qu'ils y demeurent ou non. On entend par biens meubles tout ce qui n'est pas bienfond; toutefois on en excepte le bétail, qui sert à l'usage du ménage et à la culture des terres; les meubles, les ustensiles, etc.
- e) Ou pourra percevoir annuellement un droit de bourgeoisie, sur les bourgeois que demeurent hors de la commune, et qui n'ont aucuns biensfonds, mais qui vivent de leur vocation, ce droit ne pourra dépasser les quatre francs, ni être en-dessous de sept batz et demi.
- f) Si par la perception de ces différentes espèces de contributions, le maximum déterminé par la loi du 14 Avril 1819 était atteint, sans avoir satisfait aux dépenses qu'aurait exigées cette année-là l'entretien des pauvres, on pourra imposer et percevoir, avec l'autorisation de notre conseil d'état, une contribution extraordinaire, dont le montant sera fixé par avance.

2. Les contributions pour les frais d'administration et de police seront perçues:

- a) De tous les biensfonds, bâtimens, forêts, privilèges de forêts, et de toutes les usines; complètement sur le même pied et de la manière marquée au § 1. a, b, c, relativement aux contributions pour les pauvres.
- b) Des biens meubles de tous les bourgeois demeurant à la commune. Ceci ne pourra avoir lieu que sur l'autorisation préalable de notre conseil d'état, et dans des cas extraordinaires; p. ex.: lorsque l'on doit établir des routes, lorsque des bâtimens communaux, tels que l'église, la maison d'école, etc. nécessitent de grandes réparations, ou enfin lorsque l'on voudra faire l'acquisition d'orgues d'église, de pompes à feu, etc.
- c) Du gain approximatif, que procurent aux bourgeois de la commune leurs différentes vocations, telles que médecins, notaires, avocats, artistes, fabricants, négocians, etc. Cette contribution devra être taxée équitablement et avec égard à la localité; il est clair que les vocations attachées aux usines n'y sont pas comprises, puisqu'elles se trouvent déjà imposées, à l'art. a.

3. Pour l'entretien des grandes et autres routes on devra imposer tous les biensfonds, bâtimens, et privilèges, et l'on pourra exiger le travail communal dans tous les endroits qui n'auraient pas déjà la-dessus des vieilles coutumes et règles, et jusqu'à ce qu'on ait établi un règlement fixe et général sur les routes.

4. Les frais des procès, qui auront été intentés ou soutenus pour défendre des intérêts, uniquement en rapport avec les biens de la bourgeoisie de la commune, tels que forêts,

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fonds, paturages communaux, etc. ainsi que l'acquittement des cautions, qui auraient été contractées depuis la circulaire de notre conseil d'état du 14 Avril 1819, et que la commune pourrait avoir à payer, devront être imposés aux seuls bourgeois de la commune. Quant aux frais de procédure pour affaires de tutèle ou de paternité, ainsi que ceux des procès intentés pour défendre des intérêts généraux de la commune, on pourra les imposer et les percevoir de la manière prescrite dans le § 1, relativement aux contributions pour les pauvres.

5. Lorsque l'état imposera des contributions extraordinaires pour couvrir des frais de guerre, ou pour d'autres raisons majeures, la part que chaque commune devra y fournir, devra être perçue d'après les principes prescrits dans le § 1, relativement aux contributions pour les pauvres; et l'on pourra y ajouter la contribution sur la taxe du gain des vocations, (§ 2, art. c.) à moins que nous n'en ordonnions autrement dans les décrets, que nous aurons soin de faire publier dans de pareils cas.

6. Lorsque des experts impartiaux et assermentés par devant les préfets auront à taxer des biensfonds, ou des forêts, ou des usines, des batimens, etc. ils ne devront aucunement avoir égard aux dettes dont ces objets pourraient être grévées, ni diminuer pour cette raison le montant de la taxe.

Les contributions à percevoir sur les biensfonds qui sont affermés, devront être payées par le fermier, et non par le propriétaire, mais malgré cela ce seront toujours les biensfonds qui hypothéqueront le paiement.

7. La proportion d'après laquelle les différens objets contribuables devront être imposés pour les contributions, a été fixée ainsi qu'il suit :

- a) Si les biensfonds, tels que prairies, vignes, champs, paturages et marais ont été imposés de 4 btz. par mille francs de leur valeur, il sera perçu, pour les forêts et les privilèges qui y ont rapport, le quart de cette somme, ci - - - - - bz. 1.
- b) Les usines seront taxées, chacune à part, avec équité et ayant égard à la localité, et elles paieront de 1,000 fr. de valeur - - - - - bz. 4.
- c) Les maisons étant sujettes à se détériorer peu à peu, seront taxées avec égard à leur rapport, de 1,000 fr. - - - - - bz. 2.
- d) Les biens meubles des citoyens, tels que fonds placés à l'intérêt, capitaux placés dans un commerce ou dans des fabriques, linge, etc. seront taxés pour chaque 1,000^{er} de francs - - - - - bz. 4.
- e) Les métairies, non compris toutefois le bétail qui sert à l'usage de la maison et à la culture des terres, seront estimées avec équité et paieront de 1,000 fr. - - - - - bz. 2.
- f) On imposera une taxe modérée sur les différentes vocations des citoyens, tels que médecins, notaires, avocats, artistes, commerçans, fabricans. etc.; on aura égard à la localité, et au profit approximatif des vocations.

8. Il s'entend, que l'usufruit des fonds des pauvres et des biens communaux devra être employé avant tout et uniquement, à quoi il est destiné, et que l'on ne pourra sous aucun prétexte d'attaquer les capitaux ni les fonds provenants du paiement des droits d'entrée, et que l'on ne devra arrêter et imposer des contributions qu'entant que les ressources affectées à l'un ou à l'autre de ces besoins seraient insuffisantes.

De même les communes, qui, soit par suite d'une bonne économie, soit à cause de besoins moindres, auraient jusqu'à ce jour eu des taxes moins fortes que celles indiquées plus haut dans le tableau proportionnel, et où par conséquent on payait moins par 1,000^{er} de francs de valeur, ne pourront se prévaloir des présentes ordonnances pour augmenter leurs taxes accoutumées, ou pour percevoir des contributions pour d'autres objets ou dépenses, qui ne sont pas mentionnés dans les précédens §, sans l'autorisation spéciale de notre conseil d'état.

9. Du reste, toutes les ordonnances prescrites au sujet des contributions, et des administrations communales par la circulaire du conseil d'état datée du 14 Avril 1819, et rendue publique par impression, sont confirmées dans toute leur étendue; en vertu desquelles donc aucune commune ne pourra, sans l'autorisation du conseil d'état, imposer des contributions annuelles plus fortes que celles prescrites par la moyenne des années 1813, 1814, et 1815; moyenne où sont compris les frais occasionnés par les pauvres entretenus à tour de rôle, mais dans laquelle les frais de guerre de ces années là ne doivent pas entrer en compte.

10. Non seulement toutes les lois sur les contributions qui seront projetées à l'avenir par les communes devront être conformes aux préceptes sus-mentionnés, mais nous voulons en outre que toutes les communes qui posséderaient déjà de ces lois, sanctionnées ou non par le gouvernement, les changent d'après ce modèle, et les soumettent à l'agrément de notre conseil d'état pour le plus tard le 1 Janvier 1825.

11. Afin que les contribuables puissent en tout tems prendre une connaissance claire et précise sur la perception et l'emploi des contributions, on devra établir la comptabilité des communes d'après les principes ci-dessus désignés. Nous nous reservons d'organiser par une prochaine ordonnance cette comptabilité, dans laquelle chaque branche de l'administration communale devra être gérée à part.

12. Toutes les difficultés qui surviendront, soit pour établir des lois sur les contributions, soit pour en faire l'application, soit enfin pour des estimations de fortunes ou de biensfonds, devront être décidées et jugées par nos préfets, et au cas que les parties ne seraient pas satisfaites de leurs sentences, elles pourront recourir à notre conseil d'état.

13. Considérant que la présente ordonnance diffère sous beaucoup de rapports des anciennes coutumes, qui existaient relativement à ces contributions, et comme elle ne sera peut-être pas suffisante pour arrêter et corriger les abus qui se sont introduits dans cette branche importante de l'administration du pays, elle n'aura force de loi que pendant un temps

d'épreuve de douze années, elle sera ajoutée au recueil des lois et décrets; et elle sera lue publiquement en chaire, et affichée dans toutes les communes. Excepté les districts du Jura, et les contrées nouvellement ajoutées aux districts de Cerlier, de Nidau, et Büren, qui se trouvent dans une position fort différente, relativement à leur administration communale, et à l'entretien de leurs pauvres.

Donné dans notre assemblée du Grand Conseil, Berne, le 11, 12, 13 et 14 Juin 1823.

L'Avoyer en Charge,
(signé) *R. de Wattenwyl.*

Le Chancelier d'Etat,
(signé) *Gruber.*

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No. 2.

REPLIES to 15 Queries relative to the Operation of the Poor Laws in the Canton of Berne, founded on the Circular Instructions from the Foreign Office, of the 12th August 1833.

1. QUEL est le montant de la taxe des pauvres pour tout le Canton de Berne?—

Années.	Individus Assistés.	Total de la Dépense.	Taxe des Pauvres.	Capital des Fonds des Pauvres.
		£.	£.	£.
1809 - - -	10,616	311,935	166,798	1,424,721
1811 - - -	12,302	344,890	181,739	1,506,862
1822 - - -	17,588	356,897	204,870	1,983,879
1824 - - -	18,116	380,175	204,464	2,150,787
1826 - - -	18,678	383,266	201,583	2,303,740
1828 - - -	19,907	385,732	197,739	2,474,938

La taxe n'existe que dans les communes qu'il n'ont pas des fonds, capitaux ou autres revenus suffisants destinés aux pauvres. D'après la loi la taxe ne peut être établie que pour suppléer au déficit de ces revenus.

2. Quel est le nombre d'individus au maintien desquels cette taxe a été affectée?

La première colonne présente le nombre des individus assistés en général, soit au moyen de la taxe, soit au moyen des fonds des pauvres.—Voir la réponse à la première question.

Il est nécessaire de faire observer de plus, que le chiffre de 1828 peut seul être considéré comme exact; celui des premières années indique plutôt le nombre des chefs de famille que celui des individus, parce que les tableaux n'étaient pas dressés alors avec beaucoup d'exactitude. L'augmentation des pauvres n'est donc pas aussi forte que les chiffres la présentent.

3. Sur quelle portion de la communauté cette taxe est-elle levée?—La taxe est-elle personnelle, ou retombe-t-elle sur une certaine description de propriété?

La taxe est levée,

1° Sur tous les immeubles situés dans la banlieue de la commune.

2° Sur la fortune mobilière des bourgeois de la commune, parce qu'eux seuls et non tous les habitants peuvent prétendre aux secours.

L'obligation d'assister les pauvres pèse sur les bourgeois de la commune, mais la loi les autorise à imposer aussi, à défaut de fonds des pauvres, la propriété immobilière des habitants non-bourgeois.

L'obligation d'assister s'étend non seulement aux bourgeois habitant la commune, mais à tous ceux qui habitent ailleurs. L'habitant non-bourgeois n'a donc aucun droit aux secours de la commune où il demeure, mais seulement de celle dont il est bourgeois. En cas d'indigence il peut être renvoyé dans son lieu de bourgeoisie. Ce système est la conséquence de l'établissement des bourgeoisies, qui a eu lieu vers la fin du dix-septième siècle. Tous les citoyens de l'état sont bourgeois d'une commune, où ils ont l'obligation d'assister et le droit d'être assisté. Ce droit de bourgeoisie se transmet aux descendants nés dans le mariage, et pour les femmes aussi aux descendants nés hors de mariage.

4. Quelle relation a le montant de la taxe au nombre des individus qui en sont grevés, et au montant de la propriété imposable, soit capital, soit revenus?

L'on a vu par ce qui précède que la taxe n'est pas personnelle, mais levée sur la propriété. Elle est perçue du capital de la propriété, d'après l'estimation d'experts. La taxe la plus forte

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forte est dans l'Emmenthal, où elle monte jusqu'à quatre et cinq pour mille du capital. L'on manque de données officielles pour répondre au reste de ce question.

5. Prenant une moyenne d'années, disons depuis 1815, la taxe augmente-t-elle ou reste-t-elle stationnaire ?

Il résulte du tableau ci-dessus, que la taxe, après avoir augmenté prodigieusement, a diminué un peu depuis 1823, malgré l'acervissement du nombre des pauvres. Ce changement est l'effet de la loi de 1823, qui a réglé la taxe des pauvres, et qui a autorisé le gouvernement à fixer dans chaque commune, où la taxe existe, un minimum, qui ne peut être excédé sans l'autorisation spéciale du gouvernement. Une autre cause du décroissement de la taxe est l'accroissement des fonds ou capitaux, attendu qu'il y a plusieurs revenus qui ne peuvent être employés aux dépenses annuelles, mais qui doivent être capitalisés.

6. Serait-il possible de montrer, par des tableaux tirés de sources officielles, une statistique comparative pendant quelque années, des points ci-dessus indiquant, aussi les causes des variations ?

Les tableaux ci-dessus, qui sont tous officiels, et les observations qu'on y a ajoutées, sont la réponse à cette question.—Documents (A.) (B.) (C.) (D.) (E.) (F.) (G.) (H.)

7. Assiste-t-on seulement les vieillards, les malades, les orphelins, ou donne-t-on aussi des secours aux gens qui sont en état de travailler ?

L'on assiste aussi les gens qui sont en état de travailler. Les dispositions de la loi sont très vagues à cet égard et elles ont favorisé les énormes abus que les pauvres et prétendus pauvres en ont fait et en font encore.

La loi sur les pauvres n'est applicable qu'à l'ancienne partie du Canton de Berne, et n'a par été introduite dans le Jura (ancien évêché de Bâle) réuni en 1815. D'après le recensement de 1831 la population du Canton est de trois cent huitante mille habitants, dont soixante-sept mille dans le Jura.

8. Met-on des entraves à ceux qui reçoivent les aumônes, afin de les empêcher d'en profiter sans nécessité ?

Ceux qui ont reçu des secours ne peuvent ni se marier, ni exercer leurs droits politiques avant d'avoir restitué ce qu'ils ont reçu. S'ils ont mis à la charge de la commune plusieurs enfants légitimes ou illégitimes, et si cette charge est la suite d'un abandon coupable, ou de l'inconduite, ils peuvent être condamnés par le juge à deux ou trois ans de détention correctionnelle.

9. Donne-t-on les secours aux pauvres en argent ou en pourvoyant directement à leur entretien ?

La loi ne constitue rien à cet égard ; elle abandonne toute l'administration aux communes, et la plupart des préposés de commune trouvent plus commode de donner les secours en argent. Les communes qui ont une meilleure administration donnent les secours de préférence, soit comestibles, habillemens, etc.

10. Quand il s'agit de donner du secours à un pauvre, est-ce qu'on le fait travailler en lui rendant ses gages, ou lui donne-t-on quelques aumônes selon son besoin ?

La loi autorise les communes à faire travailler les pauvres qu'elles assistent, pour se récupérer de la somme payée pour eux, mais elles en font rarement usage, parce qu'elles manquent de maisons de travail, ou autres moyens coercitifs.

11. La classe ouvrière du Canton de Berne est-elle plus nombreuse que ne l'exige la culture du terrain ?

Oui, la classe ouvrière qui ne connaît que le labourage ou la culture du terrain est trop nombreuse ; mais à l'encontre on manque de bons ouvriers de métiers, et le pays est inondé d'une foule d'étrangers de cette dernière classe, dont un grand nombre finit par s'y établir. En général on souffre moins de la quantité que de la qualité de la population.

12. A qui l'administration de la loi des pauvres est-elle confiée ?

Uniquement aux communes, qui font administrer les pauvres par un ou plusieurs préposés, de la manière qu'elles le jugent convenable. Toutefois la loi les oblige à nommer au moins un administrateur, et leur prescrit en termes généraux l'observation de leurs devoirs.

13. Les administrateurs locaux ne sont-ils assujettés à aucune surveillance générale supérieure ?

Le gouvernement exerce à la vérité une surveillance supérieure sur l'administration des pauvres, comme sur les affaires communales en général ; mais il ne demande aux communes aucun compte de la manière dont elles exécutent l'obligation que leur impose la loi. Il se borne à décider les contestations qui s'élèvent entre les pauvres et les communes. Il veille
 seulement

seulement à ce que la taxe des pauvres ne soit pas levée contrairement à la loi, et il fait dresser périodiquement des tableaux sur le nombre des pauvres, et le montant des fonds destinés à leur sustentation.

14. Quels sont les abus dont on a pu se plaindre dans l'administration ?

Dérivent-ils du principe de la loi, ou bien du caractère et de la position sociale des administrateurs ?

Quels sont les remèdes qu'on y a apportés ?

Quels en ont été les résultats ?

Les abus dans l'administration dérivent et du principe de la loi et du caractère et de la position sociale des administrateurs ; de la loi, parce qu'elle abandonne toute l'administration aux communes ; des administrateurs, parce qu'ils négligeaient des améliorations qu'ils distribuent les secours sans discernement, sans examiner la véritable situation du pauvre, et que généralement ils n'ont en vue que les besoins du moment, sans songer à l'avenir. Les communes, prises spécialement, étant la plupart trop petites pour établir des maisons d'éducation et de travail, manquent de moyens coercitifs, et sont en général plus occupées à créer des ressources qu'à diminuer le nombre des pauvres, soit pour le tems actuel, soit pour les générations futures. D'ailleurs, beaucoup de communes, bien que la loi ne les y oblige par, envoient des secours aux bourgeois domiciliés ailleurs, où elles ne peuvent surveiller leur conduite, pour prévenir leur retour dans la commune où leur présence est désagréable.

La loi abandonnant l'administration aux communes, l'ancien gouvernement a senti qu'on ne pouvait remédier à ces abus sans une nouvelle loi basée sur de tout autres principes, mais par une sollicitude mal entendue pour les pauvres, il a toujours hésité à prendre ce parti.

15. Quelle influence le système a-t-il eu sur les pauvres sous le rapport, 1^o statistique, 2^o moral ?

1^o. Le nombre en a-t-il augmenté, diminué, ou resté stationnaire ?

2^o. A-t-on trouvé qu'il encourage les mariages imprudents ou le commerce illicite des sexes ?

La réponse aux derniers articles de la question sont renfermées dans celles plus haut. Le système existant favorise les mariages imprudents et le commerce illicite des sexes ; malgré cela il n'est pas probable qu'il fasse augmenter le nombre des enfants naturels dans sa proportion aux enfants légitimes, précisément parce qu'il favorise en même tems les mariages ; mais il en résulte, qu'il favorise d'une manière extraordinaire l'augmentation de la population pauvre.

Découvre-t-on des rapports entre le montant de la taxe et le nombre d'enfants illégitimes ?

Les abus qui sont résultés de ce système funeste sont immenses, et il serait trop long, sans doute, d'en tracer ici le tableau. Il est facile de concevoir, au reste, quelles suites a dû nécessairement entraîner un tel système dans les classes du peuple, où l'éducation, ou plutôt le manque d'éducation, n'a développé aucun sentiment d'honneur, et où l'on ne rougit pas de vivre de la bienfaisance publique au lieu du travail de ses bras. L'oisiveté, l'insouciance, les mariages imprudents et le commerce illicite des sexes, ont été favorisés par la perspective de pouvoir en faire supporter les suites aux autres. L'on a négligé tous les moyens, toutes les occasions de s'instruire, d'apprendre un état, d'exercer une industrie. De là non-seulement des charges toujours croissantes pour la société, mais des entraves au développement des facultés physiques et intellectuelles, au perfectionnement moral, en un mot, à l'avancement de la civilisation. L'expérience a clairement prouvé, que le nombre des pauvres s'accroît à mesure que l'on crée des ressources pour eux, et les communes qui ont le plus de biens et de revenus ont aussi en général la population bourgeoise la plus en arrière dans l'industrie, dans l'activité et dans les efforts de se rendre utile à la société.

Cet état de choses, surtout les charges toujours croissantes dans quelques contrées du pays, et la plainte des communes qui réclament la protection du gouvernement contre l'exigence et l'insolence des pauvres et prétendus pauvres, ont engagé le gouvernement de songer à des moyens de remédier au mal en remontant à sa source, et en cherchant à la faire tarir. L'on ignore encore quels principes serviront de base à la loi nouvelle sur l'administration des pauvres, dont le projet ou du moins les travaux préparatoires sont élaborés dans ce moment dans les bureaux du département de l'intérieur. Mais il est à peu près certain que l'assistance obligée sera, si non abolie, du moins restreinte aux pauvres qui sont incapables de travailler. En supprimant la taxe des pauvres il leur restera dans tous les cas les revenus des fonds qui sont destinés à leur entretien.

L'administration des pauvres dans le Canton de Berne est donc à la veille de subir une réforme radicale.

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No. 3.

Résumé des Rapports Communaux sur les Pauvres, en 1827 et 1828.

(A.)—Apperçu des Régistres des Pauvres.

DISTRICTS.	Vieillards, Infirmes, Nécessiteux.	Enfans Légitimes.	Enfans Illégitimes.	Pauvres qui sont secourus momenta- nement.	Pauvres qui demeurent hors du district.	TOTAL.
Arberg - - -	234	138	60	109	81	622
Aarwangen - - -	412	175	89	117	38	831
Berne - - -	385	185	90	80	103	843
Buren - - -	144	54	36	46	19	299
Burgdorf - - -	277	197	99	97	85	755
Erlach - - -	43	19	14	26	41	143
Fraubrunnen - - -	201	92	55	67	62	579
Frutigen - - -	159	249	63	227	107	805
Interlacken - - -	114	32	25	inconnu	inconnu	577
Konolfingen - - -	651	463	214	-	-	2,608
Laupen - - -	69	131	36	55	69	360
Nidau - - -	179	141	39	55	22	436
Oberhasle - - -	232	27	12	73	4	348
Saanen - - -	209	202	55	117	262	845
Schwarzenburg - - -	1,024	228	95	7	265	1,619
Sefligen - - -	635	141	93	254	252	1,375
Signau - - -	688	429	292	156	279	1,844
Ober-Simmenthal - - -	435	364	72	142	70	1,083
Nieder-Simmenthal - - -	299	134	48	62	65	608
Thun - - -	460	191	126	179	224	1,180
Trachselwald - - -	703	356	150	176	255	1,640
Wangen - - -	190	111	83	45	78	507
	7,743	4,059	1,846	2,090	2,381	19,907

* Il n'a été marqué que nombre total et sans détail pour la Commune de Graffenried.

No. 4.

(B.)—Dépenses Générales pour les Pauvres, en 1827 et 1828.

DISTRICTS.	Secours.	Administration.	Dépenses diverses.	TOTAL.
Arberg - - -	24,134 35	629 20	6,726 46	31,490 01
Aarwangen - - -	28,394 65	1,351 07	4,861 06	34,606 78
Berne - - -	44,347 40	821 35	2,274 25	47,443 -
Buren - - -	9,546 90	254 80	192 93	9,994 63
Berthoud - - -	16,020 15	909 85	3,322 65	20,252 65
Cerlier - - -	12,812 70	785 92	993 93	14,592 55
Fraubrunnen - - -	21,525 85	518 73	2,245 27	24,289 85
Frutigen - - -	29,127 79	627 95	2,924 39	32,680 13
Interlaken - - -	20,031 80	728 65	1,110 40	21,870 85
Konolfingen - - -	73,509 57	2,230 17	3,306 42	79,046 16
Laupen - - -	11,313 09	343 25	1,766 40	13,422 74
Nidau - - -	8,230 22	369 25	4,439 02	13,038 49
Oberhasle - - -	13,278 06	472 15	60 80	13,811 01
Saanen - - -	34,047 89	852 37	2,801 26	37,701 52
Schwarzenburg - - -	23,791 23	162 -	510 17	24,463 40
Sefligen - - -	34,651 -	1,146 87	2,333 06	38,130 93
Signau - - -	86,126 40	3,135 85	25,326 54	114,588 79
Ober-Simmenthal - - -	27,033 02	1,739 57	4,793 48	33,566 07
Nieder-Simmenthal - - -	20,669 80	819 25	7,231 81	28,720 86
Thun - - -	40,199 33	1,521 93	8,100 06	49,821 32
Trachselwald - - -	41,211 68	1,374 57	14,949 11	57,535 36
Wangen - - -	25,062 45	1,229 63	4,103 97	30,396 05
	645,065 33	22,024 38	104,373 44	771,463 15

No. 5.

(C.)—RESSOURCES Affectées aux PAUVRES, en 1827 et 1828.

DISTRICTS.	Intérêts des Capitaux.	Argent placé à l'Intérêt, provenant		Dons Gratuits.	Terrain.	Revenus Divers.	Contributions.	TOTAL.
		des Droits d'Entrée	des Amendes.					
Arberg - -	5,664 77	3,662 95	247 85	1,310 92	1,644 30	8,586 72	12,376 72	33,494 23
Aarwangen - -	6,729 22	17,647 06	209 34	1,863 48	2,725 34	9,431 66	14,569 50	53,175 60
Berne - -	7,717 23	7,321 31	392 58	2,515 13	1,705 70	11,985 84	22,814 23	54,452 02
Buren - -	2,813 77	2,634 20	443 97	934 93	1,396 40	2,110 46	3,906 85	14,240 58
Burgdorf - -	3,563 46	1,540 97	512 40	151 30	207 50	2,797 92	14,610 04	23,383 59
Cerlier - -	6,213 08	2,395 23	522 42	25 -	3,097 54	4,340 28	1,793 83	18,387 38
Fraubrunnen - -	5,445 18	3,106 69	2,940 08	757 34	1,169 73	7,431 46	12,846 32	33,696 80
Frutiguen - -	7,175 83	843 22	168 47	77 40	1,247 72	1,045 35	18,766 03	29,324 02
Interlaken - -	16,108 95	- -	216 -	1,089 40	1,749 -	589 25	3,204 95	22,957 55
Konolfingen - -	16,219 54	- -	- -	816 39	2,958 50	18,457 45	64,889 09	85,340 97
Laupen - -	3,779 15	2,505 66	390 53	499 92	80 -	4,480 70	6,719 23	18,455 19
Nidau - -	4,633 82	4,398 72	626 70	350 58	398 88	5,890 13	1,565 05	17,863 88
Oberhasle - -	1,940 50	507 04	62 67	- -	- -	926 40	10,839 38	14,275 99
Saanen - -	5,428 03	2,959 68	42 63	792 10	4,990 -	9,395 80	18,850 80	42,459 04
Schwarzenbourg - -	2,886 74	9,989 -	298 50	660 62	804 -	5,431 50	16,927 81	36,998 17
Seftigen - -	11,268 54	4,356 64	132 50	7,355 74	768 50	1,833 70	14,840 73	40,556 35
Signau - -	12,295 78	12,394 22	904 88	241 03	17,050 55	31,130 46	72,119 20	140,836 12
Ober-Simmenthal - -	12,566 46	1,618 05	120 85	1,591 27	- -	3,133 55	14,533 56	33,563 74
Nieder-Simmenthal - -	11,531 98	1,387 53	119 52	534 18	925 50	4,701 30	8,154 18	27,354 19
Thun - -	9,843 96	8,146 87	146 -	108 -	60 65	13,141 39	19,656 86	51,603 73
Trachselwald - -	6,568 54	10,489 73	573 53	705 60	1,460 50	11,451 36	49,971 02	81,220 28
Wangen - -	12,769 08	6,878 86	10 37	672 65	2,099 80	3,919 86	9,523 72	35,874 34
	173,163 61	104,783 63	9,081 79	23,052 98	41,240 11	162,712 54	395,479 10	909,513 76

No. 6.

(D.)—ETAT COMPARATIF des Fonds des PAUVRES, dans les Années 1827 et 1828.

DISTRICTS.	Etat des Fonds à la Fin de 1826.	Augmentation.	Diminution.	Etat des Fonds à la Fin de 1828.
Arberg - - - -	82,382 48	7,507 18	1,333 32	88,556 34
Aarwangen - - - -	95,687 99	20,516 87	- - -	116,204 86
Berne - - - -	130,011 66	11,692 12	6,844 25	134,859 53
Buren - - - -	47,888 83	6,224 56	189 70	53,923 69
Burgdorf - - - -	86,500 53	3,223 68	993 07	88,731 14
Erlach - - - -	80,118 03	7,042 28	1,476 74	85,683 57
Fraubrunnen - - - -	61,647 46	9,310 05	300 30	70,657 21
Frutigen - - - -	97,537 88	1,314 52	3,379 80	95,472 60
Interlaken - - - -	176,193 93	5,586 91	147 38	181,633 46
Konolfingen - - - -	211,564 30	12,443 19	1,379 33	222,628 16
Laupen - - - -	49,820 10	5,872 32	- - -	55,692 42
Nidau - - - -	59,922 25	12,635 52	43 50	72,514 27
Oberhasle - - - -	19,878 12	507 05	341 86	20,043 31
Saanen - - - -	124,945 12	7,483 52	- - -	132,428 64
Schwarzenbourg - - - -	39,771 06	466 55	1,242 15	38,995 46
Seftigen - - - -	145,344 12	11,958 98	1,917 97	155,385 13
Signau - - - -	183,804 99	15,167 50	2,825 16	196,147 33
Ober-Simmenthal - - - -	91,127 38	10,628 49	372 54	101,383 33
Nieder-Simmenthal - - - -	156,300 18	3,195 52	2,091 01	157,404 69
Thun - - - -	121,934 05	13,060 97	1,751 71	133,243 31
Trachselwald - - - -	96,772 92	22,557 08	741 54	118,588 46
Wangen - - - -	144,586 73	10,439 31	264 41	154,761 64
Totaux - - - -	2,303,740 11 171,198 43	198,834 17 27,635 74	27,635 74	2,474,938 55
Total - - - -	2,474,938 54	171,198 43		

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No. 7.

(E.)—RAPPROCHEMENT ET OBSERVATIONS.

D'après les Rapports Officiels, et d'après la Moyenne de chaque deux Ans, nous trouvons les Chiffres suivans dans les 22 districts du Canton ; en en exceptant les Villes de *Berne, Thoune, Berthoud, Nidau*, etc. savoir :

Année.				Individus Secourus.	Collectes.	Contributions.	Fonds des Pauvres.
					£.	£.	£.
1809	-	-	-	10,616	311,935	166,798	1,424,721
1811	-	-	-	12,302	344,890	181,739	1,506,862
1822	-	-	-	17,588	356,897	204,870	1,983,879
1824	-	-	-	18,116	380,175	204,464	2,150,787
1826	-	-	-	18,678	383,266	201,583	2,303,740 *
1828	-	-	-	19,907	385,732	197,739	2,474,938

Mais il faut remarquer, que sur les Tableaux précédens, qui n'étaient pas conçus d'après les modèle prescrit en 1828, le nombre des secourus avait été marqué trop petit ; parcequ'on y notait seulement les pères de familles, au lieu de détailler le nombre de celles-ci ; et que l'on omettait en quelques endroits d'y marquer ceux des pauvres qui demeuraient hors du Canton. On peut toutefois admettre d'après ces données que le nombre des secourus s'est effectivement accru toutes les années. Sur cent pauvres secourus on admet communément :

- 40 vieillards, ou infirmes ou malades.
- 20 enfans légitimes.
- 10 enfans illégitimes.
- 13 secourus, momentanément.
- 16 — qui demeurent hors du district.

* D'après les Tableaux de 1827 et 1828. D'après ceux de 1825 et 1826, il n'y aurait que 2,262,618 frcs.

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No. 8.
(F.)—APPERCU SOMMAIRE des Dépenses de la Commission des PAUVRES, depuis 1814 jusqu'en 1830, inclusivement.

A N N É E S.	Entretien Proprement dit :			Pensions.	Secours adjugés par la Conseil d'Etat.	Secours adjugés par la Commission des Pauvres.	Bois de Chauffage Distribué à de Pauvres Habitans de la Ville.	Secours donnés pour des Enterremens at autres Dépenses menues.	Ports d'Argent et Frais d'Impression.	Frais de Bureau*.	T O T A L.
	Heimathlosen.	Dans l'Hopital des Incurables.	Dans la Maison des Fous.								
1814	-	1,433 20	-	287 -	2,698 45	2,236 -	500 -	149 -	23 65	221 25	7,569 40
1815	-	1,515 -	-	337 -	1,357 95	2,211 -	475 -	107 50	61 -	236 80	6,301 25
1816	-	1,654 20	150 -	337 -	1,538 10	2,938 -	450 -	129 -	45 25	292 35	7,683 90
1817	-	1,826 20	375 -	416 -	1,602 50	3,964 15	630 -	207 50	48 65	284 15	9,504 15
1818	-	1,883 55	425 -	456 -	1,867 -	3,439 -	450 -	192 -	69 15	341 -	9,382 90
1819	-	2,577 87 ½	443 70	481 -	907 -	2,767 -	450 -	177 -	37 40	269 05	8,560 02 ½
1820	-	2,052 22 ½	430 75	356 -	1,051 -	3,003 -	450 -	119 50	44 40	253 80	8,292 65
1821	-	2,020 60	713 20	356 -	1,045 -	3,549 -	450 -	103 -	42 60	246 70	8,901 10
1822	-	1,994 55	355 22 ½	356 -	1,574 -	3,747 -	430 -	136 -	41 20	263 10	9,303 57 ½
1823	-	1,985 55	630 30	356 -	1,200 -	3,973 -	375 -	148 50	46 10	281 15	9,796 20
1824	-	1,387 55	679 25	356 -	1,615 80	3,839 -	425 -	129 -	38 85	288 20	9,757 10
1825	-	1,679 13	691 70	365 -	1,100 -	4,309 -	425 -	142 50	45 95	295 25	9,888 03
1826	-	1,697 30	900 -	405 -	1,000 -	4,411 -	425 -	121 -	42 10	277 20	10,376 30
1827	-	1,694 95	1,054 80	381 -	1,149 60	4,588 -	475 -	107 -	43 75	286 80	10,961 15
1828	-	1,709 70	1,070 82 ½	374 -	1,170 -	4,698 25	500 -	127 50	205 90	327 50	11,396 17 ½
1829	-	1,031 10	1,228 75	409 -	840 -	4,215 -	500 -	160 50	62 40	289 60	10,056 92 ½
1830	-	1,242 30	946 57 ½	493 -	1,227 50	5,035 -	525 -	115 50	113 70	329 15	11,251 32 ½
	29,384 98	10,115 92 ½	10,991 85	6,521 -	22,943 90	62,922 40	7,935 -	2,372 -	1,012 05	4,783 05	158,982 15 ½

Y compris de traitement annuel de 100 francs de l'official.

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No. 9.

(G.)—SECOURS et DISTRIBUTIONS accordés par le Gouvernement depuis 1814—1829.

Années.	Pensions Civiles.	Pensions des Militaires qui ont fait les Campagnes de 1798—1802.	Pensions et Distributions provenant des couvens,		Secours en Argent et Pensions accordés aux Pauvres,		Secours Extraordinaires accordés aux Pauvres du Canton.	Secours Charitables à l'Etranger.	Secours donnés aux Personnes qui ont souffert d'Incendie, d'Inondation, et de Grêle.	Secours Fixés, donnés aux Communes et aux Fonds des Pauvres.	Secours Fixés en nature, Taxés d'après le Prix Normal.	TOTAL.
			en Argent.	en Vivres, Taxés au Prix Normal.	par le Conseil d'Etat.	par la Commission des Pauvres.						
1814	3,585 62	16,318 75	13,722 75	17,061 25	10,200 -	7,324 50	-	40 -	432 50	550 58	5,837 40	75,073 35
1815	3,568 22	15,302 25	16,304 36	17,621 78	9,467 20	5,987 45	-	-	1,720 -	400 72	5,859 67 ½	76,231 65 ½
1816	5,233 44	14,312 75	19,031 42	17,758 13	1,800 -	6,346 30	550 -	660 -	2,967 30	647 38	5,847 51	75,154 23
1817	8,161 94	13,114 -	21,521 08	16,899 40	1,250 -	9,463 35	1,900 -	3,977 -	215 -	700 93	5,823 76	83,026 46
1818	7,724 78	12,189 75	17,726 02	14,868 25	1,200 -	8,972 75	1,558 -	5,404 -	457 20	588 79	5,822 51	76,521 05
1819	5,786 81	11,415 50	13,703 62	16,226 58	1,200 -	8,453 57	1,346 -	450 40	75 -	583 93	6,017 84 ½	65,259 25 ½
1820	4,882 12	10,918 50	13,662 22	16,727 51	2,331 50	7,984 45	5,280 -	-	2,120 -	561 56	6,021 59	70,489 45
1821	4,288 11	10,610 -	14,130 06	16,610 43	1,870 -	8,611 80	4,200 -	600 -	150 -	707 81	5,961 59	67,739 80
1822	4,509 54	10,253 50	14,200 40	17,246 78	2,800 -	8,999 27	6,977 72	4,000 -	50 -	727 54	5,922 84	75,687 59
1823	4,422 77	10,177 75	13,418 87	17,103 99	2,730 50	9,468 95	5,620 50	2,200 -	200 -	708 41	5,949 09	72,000 83
1824	3,440 03	9,836 66	14,789 24	16,760 91	2,430 -	9,430 05	1,635 -	300 -	4,607 50	993 21	5,619 08	69,841 68
1825	3,977 -	9,704 75	13,505 39	16,045 64	2,550 -	9,546 83	3,990 -	2,050 -	2,000 -	698 52	5,936 59	70,004 72
1826	4,578 92	9,716 95	14,257 34	15,547 03	2,350 -	10,057 -	2,327 40	700 -	2,000 -	688 76	5,830 09	68,053 49
1827	4,638 50	9,732 10	13,714 41	16,348 12	4,700 -	10,630 60	1,880 -	1,100 -	5,029 25	716 24	5,830 09	74,319 31
1828	6,588 60	9,557 55	14,628 39	16,356 31	2,925 -	10,872 72	3,610 -	700 -	250 -	622 41	6,082 59	72,193 57
1829	5,471 28	9,127 30	14,766 33	17,132 77	5,175 -	9,704 93	2,000 -	2,150 -	3,786 -	636 61	6,082 59	76,032 81
	80,857 68	182,288 06	243,081 90	266,314 88	54,979 20	141,854 52	42,874 62	24,331 40	26,059 75	10,533 40	94,444 84	1,167,620 25

No. 10.

(H.)—APPERCU GÉNÉRAL.

DISTRICTS.	Nombre des Paroisses.	1764.	1818.		1831.
			Non compris ceux qui sont absens du Pays.	Y compris ceux qui sont absens du Pays.	
Arberg - - -	11	6,444	10,543	10,677	12,707
Aarwangen - - -	10	12,755	18,556	18,721	21,547
Berne - - -	11	23,775	33,870	34,162	39,722
Buren - - -	8	4,642	6,790	6,790	7,808
Burgdorf - - -	9	10,799	16,137	16,137	18,734
Cerlier - - -	8	6,244	8,253	8,253	9,260
Fraubrunnen - - -	7	5,701	9,245	9,245	10,339
Frutigen - - -	4	6,095	8,022	8,022	9,586
Interlachen - - -	9	9,374	14,446	14,550	16,574
Konolfingen - - -	8	13,859	21,382	21,425	23,973
Laupen - - -	7	3,614	6,256	6,485	7,318
Nidau - - -	10	7,935	9,818	9,986	11,974
Oberhasle - - -	3	3,253	5,618	5,618	6,227
Saanen - - -	4	4,136	4,611	4,711	4,532
Schwarzenburg - - -	3	-	8,890	12,064	11,195
Seftigen - - -	8	9,231	14,220	14,403	16,298
Signau - - -	8	12,401	16,223	16,324	19,753
Ober-Simenthal - - -	4	5,073	6,232	6,801	7,044
Nieder-Simenthal - - -	7	5,426	8,192	8,277	9,557
Thoûne - - -	8	11,337	17,981	18,101	21,425
Trachselwald - - -	9	12,659	18,551	18,825	20,471
Wangen - - -	6	8,899	13,277	13,277	15,424
	162*	183,652	277,113	282,854	321,468

* Y compris des paroisses situées sur le territoire d'autres cantons.

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— No. 11. —

CANTON DE BERNE.

ESQUISSE HISTORIQUE du Développement et de la Formation progressive du
Paupérisme, dans le Canton de *Berne*.

LES quinze demandes que l'on a posées relativement à ce sujet offrent sous bien des rapports des obscurités à éclaircir, et de grandes difficultés à applanir, ce que l'espace circonscrit des demandes ne leur permettait pas de faire. Cela étant, le soussigné croit remplir un devoir très agréable, si par la présente esquisse il pouvait coopérer à l'éclaircissement de cet objet important.

Une grande variété sous le rapport physique, mais plus encore le développement progressif de son histoire, ont donné à notre pays une impulsion et un caractère à lui particuliers, dont on reconnaît le type dans toutes ses relations sociales et politiques; il est donc fort naturel que dans un tel pays le paupérisme a été marqué d'une manière très précise de ce caractère particulier.

Pour pouvoir traiter et apprécier cette matière selon sa juste valeur intrinsèque et selon son étendue, il est indispensable de jeter d'abord un coup-d'œil rapide et clair sur les relations intérieures et sociales du pays.

Il est évident, que relativement au paupérisme, le canton de Berne se trouve actuellement dans une position fâcheuse et désagréable au plus haut degré, qui prouve que ce mal est profondément enraciné. Car ce n'est pas un mal instantané ou partiel; il ne provient pas de causes extérieures; la source en est bien plutôt au cœur du pays. Un nombre assez considérable des habitants est atteint de ce fléau, qui par son étendue pèse ainsi sur toute la société, et qui mérite le nom de fléau social.

Il se peut que quelques districts, quelques classes d'habitants, aient moins à souffrir à cet égard que tant d'autres; mais le mal n'en continue pas moins pour cela sa marche et son extension; le fardeau des uns s'augmente à mesure que celui des autres diminue. Il est même évident que le mal se soutient et s'alimente de ses propres forces. Ce qui le prouve, ce n'est non seulement l'augmentation annuelle des pauvres, mais encore leur perversité toujours croissante; l'excès de leur légèreté et de leur impertinence, mais surtout leur morale corrompue, font foi de la force croissante du mal; et ces vices ne peuvent qu'empoisonner la bienfaisance publique, et engloutir avec une faim dévorante et insatiable les dons charitables, insuffisants alors pour subvenir à leurs besoins.

C'est ces raisons qui font que ce mal, contagieux de sa nature, s'étend au-delà des bornes de la classe pauvre, digne de pitié et de secours; il envahit et détruit en même temps les classes de la population qui tiennent de près à celle-là. Car ceux qui seraient appelés à un travail journalier et assidu pour gagner leur vie, ainsi que ceux dont la petite fortune ou propriété devrait servir à entretenir leur famille, à satisfaire les créanciers et à contribuer aux secours donnés aux pauvres; ceux-là même viennent augmenter le nombre des indigents, et grossir par là le fardeau qui pèse déjà sur ceux pour qui le secours des pauvres est obligatoire.

Le goût et l'application pour le travail surmontent les soucis; au lieu que l'insouciance s'accroît; le produit gagné à la sueur de leur front perd son prix à leurs yeux, à mesure qu'ils perdent de vue la juste proportion qui existe entre l'application et la jouissance du succès, entre l'industrie et le gain qui en résulte. Une dissipation prompte et frivole, pour satisfaire le désir immodéré de jouissances purement animales; désir qui s'augmente à mesure que l'on fait des sacrifices pour s'en procurer la jouissance; tel est le sentiment qui remplace alors le principe d'une sage économie domestique.

Si nous jetons un coup d'œil sur des époques où la disette, la famine, des malheurs dans le commerce et dans l'industrie, ou tout autre événement imprévu, soit survenu dans ces classes, quelles en ont été les suites? C'est que la grande partie de la population étant excitée à des efforts plus qu'ordinaires, perd le courage et les forces, au moment même que leur énergie, leur force d'âme et de corps, sont mis à l'épreuve. Ils sont dès-lors à ranger parmi la classe des secourus, et rarement ils sortent de cet état subordonné par leur propre énergie et activité.

Mais aussi, d'où leur viendrait cette énergie? comment exigerait-on d'eux, qu'ils changeassent de manière de vivre, eux pour qui est ouverte une carrière tranquille, sans travail et sans soucis? comment exiger qu'ils quittent une situation qui leur est procurée par un tribut de leurs concitoyens? situation que l'on pourrait d'ailleurs à peine obtenir à force d'un travail pénible et d'une grande économie. Il ne peut y avoir, ce nous semble, une spéculation plus naturelle et plus lucrative que celle de vivre aux dépens d'autrui; c'est chose bien simple que de préférer une pareille existence!

Voilà une source intarissable et de plus en plus grossissante de ce mal!

On se demande, Où se trouve l'origine de cette source? quelles sont les influences qui la font grossir? Qui pourra trouver une solution entière et satisfaisante à ces questions?

Il se peut que l'on retrouve dans cette esquisse générale, l'image de quelques pays, auxquels le paupérisme fait sentir les mêmes résultats fâcheux. D'où provient donc cette ressemblance? d'où viennent d'un autre côté ces particularités et ces nuances dont

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il a été question précédemment? les causes auxquelles remontent ces ressemblances et ces diversités leur sont-elles communes ou non?

Cette ressemblance existe-t-elle effectivement entre les différens pays, dont la position relativement au paupérisme est attribuée aux mêmes causes? ou bien ne pourrait-on pas souvent admettre une grande parenté d'origine dans les causes et influences, qui ont coopéré à former l'état actuel du paupérisme dans les différens pays? Nous le croyons, quoique l'efficacité de ces causes se fasse sentir quelquesfois sous une forme différente et à des degrés plus ou moins marqués.

Car, au fait, qu'est ce que l'on qualifie du nom de paupérisme? n'est-ce pas une condition à part, mais qui forme une partie intrinsèque de la condition générale d'un état social quelconque, à peu près de la même manière, que les individus pauvres forment une partie de la population entière? Et qu'est-ce que la condition sociale en général, si ce n'est un résumé des effets produits par diverses causes qui ont rapport au développement de la vie sociale d'un pays, à ses moyens et à son mode d'existence? Et le paupérisme est-il autre chose que le résumé d'une de ces causes? Ce serait une chose méritoire et nécessaire, si l'on pouvait exposer clairement les proportions qui existent dans un pays entre ses moyens d'existence, et la part pour laquelle chaque classe de la population est obligée de contribuer à ces moyens. Cette recherche présente assurément autant de difficultés, qu'en pourrait bien présenter la guérison du mal.

Le présent est le résultat des évènements passés. D'après ce principe nous devons considérer la position actuelle du canton de Berne relativement à l'économie d'état, comme une conséquence nécessaire du développement historique de nos relations sociales intérieures; et c'est pour cela que cette position nous offre dans sa forme et dans son caractère quelque chose de particulier, qui la distingue de celle des autres pays.

Si nous jetons les yeux sur la position géographique et politique du canton de Berne, nous y trouvons deux parties distinctes qui diffèrent totalement entr'elles relativement au paupérisme.

L'Evêché de Bâle, dans le Jura, était régi par des lois différentes de celles de l'ancien canton, auquel il ne fut incorporé que le 29^e Avril 1816, et dont il ne connaissait pas les institutions précédentes; et s'il les connut depuis, ce ne fut qu'imparfaitement et en partie. Il avait et suivait, relativement au traitement des pauvres, les institutions de l'Empire Français, dont il faisait partie avant son incorporation à la Suisse. Les lois lui garantirent la conservation de ces institutions.

Une loi relative à l'établissement des droits de bourgeoisie dans ces contrées, ordonnait expressément, "Que l'on ferait dans les communes des collectes de dons volontaires, pour secourir les malades pauvres, les vieillards, et les veuves et orphelins, et que l'on établirait à cet effet des caisses pour les pauvres; mais que ces dons ne seraient pas regardés comme *obligatoires* pour les communes, mais considérés seulement comme un *devoir de bienfaisance* et de *charité chrétienne* envers leurs *concitoyens pauvres*." Cette nouvelle partie du canton ne connaissait donc ni secours obligatoires, ni contributions pour les pauvres.

(EXTRAIT d'un Rapport Officiel de 1831.)

"Nous ajouterons ici la remarque, que d'après des données certaines, on se plaint dans le Jura (district de Delémont) de l'accroissement violent des pauvres; que l'on attribue leur nombre décuplé à l'établissement des droits de bourgeoisie pareils à ceux de l'ancien canton; mais que l'on persévère à refuser l'établissement des contributions pour les pauvres."

Nous trouvons, par contre, ces établissemens, ces secours obligatoires, et ces contributions, nous les trouvons dans tous les districts de l'ancien canton; c'est dans son sein que se sont formées ces institutions, qu'elles ont pris consistance, qu'elles ont trouvé des alimens, et qu'elles se sont développées progressivement dans les deux derniers siècles. Elles ont jeté des racines d'autant plus profondes, que la maturation de ce fruit du moyen âge a été favorisée par la dernière moitié du 17^e siècle et par le 18^e en entier. Car le pays, faible et sans force au-dedans, n'ayant à craindre aucun ennemi du dehors, manqua totalement des lumières et de l'énergie nécessaires pour créer des institutions plus sensées et plus convenables.

Ce ne fut que lorsque le secours aux pauvres fut devenu obligatoire, et que l'on établit des lois à ce sujet, ce ne fut qu'alors que toutes nos relations sociales éprouvèrent un grand changement; leur base se changea insensiblement, mais non sans y avoir été préparés par des causes antérieures. "Le principe des droits de bourgeoisie créa le principe du traitement des pauvres rendu *obligatoire* par les lois." C'est le centre autour duquel se meut tout ce qui a rapport au paupérisme dans le canton de Berne.

En parlant donc désormais du canton de Berne, nous ne désignerons que cette partie du canton (l'ancien canton) où le traitement des pauvres a été basé, institué et limité par l'établissement des droits de bourgeoisie.

Pour nous pénétrer d'autant plus de la nature et de l'importance de cet objet, quelques remarques sur sa naissance et sur son développement sont indispensables; quoiqu'il soit fort difficile et hasardé de vouloir essayer d'éclaircir une chose, dont, jusqu'à présent on s'est occupé si peu.

L'origine de l'objet qui nous occupe ne remonte pas au-delà de la Réformation de l'Eglise, qui eût lieu dans le canton de Berne en 1528; nous ne voulons pourtant pas dire par là, que la bienfaisance publique et les droits de bourgeoisie ne datent que de cette époque; ils datent

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au contraire de bien plus loin ; mais alors ils avaient une autre signification, bien différente des idées que l'on s'en forma depuis. Déjà alors il existait dans notre pays des établissemens publics pour les pauvres (appelés infirmeries) ; mais ces établissemens étaient empreints du caractère de la piété chrétienne ; ils portaient le type de cette bienfaisance qui est ordonnée par la conscience et la religion. Aussi ces hôpitaux étaient-ils liés étroitement aux institutions ecclésiastiques, de manière que l'église était, pour ainsi dire, l'organe de la bienfaisance publique.

Mais l'église dût naturellement perdre peu-à-peu cette influence après la Réformation. " Il est de même aisé à démontrer que l'influence que cette réformation de l'église exerça sur les nations qui l'adoptèrent, était plus ou moins sensible, selon qu'elles conservèrent plus ou moins des rites du culte catholique, et selon que l'état politique d'un pays le mettait plus ou moins en contact avec l'Eglise Romaine." Le canton de Berne adopta pour tout son territoire la religion réformée d'après les dogmes sévères de Calvin et de Zwingli. Cet événement dût influencer considérablement sur le caractère de la bienfaisance ecclésiastique. Comment, en effet, eût-il pu se maintenir, lorsqu'on abolissait les institutions bienfaisantes de l'église, à cause de cela même qu'elles en provenaient ; et lorsque le haut clergé fut obligé de se démettre de son pouvoir en faveur de l'autorité civile ? (droit des évêques au gouvernement séculier.) De cette manière le bas clergé, dépourvu de toute protection, vis-à-vis du pouvoir séculier, fut soumis à la dépendance immédiate de ce dernier.

La condition de ces ecclésiastiques se commuta de plus en plus en une condition civile. Ils furent mis au niveau des employés séculiers. Cela étant, ce caractère civil devait, à la première occasion, se communiquer aussi aux établissemens du clergé ; cette occasion fut amenée par les événemens qui survinrent au 17^e siècle.

Lorsque l'on supprima les couvens, le gouvernement garantit au peuple le maintien et la conservation des institutions de bienfaisance publique, qui y avaient été attachés (telles que pensions, prébendes, distributions régulières aux pauvres, de pain, de blé, de farine, d'argent), mais sous la condition qu'étant lui le propriétaire seigneurial, " il pourrait, selon son bon plaisir, modifier, augmenter ou diminuer les dits établissemens de charité." En conséquence l'usufruit en revint à ceux, qui en avaient toujours eu jusqu'alors la jouissance, (aux sujets des monastères d'Interlacken, de Friesenberg, de Gottstadt, de Thorberg et de Buchsée, et aux habitans des environs de ces couvens) ; mais le gouvernement y apporta de son côté du changement, en admettant d'autres habitans encore à ces jouissances. Nous trouvons établis de fort bonne heure les collectes d'église en faveur des pauvres. Cette collecte se faisait après le service divin, et le Dimanche on en distribuait à parts égales le produit, en argent ou en nature, aux pauvres de la paroisse. Nous retrouvons cette institution au commencement du 17^e siècle, mais ayant déjà perdu aux yeux de la multitude la valeur et la considération dont elle jouissait dans l'origine, et n'offrant plus pour cette raison les ressources de bienfaisance qu'elle présentait par le passé, et qui suffisaient alors à subvenir aux besoins du pauvre. Le tems avait augmenté prodigieusement ces besoins ; c'est ce qui rendit ces ressources insuffisantes ; de toutes parts on découvre la disproportion croissante entre les besoins et les moyens d'y subvenir.

Ce changement de religion rompit en partie le lien qui unissait en Suisse les petites républiques indépendantes, il paralysa le libre commerce, et qui porta des blessures profondes à l'état, qui restèrent longtems à se cicatriser, et qui laissèrent après soi un long affaiblissement. Il devint de plus en plus difficile d'établir son domicile entre les limites étroites de la Suisse ; le fanatisme religieux chassa l'habitant des lieux qui l'avaient vu naître ; le pauvre exilé ne trouvait d'asile que sous le toit de ceux qui professaient la même communion que lui ; mais il ne portait pas toujours avec soi dans son exil de quoi fournir à son entretien et à sa subsistance, et par cela même, il lui était impossible de se les procurer.

Les guerres qui ravagèrent à cette époque et cent ans plus tard tous les pays limitrophes de la Suisse, ne furent pas sans un résultat quelconque pour cette dernière.

Car d'un côté, la Suisse participa à ces guerres d'une manière indirecte, en envoyant ses soldats mercenaires, tantôt à l'un tantôt à l'autre des partis belligérans ; et ces soldats, après avoir été congédiés, revenaient dans leur patrie, amenant toujours avec eux quelques étrangers, enfans de la guerre, et vauriens comme eux-mêmes. Leurs chefs, appelés condottieri, issus très souvent de familles puissantes et siégeant eux-mêmes au gouvernement, virent cela de bon œil, et favorisèrent leur établissement de domicile en Suisse. Mais leurs mœurs grossières et corrompues, et leur paresse, les rendirent incapables de cultiver convenablement le petit espace de terrain qu'on leur assignait pour s'entretenir eux et leurs familles ; de manière que ces rebuts de soldats, vauriens, jettèrent les fondemens d'une nouvelle classe de la population. Le terrain sur lequel ils s'établissaient étant en général stérile et de mauvais rapport, ils durent nécessairement tomber dans un état de dépendance continuelle vis-à-vis les cultivateurs plus aisés et qui possédaient des terres plus étendues ; leur nombre s'augmenta de génération en génération, leur pauvreté primitive s'accrût par la paresse et par la mendicité qu'ils avaient héritées de leurs pères, et leur entretien tomba à la charge de ceux qui étaient obligés de les secourir (c'est à dire, les habitans riches et à leur aise).

Hélotes du nouvel âge, appelés Tauner (journaliers), leur nombre était considérable en proportion de celui des habitans aisés, avec lesquels ils étaient constamment en guerre ouverte ou clandestine pour des droits et jouissances qui leur avaient été enlevés en partie par les 17^e et 18^e siècle.

Mais

Mais ces guerres et leurs résultats agirent encore différemment sur notre pays. Elles étaient des guerres de religion occasionnés plus ou moins par la différence des dogmes entre les partis des deux communions ; elles laissèrent à leur suite des contrées ravagées et stériles, et la famine, ce qui augmenta la haine et la fureur fanatique des deux partis. Les habitans que l'épée avait épargnés furent forcés par le fanatisme à chercher un asile dans les pays, où une même religion leur accordait le droit de domicile.

Les cantons reformés en Suisse offrirent un asile sur à tous ceux qui professaient leur croyance, de quel pays d'ailleurs qu'ils fussent, pendant près de deux cents années, 1519-1710. Italiens, Allemands, Autrichiens, Français, Hongrois, tous cherchèrent tour-à-tour à atteindre ce port franc. Cette hospitalité accordée à des étrangers, honore le peuple et ses gouvernemens, et fut en partie richement récompensée par l'application et l'industrie paisible des expatriés, qui cherchèrent à transmettre à notre pays l'industrie et le commerce de leurs lieux natus, et qui y réussirent là, où des circonstances favorables secondaient leur zèle, *p. ex.* Zurich, Genève, Berne.

Mais ce ne fut pas cette classe d'hommes seulement qui vint chercher une nouvelle patrie dans les montagnes de l'Helvétie. La guerre de trente ans avaient livré les nations à la soldatesque effrénée, et avait couvert le sol naguères fertiles des pays ; des bandes entières d'étrangers affamés et sans aucune fortune, ainsi que des soldats vagabonds, passèrent sans obstacle les frontières de la Suisse, qui, divisée entr'elle, ne sût s'opposer à de pareils abus. Les ordonnances de police de ces tems-là nous mentionnent généralement ce fléau du pays. La grande partie de ces émigrans qui inondaient le pays, n'aurait toutefois occasionné que peu de dangers et d'inconvénians, pourvu que le pays eût pu leur assigner une occupation et des travaux, auxquels ils étaient seuls aptes ; mais on ne leur fit pas établir leur domicile à la campagne ; on les laissa continuer leur vie vagabonde ; nul lien les attachait à la société ; ils ne voyaient au-devant d'eux aucune possession assurée et fixe. Ils durent par-là devenir dangereux à la société, et tomber à sa charge. Celle était la position de la Suisse à l'époque de la guerre de 30 ans, (1619-1649). L'affluence de dehors s'accrût, tandis que les ressources de l'intérieur diminuèrent à un degré qui était hors de proportion de celles-là. Le besoin devint plus pressant, les moyens d'y remédier, insuffisans. Par la guerre, dite des Paysans, qui eût lieu en 1658, et qui n'était autre chose que le combat de la démocratie contre l'aristocratie, dans lequel cette dernière l'emporta, tout l'équilibre social et politique de la Suisse fut ébranlé jusqu'à sa base, et les relations à l'extérieur devinrent délicates et défavorables. Tous ces motifs concourraient à nécessiter un grand changement dans les relations sociales du pays.

Ce changement s'opéra lorsque l'on régla les affaires des pauvres, en *établissant et perfectionnant les institutions des droits de bourgeoisie.*

Les évènements extraordinaires de cette époque, ainsi que le nombre prodigieux et toujours croissant de gens sans aveu et sans fortune, qui étaient un véritable fléau pour le pays par leur mendicité ; toutes ces causes nécessitèrent des mesures extraordinaires. Les ordonnances de police dont on se servit après les guerres contre les Bourguignons, pour mettre un frein à la licence et à l'avidité de la multitude, étaient fort insuffisantes pour combattre des maux aussi graves.

On comprit, que la voie de la législation était la manière la plus sûre d'obtenir et d'assurer le repos public. C'est pourquoi que nous trouvons depuis 1610 jusqu'en 1690, une multitude d'ordonnances contre la mendicité, qui formèrent la base d'une future législation à cet égard.

Conformément à la chose, elles sont divisées en deux classes ; savoir,

I. *La classe des étrangers ; ceux-ci étaient divisés,—*

- a. En proscrits pour cause de religion ;
- b. En mendiants et vagabonds, qui parcourraient le pays sans cause légitime.

II. *La classe des citoyens du canton, qui étaient condamnés à une vie vagabonde, soit par leur vocation, comme les colporteurs, soit par la misère et le manque de pain.*

Cette répartition en deux classes distinctes nécessita naturellement deux principes différens, dans les mesures à prendre contr'elles.

1. La seule mesure à prendre contre les étrangers était de les empêcher à passer les frontières, et de chercher à s'en débarrasser, en exceptant toutefois ceux qui étaient proscrits pour cause de religion. A cet effet on établit aux frontières une surveillance active et rigoureuse, et on leur rendit le séjour au pays insupportable, en les soumettant à une police des plus sévères. Chaque commune dut établir, en proportion de sa grandeur et de son étendue, un ou plusieurs chasse-gueux, qui auraient à transporter au-delà des frontières du district ceux qu'ils auraient arrêtés ; on ordonna même, que l'on ferait de tems à autre sous la direction du préfet des battues ou chasses générales contr'eux.

On défendit aux habitans, sous peine d'amendes ou d'imprisonnement, de les loger ou assister. Mais la nature du pays et la pitié, qu'excitait un traitement aussi barbare, mirent obstacle à ce que le but de cette mesure fut atteint. Ils trouvèrent toujours un asile soit dans les gorges des montagnes, soit dans les bois, soit dans les cavernes, et on ne leur refusait pas un morceau de pain dans les hamaux écartés ou dans les maisons solitaires.

2. Ces mesures étaient fort analoges à celles que l'on prit vis-à-vis des pauvres originaires du pays. On sentait le devoir de les assister, pourvu qu'ils méritassent cette assistance par

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un état vraiment nécessaire. Mais comment distinguer cette classe ? Comment distinguer ceux qui étaient originaires du pays ? Et sur qui retomberait-il ce devoir d'assistance ?

Ces demandes, mûries par le 17^e siècle, trouvèrent à cette époque un état de choses, qui présentait un mélange diffus des temps passés et de nations diverses ; un tissu bigarré composé de droits à la dépendance immédiate de l'Empire, de droits seigneuriaux plus ou moins étendus, de privilèges et de servitudes, dont l'origine se perdant bien avant dans les tems de l'antiquité, serait difficile à trouver, et que de chercher ce ne serait ici ni le lieu ni le moment.

Nous voulons seulement faire remarquer que la différence d'origine et d'habitudes, les anciens droits de seigneurs, ainsi que les droits et privilèges dont jouissait, en particulier, chaque village ou vallée (privilèges, qui souvent n'avaient d'autres limites que la coutume, d'autres fondemens que la tradition verbale), rendaient fort difficile d'effectuer le projet de fixer une règle générale ; difficulté qui s'augmentait par le manque presque total de documens écrits.

Il fallait naturellement que le droit de naturalisation se fondât sur quelques droits de localité, sur le droit de domicile et de la jouissance des biens communaux. Mais précisément cette naturalisation rendait les difficultés plus grandes par sa définition vague et parcequ'elle était soumise à des coutumes fort variées, qui remontaient à une époque, où une population moins nombreuse et une étendue suffisante de terres vierges, étaient cause, que le cultivateur s'attachait au sol, qu'il possédait à lui seul ou comme fief ; mais depuis ces tems-là, la proportion qui existait entre la population et le terrain avait considérablement changée.

Par le passé, tout individu qui se fixait dans une commune acquerrait par là le droit à la jouissance de tous les biens communaux, tels que pâturages, biensfonds, forêts, &c. ; il était en revanche, et comme de juste, obligé à fournir sa part aux dépenses et aux travaux communaux. S'il quittait son domicile pour aller s'établir dans une autre commune, il se démettait de son droit. L'acquisition de ce droit était attachée à des conditions insignifiantes et faciles à remplir, et qui différaient selon les lieux. Dans plusieurs endroits, *p. ex.* dans l'Emmenthal, dans la haute Aargovie (districts de Wangen et d'Aarwangen), ces conditions consistaient à statuer, que le bienfond serait toujours la part d'héritage du cadet de la famille ; elles conféraient donc aux mineurs un droit qui n'appartenait dans d'autres pays qu'aux majeurs.

Il fallait nécessairement que sous de pareilles conjonctures, et vu la disproportion dans le partage des terres, il se formât une classe nombreuse d'individus qui étaient obligés de pourvoir à leur subsistance par d'autres moyens, puisqu'ils étaient exclus de la jouissance entière des droits communaux. Les uns se firent domestiques chez les propriétaires, les autres travaillaient comme manœuvres ; mais s'il survenait une concurrence trop grande, ils étaient obligés de quitter leur lieu de premier domicile et de naissance, pour aller gagner ailleurs de quoi subsister. De là leur vie vagabonde.

On peut donc se faire une idée des difficultés qui durent se présenter, lorsque l'on voulut exécuter la loi absolue, " Que *chaque* commune était *obligée* à avoir soin de ses *pauvres*." Il est vrai que la loi ajoutait, que l'on n'entendait par là que les pauvres qui seraient nés et élevés dans la commune. Le résultat inévitable de cette loi dût être celui, que les communes chargées d'un grand nombre de pauvres, cherchèrent autant que possible, et de toutes les manières, à se débarrasser des pauvres, qui, faute de preuves suffisantes, ne pouvaient se prévaloir d'aucun droit à l'assistance communale (les registres baptistères, ainsi que les contrôles des habitans, n'étaient pas encore généralement en usage à cette époque). Un autre résultat fut, qu'en aggravant généralement les conditions de domicile pour les gens de la basse classe, il fallait, qu'un bon nombre de ces derniers devinssent victimes de cet intérêt particulier. Car on avait assigné par là à chaque commune un intérêt puissant et séparé de celui de toute autre commune.

Tellement qu'il s'en suivit un isolement parmi les communes, qui fit que chacune se tenait sur la défensive pour repousser toute tentative de la charger d'autres pauvres ; il régna dès-lors entr'elles un sentiment réciproque d'inimitié et de défiance relativement à leurs rapports de domiciliation. La permission d'établir son domicile dans un endroit, avec le droit de jouir des immunités et des fonds communaux, ne fut dès-lors plus accordée sous des conditions aussi faciles ; et si on accordait le domicile, c'était en excluant des dits droits les nouveaux domiciliés. Ce fut de cette manière que se forma la classe des aubains, et des autres habitans qui sont l'opposé de la classe formée par les bourgeois proprement dits du lieu.

Ce fut là l'origine des bourgeoisies, considérées comme la réunion d'un nombre déterminé des familles. C'est à elles que fut dès-lors conféré le devoir de veiller à l'entretien des pauvres, qui faisaient partie de leur nombre et de leur réunion, qu'ils demeuraient ou non dans l'endroit de leur bourgeoisie. Un combat opiniâtre et des examinations et difficultés sans nombre entre les communes et le gouvernement, avaient accompagné la naissance de cette institution jusques à la fin du 17^e siècle.

A dater de ce moment, nous voyons le paupérisme nu et conduit par les nouvelles relations sociales, produites de cette distinction des corporations.

La population entière, considérée sous ce point de vue, se divise par conséquent en deux classes :—

I. La

I. La classe des individus, qui appartiennent à une des susdites réunions ou bourgeoises; ils se subdivisent encore en,—

- a. Ceux qui demeurent dans l'endroit de leur bourgeoisie.
- b. Ceux qui demeurent hors de cet endroit, et qui dans le lieu de leur domicile sont considérés et traités comme aubains.

Nota.—L'article a. comprend à son tour différentes classes de bourgeois, dont les uns ont plus de droits que d'autres, ainsi que nous l'avons remarqué plus haut.

II. La classe des familles et des individus, qui ne possèdent aucun droit de bourgeoisie dans le canton; ils sont subdivisés ainsi qu'il suit.

a. Ceux qui n'ont obtenu *aucun droit de domicile*, ni du gouvernement, ni d'une commune. Ce sont,—

1. Des vagabonds étrangers : c'est eux que l'on qualifie communément du nom de Heimathlosen.

2. Des étrangers, tolérés pour un certain tems, et sous de certaines conditions; tels que des proscrits pour cause de religion.

b. Ceux dont le droit de domicile avait été reconnu et statué par le gouvernement, mais non par les communes, lors de la distinction et de l'établissement des corporations. Ce sont,—

1. Des individus originaires du pays, que la fatalité ou des changemens de domicile, avaient frustrés de leurs prétentions à un droit de bourgeoisie.

2. Les individus ou familles qui auraient été punis par la perte de leur droit de bourgeoisie, et qui n'en auraient par conséquent point du tout.

3. Les enfans trouvés et les enfans qui auraient été méchamment abandonnés par leurs parens.

On peut juger facilement par cette classification, de quelle manière l'assistance des pauvres dût se repartir. Les bourgeoisies durent se charger de la I^{re} Classe; c. à d. de ceux de leurs concitoyens et bourgeois de leur communauté, qui se trouveraient dans la nécessité; tandis que le gouvernement fut obligé de se charger de la II^{de} Classe. Le gouvernement était encore et naturellement tenu à assister celles des communes qui étaient chargées outre mesure de pauvres. Il avait promis cette aide publiquement, en publiant ses ordonnances sur les pauvres, et il avait à cet effet assigné des certains fonds sur les biens des couvens supprimés.

Ce fut l'introduction et l'établissement de cette repartition des habitans en différentes classes, qui occasionna un changement dans le caractère des secours accordés aux pauvres; changement que nous avons mentionné plus haut, (pag. 215.)

Les institutions cléricales et les offrandes gratuites prédominaient encore au commencement du 17^e siècle. Après le service divin on distribuait à parts égales aux pauvres le montant de la collecte faite pour eux. Bientôt après ces collectes devinrent insuffisantes, par rapport aux tems de guerre et de troubles dans cette époque. Les ordonnances sur les pauvres (1634-1642), se plaignaient de l'endurcissement des cœurs, toujours augmentant, et ordonnaient: "Les gens aisés contribueront à l'assistance des pauvres chacun en proportion de sa fortune et des ses moyens." Il est vrai que ces ordonnances ajoutaient, "Que l'on ne prétendait point vouloir par là contraindre la charité et la bienfaisance publique, qui devaient provenir uniquement d'un mouvement spontané et généreux du cœur." Mais quoique le gouvernement n'en ait pas eu l'intention, il était dans les sens de cette ordonnance, d'imprimer à la bienfaisance publique un caractère de contrainte légale. Plus l'assistance des pauvres prit la forme d'une contribution régulière, et plus elle perdit le caractère de dons gratuits, et plus aussi disparaissait la forme des institutions cléricales.

Elle devint à la fin du 17^e siècle un objet de l'administration civile.

C'est de ce point de vue que désormais nous devons considérer le paupérisme.

Nous allons maintenant entreprendre de l'examiner de plus près et de développer la condition et les rapports de la première classe des pauvres.

Nous avons déjà dit que cette 1^{re} classe comprenait les corporations et communautés formées par un certain nombre de familles, dans lesquelles les riches aidaient les pauvres de leur mieux et selon leurs moyens. Ces communautés restent toujours fixes, que le nombre des familles augmente ou diminue, que la proportion entre les besoins et les secours soit juste ou non. Leur essence est invariable, et par conséquent héréditaire. Les droits de même que les obligations passent indépendamment du tems et du lieu aux descendans des membres qui les formaient, pourvu toutefois qu'ils aient les titres valables. Chaque membre en particulier, en quel lieu qu'il fixe sa demeure hors de sa bourgeoisie, peut prétendre à la jouissance des biens et immunités, s'ils sont de nature à pouvoir le suivre. Ces droits et jouissances devinrent donc purement et exclusivement personnels, indépendans des tems et des lieux. Il n'y a que la corporation, le principe de la réunion, qui restent invariablement attachés au lieu et à la commune où ils ont pris leur origine, tant qu'il reste un noyau des familles qui les composaient, et tant qu'ils pourront fonder leur principe local, sur la possession de biensfonds et de leur usufruit.

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Naturellement que le tems et le principe de mobilité, qui forme la base de la vie sociale, ont apporté et ne cesseront d'apporter des changemens dans chaque bourgeoisie en particulier. Là où dans l'origine la presque totalité des habitans d'un endroit, en étaient les bourgeois, nous voyons maintenant la moitié et plus des habitans, qui, quoique n'appartenant pas à la corporation du lieu, appartiennent cependant au local, à l'endroit, par la naissance, par des propriétés et par leurs relations sociales. Dans quelques endroits même ces corporations ont perdu tous leurs membres, par l'extinction des familles qui les composaient ; leurs biensfonds sont passés entre les mains d'habitans qui ne faisaient pas partie de leur réunion.

Il était naturel qu'avec ce système de droits de bourgeoisie les intérêts du lieu fussent soignés et administrés par des personnes morales, reconnues pour y avoir droit. C'était donc à la bourgeoisie qu'appartenait la police du lieu, les tutèles et le maintien des pauvres ; c'est à elle qu'appartient l'emplacement et le sol où elle a pris origine. De là vient la singulière habitude, lorsque l'on impose sur les biensfonds des contributions pour les pauvres, d'obliger les habitans du lieu qui n'en sont pas bourgeois (aubains) à y fournir leur part, quoiqu'ils n'auraient eux-mêmes aucun droit aux secours s'ils tombaient dans la misère.

Le paupérisme est donc, ainsi qu'on l'a déjà remarqué, une branche particulière de l'administration des bourgeoisies ou corporations. D'après la volonté du gouvernement, cette administration dût s'organiser librement. Aussi diffère-t-elle selon les lieux, et communément on l'annexait à l'administration générale de la commune. La surintendance que le gouvernement exerçait sur cet objet était fort indirecte ; nous en parlerons plus bas.

Les suites de la dislocation du soin des pauvres et des ressources y annexées, entre les différentes corporations, furent, que le soin de cet intérêt fut maintenu presque toujours sur un degré fort bas, et nous présente souvent un tableau affligeant et digne de pitié. Car il était inévitable que le désordre et la confusion ne se missent dans l'administration des pauvres, dans les villages, *p. ex.* où pour la plupart du tems, on manquait, et des ressources suffisantes et des lumières nécessaires pour prendre une connaissance exacte des besoins et des différentes classes de pauvres, et pour prendre des mesures efficaces contre le mal.

L'administration n'était pas dûment contrôlée et vérifiée par les préposés de la commune ; elle était souvent et pendant une longue suite d'années entre les mains de la même famille ; ceux qui en étaient chargés n'avaient que peu ou point de salaire ; il était donc tout naturel et presque inévitable, qu'il s'y glissât des infidélités ou de l'arbitraire. La position et l'essence mêmes des contributions durent contribuer à ce désordre. Car les pauvres qui en étaient membres, étaient en droit d'exiger secours et assistance de ceux qui étaient plus à leur aise. Comment aurait-on pu exercer une surveillance exacte sur les pauvres, sur ceux qui demandaient du secours, s'ils demeuraient dans d'autres pays, avec les corporations desquels la leur n'avait pas conclu un concordat de réciprocité ? N'était-ce pas presque inévitable, que ces secours deviendraient une source et un germe de paresse, de licence et d'une impertinence empressée à les demander ?

Dans quelques endroits, dans les montagnes (districts de Siebenthal, de Grindelwald), les secours consistaient à la vérité en vivres, en terrain à cultiver, etc. ; mais à mesure que l'argent circula plus abondamment, le principal moyen de secours devint *l'argent comptant* ; c'était même l'unique que l'on pût faire tenir aux pauvres qui demeuraient ailleurs. La facilité que présentait ce moyen, à contenter sans travail ses desirs, et de soustraire à la surveillance, l'emploi, que l'on en faisait, en dût nécessairement favoriser le gaspillage, et engendrer, pour ainsi dire, la pauvreté.

Ces suites funestes se firent sentir plus vivement, à mesure que le nombre des pauvres s'augmentait. Dans plusieurs endroits l'embarras toujours croissant donna lieu à de grands et louables efforts pour prendre des mesures efficaces contre le mal. On établit une plus grande régularité et un meilleur ordre dans cette branche de l'administration communale ; on créa des emplois exprès pour cet objet ; on établit des surveillans, etc. Dans quelques communes à la campagne on créa même des hôpitaux pour les pauvres, en faisant des efforts et des sacrifices, qui paraissaient au-dessus de leurs forces. Et cependant toutes ces belles institutions ne justifèrent pas les hautes espérances que l'on avait conçues en les fondant ; nous allons voir pourquoi.

Toutes ces nouvelles mesures et institutions étaient l'affaire de chaque bourgeoisie en particulier ; elles se trouvaient isolées ; de là précisément leur mauvais succès. Ce qu'une commune établissait d'utile à cet égard, n'était pas appuyé par les communes voisines, qui, en suivant leur vieille routine, y portaient au contraire obstacles et inimitié. La surveillance qui forme la base de l'entretien des pauvres, ne s'étendait pas au-delà des limites de la commune, et ne comprenait que les pauvres de la commune ; cet important devoir étant ainsi négligé, ne pouvait donc jamais atteindre son but salulaire.

Depuis plus d'un demi-siècle, d'autres pays se sont acquis, relativement aux hôpitaux des pauvres, des lumières et de l'expérience ; de ce dont ils ont profité, en adoptant pour leurs propres établissemens de ce genre, ce qu'ils trouvaient de bon et d'utile à ce sujet dans les autres pays. Les hôpitaux de notre pays manquèrent totalement ce but. Leurs institutions étaient défectueuses dès leur base ; elles étaient le produit d'un zèle philanthropique, qui voulait remédier entièrement à la misère humaine. Ces hôpitaux pour les pauvres prirent leur origine dans des villages ; ils n'avaient donc que l'étendue proportionnée aux besoins, que le village ressentait à cet égard ; les ressources et les forces n'étant pas proportionnées à ces besoins, ne permettaient pas de classer les pauvres suivant leur état, leur âge et le degré

degré de leur misère, ce qui est cependant la condition fondamentale d'une bonne administration. Ici nous trouvons un local grand et spacieux ; eh bien ! nous y voyons entassés pêle et mêle, des enfans à côté de vieillards infirmes, des malades à côté de fainéans et de mendiants qui jouissent de la meilleure santé ; on y voit jusqu'à des familles entières ! partout enfin on y apperçoit, confondus et réunis dans un mélange diffus, le bien et le mal, l'utile et le nuisible, le malade et celui qui est en bonne santé ; la harmonie et la discordance. Il fallait donc que dans ces établissemens, les enfans fussent élevés, les malades traités et guéris, les vieillards et les infirmes soignés, et que les fainéans en bonne santé fussent tenus au travail. Toutes ces tâches exigeaient un traitement complètement différent, qui fût adapté aux individus suivant à laquelle de ces différentes classes qu'ils appartenissent. A mesure que l'on perd de vue le principe de ces différentes classes, et qu'on les mélange entr'elles, on leur nuit à tous, et par là on manque le but que le traitement de chacune en particulier devait attendre. Dans ces établissemens, il fallait donc que ces différentes tâches soient remplies. Mais il était *seul* cet établissement, et comme tel il lui fallait aussi un seul système, une administration égale. Par conséquent la direction devait en être uniforme, et il était impossible, qu'elle réunît les différens caractères et qualités, qui sont indispensables pour remplir les tâches imposées par les différentes classes de pauvres. Elle était en outre sujette à changer. Si déjà il était difficile de trouver des hommes capables pour remplir cette charge, il l'était encore bien plus de les engager à la conserver ; car d'abord ils étaient mal salariés, et en second lieu ils se trouvaient souvent dans des positions fâcheuses vis-à-vis des autorités des lieux avec qu'ils avaient toujours des difficultés plus ou moins désagréables. Ce changement fréquent dût naturellement devenir préjudiciable au bien-être et aux progrès de l'établissement.

Si la direction se comportait avec sévérité et rigueur, elle contrevenait à l'esprit de l'humanité et de la charité chrétienne, qui formaient la base de l'établissement, et elle maltraitait les pauvres qui manquaient des forces nécessaires pour gagner leur pain par le travail ; était-elle au contraire indulgente et bonne, elle faisait beau jeu aux vauriens et aux mendiants robustes et fainéans. Le désordre et la confusion s'introduisaient, et menaçaient et l'état moral et l'état économique de l'établissement ; l'application au travail disparaissait et faisait place à la paresse et à la licence, qui durent avoir inévitablement des suites funestes.

Bref de quel côté que nous jetons les yeux, nous voyons toujours les véritables principes du traitement des pauvres, en opposition avec la base défectueuse de ces sortes d'établissements, partout l'expérience nous a fait découvrir l'origine de leurs défauts. Il était enfin inévitable, que contre la volonté et le zèle charitable des fondateurs, ces établissemens ne devinssent, pour ainsi dire, des plantations, des pépinières, pour l'oisiveté et la démoralisation, des demeures, que souillait la dépravation physique et morale. L'aspect journalier de la misère publique, le commerce journalier avec cette écume de la société civile, devint contagieux pour ceux qui n'étaient pas encore descendus à un degré de corruption aussi bas, et qui cependant n'avaient dans le besoin d'autre asile que celui qui servait aussi à ce rebut de la société. Il s'en suivit une véritable fièvre d'hôpital, un mal moral qui consistait en un émoussement complet des sentimens honnêtes. Nous devons encore faire mention d'un but fort important que l'on avait en vue en fondant ces hôpitaux, c'était celui du travail.

Ces hôpitaux étaient donc déjà chargés du triple devoir ; de l'éducation des enfans, de la guérison du malade, et du traitement et entretien des vieillards infirmes ; on voulut encore en faire des maisons de travail, où l'on serait en droit de faire travailler au profit de l'établissement ceux qui seraient encore robustes et capables de travail ; afin de réveiller par là dans le bas peuple le sentiment du travail et de l'industrie. Ce but ne fut toutefois atteint que fort imparfaitement. Nous ne voulons cependant ne pas approfondir ici les difficultés qu'il y a de trouver un travail convenable à cette industrie artificielle et un débit pour ce travail. Ce qui nous importe dans ce sujet, c'est la solution de la demande, " Peut-on dans de pareils établissemens faire naître l'amour du travail et exciter l'industrie, par le moyen d'une activité forcée ? " L'expérience doit nous en donner quelques éclaircissemens.

La même contradiction que nous avons mentionnée plus haut se retrouve encore ici. Le caractère fondamental de ces établissemens est, la bienfaisance, une charité philanthropique, qui cherche à offrir un asile assuré au malheur et à la misère ; ce caractère n'est pas compatible avec la correction, avec la violence, avec les punitions. Ces maisons doivent être habitées par des personnes malheureuses, accablées de maux et de misère, dignes enfin de la pitié générale, et non pas par des forçats, ces maisons veulent recevoir des infirmes, mais non des criminels.

A nos yeux ce but de travail ne s'accordera jamais avec le but primitif de bienfaisance ; en exceptant toutefois les occasions, où des accidens imprévus, mais passagers, privent momentanément les individus des moyens de se gagner leur pain quotidien ; pour de pareils cas, toutefois, on peut se servir de moyens de secours extraordinaires, qui doivent cesser, à mesure que le besoin disparaît.

L'amour et l'application au travail sont liés très intimément à l'intérêt particulier de l'individu, puisque lui seul en retire le gain et la jouissance. Ce n'est que la perspective continue de ce gain et de cette jouissance, qui peut lui donner l'habitude du travail, qui peut le lui rendre agréable, et qui le rend lui-même insensible à la fatigue. Mais dans ces maisons de travail, c'est précisément cette perspective de gain qui lui manque. Le petit profit qu'il tirera de son ouvrage dans ces établissemens, ne peut à ses yeux entrer en ligne de compte avec l'oisiveté sans soucis que semblait lui promettre un établissement public

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de bienfaisance et de charité. Son intérêt particulier est donc remplacé par celui de l'hôpital; c'est ce dernier seul qui tire du profit de son travail. Pourquoi, se dira-t-il, pourquoi travaillerai-je, pour un établissement qui a été fondé et institué tout exprès pour des gens tels que moi?

Et c'est là précisément la raison pourquoi, à quelques rares exceptions, près tous ceux qui sont reçus dans ces hôpitaux, s'opposent au but de les faire travailler; c'est pourquoi aussi qu'ils ne travaillent que par force et avec un dégoût marqué, c'est pourquoi une fois qu'ils y ont été reçus, ils y restent continuellement à la charge de l'hôpital, et n'en sortent que rarement pour gagner leur pain, par leur propre travail.

De là aussi vient, que ces établissemens, dont on espérait lors de leur fondation beaucoup de soulagement et d'aide pour les communes chargées de pauvres, donnèrent lieu par leur résultat entièrement opposé à cet espoir à de grandes plaintes relativement au nombre toujours croissant des pauvres; de telle manière que les communes qui avaient créé de pareils établissemens se trouvèrent un fardeau plus gênant, qu'elles n'en avaient eu à porter avant leurs institutions. Dans quelques communes, on les supprima bientôt tout-à-fait (*p. ex.* à Rugsau, à Ruderswyl): dans d'autres endroits on fit usage d'une grande sévérité, pour intimider et repousser ceux qui demanderaient du secours; mais presque dans tous les autres endroits, on médite une réforme complète dans ces établissemens, afin d'en faire des hôpitaux, qui rempliraient entièrement leur premier but (*p. ex.* à Sumiswald, à Trub, à Langnau, à Grindelwald, etc.)

Quoique le jour sous lequel nous avons présenté ces établissemens soit isolé, défavorable, insuffisant, obscur même; la manière dont on traite les pauvres dans les autres parties du canton, nous présente un tableau d'un aspect plus sombre, et qui nous laisse une impression plus triste. Dans ces contrées, ainsi que partout ailleurs où une bonne surveillance manque, ce sont de vieux us, une routine vague, le grand besoin, qui règlent cet objet important, c'est le hasard qui lui fixe son but.

Il ne faut pas songer à y trouver une organisation régulière dans la manière de traiter les pauvres. Les moyens les plus usités, sont: les contributions en argent comptant et les frais des pensions; dans quelques endroits, où les grandes propriétés et les biensfonds sont grévées des charges communales, (comme *p. ex.* des grandes fermes dans l'Emmenthal,) on leur fait porter le fardeau des pauvres de la commune, chacun à son tour; de manière que le propriétaire est tenu à se charger pour quelque tems, et sans aucune bonification de la part qui lui aura été adjugée. Par la même raison, et par un même vieil usage, on envoie dans beaucoup d'endroits les pauvres de la corporation en *tournee*; c. à d. que les bourgeois plus aisés sont tenus de les loger et de les nourrir, chacun à son tour, et que de cette manière ils sont quelquesfois repartis chez des gens qui eux-mêmes sont indigens et manquent du nécessaire.

Non moins triste et révoltant est le moyen dont quelques communes pauvres et sans jugement se servent pour se débarrasser de leurs pauvres, en les adjugeant à ceux qui demandent le moins de pension. L'autorité du lieu fait offrir publiquement une pension à l'habitant qui voudra se charger de tel ou tel pauvre; cette pension est déjà bien minime; mais elle a la valeur de l'argent comptant, et par là elle se réduira à un montant encore moindre, à cause du grand nombre de concurrens. De cette manière, le pauvre victime tombe entre les mains de pères de familles avides, et qui sont eux-mêmes pauvres et nécessiteux. On peut se figurer la position déplorable, à laquelle ces malheureux sont pour la plupart réduits. Si cette position ne devenait parfois pas insupportable, il faut l'attribuer au sentiment de bienfaisance, qui n'était pas entièrement étouffé dans le cœur de notre peuple. On a même vu des exemples, que des propriétaires ont pu réveiller en eux l'amour du travail et qu'ils ont formé de leurs enfans d'excellens ouvriers; en les faisant travailler pour leur propre compte. Mais toutes ces exceptions, ne rendent que plus sensible le mal général.

Les secours en argent, dont nous avons fait mention plus haut, et que les bourgeoisies donnent à leurs pauvres, ne sont pas d'un effet moins pernicieux. Ils sont, pour ainsi dire, une suite inévitable des rapports qui existent entre les riches et les pauvres d'une commune; c. à d. que chaque famille qui est ou qui se croit dans le besoin, demande, appuyée par la loi, secours et assistance; et comment faire pour le lui refuser? De cette manière la bourgeoisie leur accorde des petits secours, tantôt pour payer le loyer, tantôt pour subvenir à d'autres besoins, soit qu'ils demeurent dans l'endroit même, soit ailleurs; et cela sans aucune surveillance! Quelles peuvent, quelles doivent en être les conséquences? Nous allons maintenant nous occuper des ressources, dont les corporations font usage, pour faire face à l'entretien de leurs pauvres.

Ces ressources sont, comme on peut se l'imaginer, de nature et de produit différens, mais relativement à l'emploi qui s'en fait, elles sont toutes liées aux droits de bourgeoisie; on ne peut en excepter que celles converties en capitaux, dont plusieurs communes avaient et ont encore la jouissance par ensemble, avant la fixation définitive des droits de bourgeoisie. Nous entendons par là les fonds que possédait une contrée, un district entier, comme, *p. ex.* les districts d'Oberhasle, et d'Interlachen. Dans d'autres endroits, on se servit, par contre, pour établir des droits de bourgeoisie, du bien communal, qui consistait en terres et biensfonds communaux, en forêts communales, et en privilèges de pâturage dans les forêts, etc. et en capitaux.

On dût considérer aussi comme bien communal, les biens du clergé, qui à plusieurs endroits étaient considérables. Mais le gouvernement ne voulut point permettre, qu'en les partageant à parts

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à parts égales entre les communes qui avaient formé la paroisse, et il défendit d'entamer le fond principal. Toutefois on leur laissa l'usufruit, qui resterait après déduction faite des dépenses que l'administration du bien nécessitait, (*voyez les Ordonnances sur les Pauvres de 1634, 1642, 1676.*) De cette façon chaque commune se trouvait abandonnée à ses propres ressources; les relations entre les communes durent s'isoler et se séparer d'autant plus que leur ressources étaient de nature et de produit différent, et que la proportion entre les besoins et ces ressources était de différens degrés et très variable. C'est pourquoi aussi que le gouvernement ne put l'emporter, lorsqu'en voyant par le fait les grands besoins et la faiblesse de quelques communes, il voulut établir une loi: que les bourgeoisies riches d'une paroisse assisteraient les plus pauvres; et que les paroisses pauvres recevraient du secours de celles du voisinage qui seraient plus riches; car il n'existait aucun lien qui les obligeât à ce secours mutuel, et les ressources des biens du clergé ne pouvaient être employées à ce but.

Les ressources de ces corporations isolées étaient fondées sur la base des biens et usufruits communaux, qui avaient existé par le passé dans les endroits où elles étaient exclusivement employées à l'entretien des pauvres; elles durent par conséquent se développer fort différemment relativement à ces besoins.

Un endroit donc qui par acquisition, ou par d'autres évènements favorables, avait augmenté, ses biens communaux, qui avait par conséquent aggrandi les richesses héritées de ses ancêtres, et qui maintenait en outre une surveillance et une administration exactes, propres à empêcher la dilapidation; un tel endroit pouvait et devait facilement mettre de côté des biens et des capitaux considérables, à l'effet d'entretenir ses pauvres. Ce fut là le cas dans les villes. Les biens destinés aux pauvres de leurs corporations se trouvent non seulement être suffisants, mais même quelquefois abondans de manière qu'on n'en emploie pas tout l'usufruit, (il faut remarquer ici, que dans villes, *p. ex.* à Berne, à Thoune, à Berthoud, et a. d. s. la bourgeoisie se subdivise encore en plusieurs corporations appelées, "Abbeyes," qui sont chargées des tutèles et des pauvres qui font partie de leur corporation.) Ce superflu leur donne une grande avance sur les corporations de la campagne, où de pareils fonds communaux n'ont pu être destinés à cet objet, en proportion aux besoins de la commune, et où quelquesfois même ils manquaient tout-à-fait.

Nous excepterons par conséquent les villes en parlant de notre matière.

A la campagne l'usufruit des biens communaux revenait, partie aux habitans légitimes (bourgeois) de l'endroit, en vertu d'anciennes coutumes, partie la jouissance en appartenait aux seuls propriétaires des biensfonds; partant le riche avait une plus grande part de la jouissance de ces biens, que le pauvre; ainsi qu'on le voit, *p. ex.* relativement aux privilèges de pâturage et autres droits sur les terres communales.

Dans des endroits où de pareilles coutumes n'existent pas, cet usufruit est exclusivement destiné à l'entretien des pauvres, ce qui diminue considérablement le fardeau des contributions; nous voyons cette coutume établie, *p. ex.* dans le district de Nidau, dans celui de Buren, ainsi que dans quelques autres.

Mais dans la plus grande partie du canton, ni les biens communaux et leur usufruit, ni les fonds des corporations affectés à cet objet, ne pouvaient suffire à faire face aux besoins; et si par le passé ils y suffisaient, l'époque actuelle a dû les rendre insuffisants. Les demandes de plus en plus multipliées dépassent de beaucoup le produit des ressources, quoique ces dernières se soient aussi augmentées (*voyez les tableaux des années 1827 et 1828.*)

Pour satisfaire alors aux besoins de plus en plus urgens et croissans des pauvres, on se servit du moyen des *contributions*. Nous trouvons ce moyen indiqué déjà dans les réglemens sur les pauvres depuis 1642 jusqu'en 1690, par un ordonnance, qui prescrivait, "*Qu'un chacun devait contribuer en proportion de son avoir et de sa fortune, à l'entretien des pauvres,*" au cas que "la collecte d'église et les fonds qui leur étaient affectés ne suffiraient pas." Cette espèce de contribution datait de fort loin dans quelques endroits et districts; on ne la percevait qu'à des époques et lors d'évènements extraordinaires, par ex. en temps de guerre, lorsqu'il s'agissait d'acheter des terres et des droits de seigneurie, etc. Mais dans ces cas c'était toujours une contribution extraordinaire. Les évènements extraordinaires et étonnans du 17^e siècle, durent faire venir l'idée d'introduire et de percevoir cette sorte de contribution pour fournir aux frais de l'entretien des pauvres. A dater de cette époque nous les voyons en usage et ayant le caractère de contributions ordinaires et régulières, imposées et perçues par les administrations particulières de chaque corporation, lorsque les ressources ordinaires ne suffisaient pas aux dépenses.

L'essence de cette contribution resta la même. Sa base primitive se fondait sur les immeubles. Mais lorsqu'on commença à attacher un plus haut prix à d'autres objets, on les soumit aussi à cette contribution. En *premier* lieu on impose les *immeubles*; en *second* lieu les biens *meubles*, et enfin, en *troisième* lieu, les *usines*, c'est à dire les objets qui par suite de privilèges ou de concessions ont été élevés à un prix au-dessus de leur valeur réelle; tels que des auberges, des moulins, des scies, etc.; en général cette dernière classe de contributions ne fut jamais imposée à part. Quant à la seconde de ces classes, elle prit naissance au 18^e et 19^e siècle; lorsqu'il se fit une plus grande circulation d'argent, et lorsque la disproportion entre les biensfonds et les autres biens de la vie civile devint plus sensible. Il serait superflu d'entrer ici dans des détails ultérieurs sur l'ordre de cette contribution, puisque nous ajoutons ci-joint un recueil des ordonnances sur les pauvres; nous nous voyons toutefois

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obligés d'attirer l'attention du lecteur sur une circonstance particulière, c. à d. sur la manière dont ces contributions sont réparties ; répartition qui prend sa source dans les relations et dans l'état de la corporation.

L'origine et l'introduction de ces corporations datent, ainsi qu'il a déjà été dit, depuis la fin du 17^e siècle, et comme par cette institution tout citoyen est adressé à sa corporation, dont il est membre, soit pour obtenir du secours lorsqu'il est dans le besoin, soit pour payer sa part aux contributions ; il fallait qu'il résultât des difficultés pour percevoir cette contribution de ceux des membres d'une corporation, qui changeraient de domicile, ce qui avec le tems devenait inévitable. A qui appartenait alors le droit de percevoir d'un tel citoyen les contributions sur les immeubles, s'ils se trouvaient être situés sur le territoire d'une autre corporation ? était-ce à cette dernière, ou à celle dont le contribuable était membre, que revenait ce droit ? Nous trouvons encore au 18^e siècle des exemples du dernier cas. Il aurait, ce semble cependant, été plus conforme à l'origine et à l'essence des droits de bourgeoisie, qui s'étaient constitués entre les limites d'une commune, de ne percevoir et d'imposer des contributions que sur les biensfonds situés entre ces limites, n'importe à qui ces immeubles pourraient appartenir. Aussi prévalut-il, ce principe dans les nouvelles ordonnances sur les contributions. Quant aux contributions sur les biens meubles, c'est bien différent. Ces biens étaient imposés et requis au profit de l'endroit de bourgeoisie du contribuable, puisqu'on les considérait comme une chose qui peut en tout tems rentrer au lieu de bourgeoisie, et qui par conséquent peut s'enlever à volonté du lieu de domicile d'un citoyen. De cette manière les immeubles étaient toujours contribuables à la corporation de l'endroit, entre les limites duquel ils se trouvaient, n'importe à qu'ils appartenissent, que ce fut à des bourgeois ou à d'autres habitans du lieu, tandis que les biens meubles de ces derniers étaient en tout tems contribuables à la corporation dont ils étaient membres, et d'où seulement ils avaient à exiger et à attendre du secours en cas de besoin.

On peut juger d'après ce que nous venons de dire, que la fixation de ces contributions n'a pu avoir lieu qu'après de grands débats. Comme cette contribution est uniquement l'affaire de l'administration bourgeoise d'un endroit, et que les besoins se trouvent être grands ou petits, suivant le tems et les circonstances, on pourra comprendre facilement, qu'elle doit être plus ou moins forte selon les endroits, et cela d'autant plus que dans quelques endroits on a d'autres ressources, qui allègent le traitement des pauvres ; comme p. ex. l'usufruit des fonds affectés aux pauvres.

La même diversité se trouve dans la manière de percevoir cette contribution ; chaque district a, pour ainsi dire, une manière différente pour chaque objet contribuable ; champs, prairies, pâturages, forêts ; tandis que les premiers se mesurent et sont taxés par arpens, les deux derniers sont communément imposés selon leurs droits et privilèges. Dans les montagnes, par ex. on taxe les pâturages d'après le nombre de vaches qui peuvent y être nourries pendant la saison d'été ; les prairies sont imposées d'après la quantité de fourrage d'hiver qu'elles sont dans le cas de fournir. Ailleurs le propriétaire doit payer pour chaque pièce de bétail qu'il fait pâturer pendant l'été, 3 ou 4 kreutzers, et une taxe proportionnellement plus forte pour le bétail qu'il hiverne.

Il serait fatigant et inutile de faire ici l'énumération de toutes les particularités et différences qui existent à ce sujet dans chaque vallée, dans chaque commune même, par suite d'anciens us et habitudes.

Ces diversités ont donné lieu, suivant que plus ou moins elles contrariaient leur but à une foule infinie d'irrégularités et d'actions arbitraires, qui excitaient le mécontentement et les plaintes continuelles des contribuables.

Après tout ce qui vient de se dire, on pourra à peu près saisir les rapports qui existaient entre le gouvernement et les différentes bourgeoisies relativement aux pauvres et à leur entretien ; car cet entretien appartenait uniquement à l'administration de ces dernières ; le gouvernement ne pouvait y influer que d'une manière bien superficielle, en exerçant sa surintendance sur cette administration. A la campagne le gouvernement était représenté à cet égard par ses préfets. C'était par conséquent à ces derniers qu'appartenait la surveillance sur les bourgeoisies et corporations de leur district, et sur leur administration ; c'était de leurs lumières, de leur expérience, de leur fermeté et de leur bonne volonté que dépendait l'heureux succès de cette surveillance. Leur charge était de courte durée (6 années) un grand nombre d'entr'eux entrèrent dans cette sphère d'activité, déjà si grande et si importante par elle-même, sans avoir une connaissance exacte de l'état du pays et de ses besoins ; comment donc auraient-ils pu se vouer avec zèle à un objet aussi aride et aussi ingrat que l'est le paupérisme ? Leur influence à cet égard était donc fort accidentelle et irrégulière ; de manière que la surintendance du gouvernement était toujours et généralement variable et défectueuse ; et on n'y apportait des réformes que de tems en tems, lorsque des défauts trop saillants, rendaient indispensables ces améliorations.

La commission des pauvres ne se trouvait pas dans une meilleure position ; cette commission avait été créée, lorsque l'on institua des corporations bourgeoises (1676) à dessein d'aider ces dernières avec les ressources de l'état, et dans des momens d'un besoin extraordinaire, et pour décider en première instance sur les difficultés qui s'élèveraient relativement à l'endroit et à la bourgeoisie auxquels tel ou tel pauvre devrait appartenir. Mais comme elle manquait entièrement d'organes intermédiaires entr'elle et les corporations (car on ne pouvait compter comme tel le clergé), elle ne pouvait acquérir les lumières nécessaires pour bien connaître les intérêts et les besoins du pays, et par conséquent ses secours annuels étaient une ressource incertaine et toujours insuffisante.

Il ne faut donc pas s'étonner, si sous de pareils auspices, le paupérisme est tombé dans le canton de Berne dans un état aussi fâcheux et aussi irrégulier. Il fallait qu'avec le tems les effets de cette séparation et repartition des habitans en plusieurs corporations ou bourgeoisies se fissent sentir peu à peu en se développant. Le principe invariable et fixe de ces liaisons héréditaires dût naturellement s'entrechoquer avec le principe de mobilité et de changement qui fait la base de la vie et de la relation sociales; l'intérêt du bien public dût céder à l'intérêt de quelques réunions particulières. Car les intérêts privés des corporations durent les rendre égoïstes et ennemies les unes des autres. On mit des obstacles au libre établissement de domicile, et on paralisa par là le développement des forces et de l'industrie des basses classes, et les conséquences de ces mesures durent naturellement retomber sur chaque corporation en particulier, qui était obligée à recueillir et à entretenir ses membres qui n'avaient aucun travail et qui par conséquent étaient sans courage. Il fallait bien aussi qu'avec le tems cette classe d'individus cherchât et trouvât un moyen d'existence, dans cette assistance même, qu'ils étaient en droit d'exiger; il était naturel qu'ils y prissent goût, en se livrant de cette manière à une vie oisive et à tous les vices qui en résultent. Nous pourrions citer, à l'appui de ce que nous venons d'avancer, de nombreux exemples de familles entières qui vivent en parasites, d'année en année, de génération en génération, à la charge de la commune, et qui ont trouvé un moyen d'existence dans cette ressource; tandis que nous ne voyons que fort peu d'exemples du contraire.

Les administrations aussi durent ressentir les mauvais effets de ces causes. A telle proportion que le nombre des pauvres s'augmentait par suite des causes indiquées plus haut, à telle proportion les ressources des corporations se diminuaient et leur administration se relâchait. Comment aussi résister à cette hydre, sans aide, sans secours efficaces? De ce combat inégal s'en suivit une faiblesse et une paralysie complète pour les communes accablées de pauvres. Cette disproportion toujours croissante dût se faire sentir plus vivement dans les époques où des évènements extraordinaires nécessitaient des secours et des ressources beaucoup plus considérables!

La soudaine et violente secousse que reçurent les institutions de notre pays lors de la Révolution de 1798, découvrit la plaie dans son entier. Aussitôt que l'acte de médiation eût un peu apaisé les troubles, on vit paraître une suite d'ordonnances qui avaient pour but de régulariser l'administration des pauvres, et de soulager le fardeau des contribuables. (1804-1812. Voyez le recueil d'ordonnances ci-joint.)

Ces ordonnances considèrent le plus souvent le paupérisme sous le point de vue de la police et du droit de bourgeoisie; c'est par cette voie qu'elles cherchent à restreindre le mal, tandis que d'un autre côté elles ouvrent de nouvelles ressources, pour alléger un peu le fardeau qui pèsait sur les contribuables, et qu'elles règlent la manière si difficile de percevoir ces contributions, (voyez l'ordonnance sur les pauvres de 1804). Le succès ne justifia pas les espérances que l'on avait fondées sur ces ordonnances, surtout sur celle de 1807; elles se trouvèrent même pernicieuses dans quelques points; p. ex. dans la suspension du droit de bourgeoisie, par voie de *sentence pénale*.

Les années de disette de 1816 et 1817, aggrandirent et envénimèrent la plaie du paupérisme. On fut dès-lors obligé à prendre des mesures efficaces pour ouvrir de nouvelles ressources. Pour cet effet on imposa, en 1817, les *droits d'entrée* sur les mariages; droit, qui consistait en ce que la mariée payait à la bourgeoisie de l'époux une certaine somme. Le produit de cette ressource s'ajoutait alors au fond capital.

Le gouvernement voulant connaître l'avis de la nation à ce sujet, posa et fit publier des questions, promettant des récompenses à ceux qui y répondraient satisfaisamment. Mais aucune reponse n'indiqua le chemin à prendre pour une réforme efficace.

Les contributions exorbitantes pour les pauvres qui furent imposées en 1816 et 1817 et dans les années suivantes, déterminèrent par contre le gouvernement à prendre une mesure sévère et coercitive pour reprimer ce mal. On prit la moyenne des contributions des années 1813, 1814 et 1815, qui servit à fixer un maximum qu'aucune corporation ou commune ne devait dépasser, sans le consentement special du gouvernement.

Les tableaux ci-joints démontreront qu'effectivement dans les dernières années, les contributions pour les pauvres se sont diminuées, quoiqu'on n'ait pu avoir qu'un résultat approximatif à cause de quelques irrégularités, et parcequ'on n'a pu y parvenir, que par la confrontation des dates.

Nous allons maintenant traiter de la seconde partie de l'entretien des pauvres, savoir de ceux dont la charge retombait uniquement sur le *gouvernement* du *canton*. Nous avons déjà fait mention que le gouvernement avait formellement promis d'assister efficacement les corporations, qui seraient chargées outre mesure de pauvres. S'il survenait des malheurs, comme p. ex. des incendies, des inondations, des disettes, des dévastations de terrain, etc. le gouvernement faisait tenir aussitôt, aux endroits ou aux personnes qui avaient souffert, des secours proportionnés au dommage. Les communes qu'avaient à entretenir plus de pauvres que leurs forces et ressources ne leur permettaient de faire, recevaient pareillement des secours en argent ou en nature.

On accorda aux communes, qu'avant la Réformation jouissaient d'institutions bienfaisantes provenant des couvens, la continuation de ces jouissances, du moins de toutes celles, qui n'avaient pas été supprimées, et en tant qu'à la longue, des changemens arbitraires,

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n'eussent été apportés dans la repartition des dites institutions (telles étaient p. ex. les pensions, les distributions de pain, de blé, de farine, de bois, d'argent, etc.)

Comme l'on voit, cette espèce de secours était calquée sur les anciennes coutumes, qui dataient d'une époque où l'on avait des idées fort imparfaites sur l'entretien des pauvres, où l'on ne savait pas les assister avec discernement et en proportion de leur position et de leurs besoins, et où l'entretien consistait souvent à les nourrir jusqu'à leur mort, ce qui donnait souvent lieu à de tristes exemples de paresse et de corruption. On ne doit cependant pas passer sous silence un changement important qui s'est opéré, à ce sujet, dans le ci-devant couvent d'Interlaken, il y a plusieurs années; on y a créé une infirmerie contenant cinq lits, qui s'est fait, et se fait encore remarquer par son influence salubre.

Aussi sera-ce un des moyens de secours, indiqué et recommandé par le projet de révision qu'on médite; parcequ'on trouve avec raison, qu'il remplit parfaitement le but de la vraie bienfaisance, et que l'on ne saurait mieux employer l'usufruit des biens des pauvres.

Le gouvernement accordait en outre des secours réguliers par l'entremise de la commission des pauvres. Cette dernière devait distribuer en lots de 6 à 32 francs de Suisse, une certaine somme fixe, qui lui était allouée annuellement, et qui s'augmentait avec les besoins, monta dans les dernières années jusqu'à 10,000 et 12,000 fr. sans toutefois pouvoir suffire aux besoins.

Mais nous voulons parler ici de ceux des pauvres qui n'appartenaient à aucune des corporations, ou bourgeoisies; et que le gouvernement à lui seul était obligé de maintenir.

Nous avons vu que deux classes de la population ont été victimes de ces institutions des droits de bourgeoisie; et que depuis cette époque jusqu'à nos jours leur espèce ainsi que leur misère se sont perpétués. Nous parlons des *heimathlosen* et des *aubains*.

La première classe se composait dans l'origine d'étrangers poursuivis par le sort, pour la plupart pauvres et sans pain et sans moyens de se le gagner; ils avaient été, pour nous exprimer ainsi, battus par l'orage, et ils étaient venus naufrager sur les côtes de notre pays. Leur caractère, comme étrangers, mais surtout leur position et leur sort précaires, leur avaient inspiré de la répugnance pour toute relation et liaison sociale; leur vie vagabonde et fugitive les avaient rendus farouches et leur avait inspiré le dégoût du travail. Il n'y avait donc rien qui parût plus naturel, dans les tems rudes du 17^e siècle, que de chercher à s'en débarrasser de la manière la plus prompte.

C'est aussi ce que l'on chercha, car leur fardeau devenait plus grand et plus onéreux d'année en année. C'est pourquoi aussi nous avons remarqué plus haut, que les ordonnances de cette époque là, tendaient à ce but; tantôt plusieurs états confédérés s'associaient à cet effet (p. ex. les diètes à Baden de 1570-1661), tantôt le besoin forçait chaque canton en particulier à prendre des mesures sévères. Mais toutes ces ordonnances, toutes ces mesures de rigueur manquèrent leur but. La désunion intérieure en Suisse, qui provenait, partie des troubles religieux, partie par les influences de l'étranger; cette désunion avait détruit le sentiment fédéral dans les différens cantons, et avait par là paralysé les forces et l'énergie qui étaient nécessaires pour pouvoir exécuter des projets qui fussent profitables au bien public. On ne pouvait espérer un succès continu et satisfaisant, s'il n'existait aucune union, et si l'on n'agissait pas de concert; les efforts de chaque canton en particulier ne purent suffire; ses forces durent bientôt s'épuiser dans cette lutte. La nature montagneuse du pays et la pitié de ses habitans, protégeaient ces malheureux. Tandis que les montagnes leur offraient un asile et des cachettes, les habitans leur fournissaient de la nourriture par crainte ou par pitié. Les perquisitions et les poursuites restèrent sans succès. Plus on les soumettait à ce système barbare et plus ils devenaient dangereux à la société, plus ils s'accoutumaient à leur genre de vie. Cette lutte entre les deux partis dura près de deux siècles. Les gouvernemens s'épuisèrent en vains efforts; on connaît le triste sort des *heimathlosen*. Il était réservé à une nouvelle génération, à ses sentimens nobles et plus humains, d'effacer cette tâche honteuse de l'histoire de notre pays. A cette heure le canton de Berne ne compte plus qu'un petit nombre de ces malheureux.

Le gouvernement leur procura une patrie en la leur achetant, aussitôt qu'il connût le nombre qui lui fut adjugé, lorsqu'on les repartit entre les différens cantons (1805-1818); l'acquisition des districts dans le Jura lui offrit une bonne occasion pour les y faire recevoir bourgeois à meilleur compte; car ces districts étaient encore à cette époque régis par les lois de la naturalisation Françaises. De cette manière, et depuis 1820 jusqu'en 1831, on reçut bourgeois du canton, 3,081 individus pour la somme de 40,585 fr.

Un sort beaucoup plus doux et plus heureux échet à la seconde classe d'étrangers; nous entendons ceux qui à cette époque avaient cherché et trouvé un asile contre le fanatisme religieux dans les pays où l'on professait la même religion qu'eux. Dans des villes on leur accordait gratuitement le droit de domicile et de bourgeoisie; et dans d'autres endroits ils acquerraient l'un et l'autre pour une légère rétribution en argent et à des conditions favorables. Plusieurs de ces familles fleurissent encore au jour d'aujourd'hui dans le nombre des plus distinguées du pays.

Là où ces proscrits pour cause de religion se réfugiaient sur le territoire Suisse, en nombre plus considérable, il fallait prendre des mesures différentes à leur égard, surtout s'ils différaient des habitans par le langage; on dût alors les laisser réunis en groupes nombreux.

Ce

Ce fut le cas des Calvinistes Françaises, qui vinrent se réfugier dans le canton de Berne, lors de la révocation de l'édit de Nantes. Ils formaient déjà une corporation distincte par leurs mœurs, leur langage et leur sort. Cette corporation ressemblait beaucoup aux droits de bourgeoisie, qui commencèrent à cette époque à prendre pied, excepté qu'elle n'était attachée à aucun local fixe. On leur conféra la naturalisation, et dès-lors ils prirent le nom de Colonie Française, et ils eurent les mêmes droits et relations que les corporations du pays. L'activité et l'industrie qui leur étaient propres, les firent bientôt fleurir, et ils fournirent par là des ressources suffisantes à leur administration, qui était présidée par un magistrat supérieur, pour couvrir les frais de leur communauté, sans tomber en rien à la charge de l'état.

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Nous trouvons par contre un caractère tout différent dans la seconde classe des habitans du pays, qui ne font partie d'aucune bourgeoisie du canton ; nous voulons parler de la classe des *aubains*. Quoiqu'on les eût exclus, lorsque l'on forma et institua les droits de bourgeoisie, il fallut tout de même les reconnaître comme enfans du sol, et le gouvernement dût par conséquent les tolérer au pays. On ne pouvait donc les poursuivre et les chasser comme l'on avait fait à l'égard des *heimathlosen* ; mais d'un autre côté leur position misérable et leurs relations sociales ne leur permettaient pas non plus de se réunir en une corporation distincte, par la voie du travail et de l'industrie, ainsi que l'avait fait la Colonie Française. Ils étaient dispersés par le pays, sans propriétés ; une occupation incertaine, un travail souvent abject leur étaient assignés pour gagner leur vie ; il faut convenir que leur position était assez fâcheuse, mais celle du gouvernement à leur égard ne l'était pas moins, puisqu'il était obligé de secourir et de maintenir leurs pauvres. Quelles difficultés ne présentait pas leur direction, leur surveillance ! Il s'en suivit que leur licence s'accrût avec leur nombre. On agréa à leur nombre tous les enfans trouvés, ou abandonnés, qui n'appartenaient à aucune corporation.

On voulut avec le tems (1779) leur appliquer le système de corporation. On espérait, en les unissant par une liaison étroite, d'en former une corporation, une communauté, qui subsisterait par elle seule. Mais on n'avait pas considéré que cet organisme ne ferait qu'empirer le mal ; puisque par là on n'apportait aucun changement réel dans leur position ; car ils restèrent, comme par le passé, sans propriétés fixes et toujours disséminés par le pays. Ils eurent donc les mêmes droits que les autres corporations, celui entr'autres, d'augmenter la leur, en y admettant de nouveaux membres, pour la somme de 200 fr. On voulait qu'ils se créassent des propres ressources pour leur corporation, le gouvernement donna à cet effet annuellement des sommes considérables. Mais après six années déjà on comprit l'impossibilité de parvenir au but de cette manière (1779-1784). Plus ses secours étaient généreux et encourageans, et plus le fardeau augmentait.

En 1780 la corporation des aubains comptait 3,482 individus. Les secours donnés à leurs pauvres jusqu'en 1798 se montèrent à la somme considérable de 343,750 francs.

Le nombre des secours était en—

1779.	1785.	1787.	1791.
—	—	—	—
141	343	404	679

De 1798-1803 le gouvernement Helvétique dépensa pour cet objet une somme de 92,183 fr. (y non compris 20,000 fr. de leurs fonds). En 1803 les cantons de Berne, de Vaud et d'Aargovie se partagèrent les aubains ; le premier en eût 4/7, le second 2/7, le troisième 1/7.

Berne eût pour sa part un nombre de	-	-	-	-	2,341
Qui s'augmenta jusqu'en 1818 de	-	-	-	-	228 individus.
Total	-	-	-	-	2,569

De 1803 à 1814	- - -	307 secours coûtèrent la somme de	-	-	£. 219,648
De 1814 à 1830	- - -	377	"	"	" - 382,029

On chargea de cette administration une commission des aubains, nommée exprès à cet effet. Le gouvernement lui allouait un crédit annuel de 25,000 fr. somme qui monta plûtard à 27,000 et 30,000 fr. ; elle était régie par les mêmes règles que la commission des pauvres.

Le fardeau toujours grossissant des aubains fit naturellement naître le désir de trouver quelque moyen capable de les diminuer, ou de les faire cesser tout-à-fait. Le seul qui parût depuis longtemps être convenable, était de dissoudre leur corporation. Mais qu'est-ce qui les constituait en corporation distincte, si ce n'est précisément l'existence de ces corporations de bourgeoisie ? On ne pouvait donc dissoudre la leur, qu'en les incorporant à ces dernières. C'est ce que l'on chercha depuis 1826 jusqu'en 1831 ; 195 individus furent placés de cette manière, pour la somme de 23,194 fr. Si un nombre aussi petit à coûté autant, on peut juger par là, de ce que la totalité de ces individus coûterait.

Dans ce moment les autorités s'occupent de rechef, et avec zèle de ce plan ; car il est de toute nécessité de s'opposer énergiquement, non seulement au nombre toujours croissant,

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mais encore à la corruption et à la licence de cette classe, qui se corrompt à mesure qu'on lui offre et qu'on lui donne des secours généreux et faciles à obtenir. Mais de quelle manière, par quelle voie atteindre à ce but? Ce problème n'est pas encore résolu. Nous doutons, qu'on puisse le résoudre, si en même temps ou auparavant on n'apporte pas de grands changemens dans la position et dans l'essence des droits de bourgeoisie.

Nous croyons maintenant d'avoir satisfait, selon nos faibles moyens, à la tâche, que nous nous étions imposée, de démontrer aussi bien que possible, l'état actuel, l'origine, et le développement dans les différentes branches du paupérisme dans le canton de Berne, et partant nous terminerons ce traité.

Plus ce sujet présentait l'image d'un chaos, d'un mélange diffus, et plus on devait le traiter avec vérité. C'est cette dernière qui a été le but de tous nos efforts. Cette intention nous justifiera, si ce traité paraît défectueux. Personne ne le sent plus vivement que nous. Cette défectuosité trouvera toutefois une excuse dans la grande difficulté qu'il y avait de traiter et d'approfondir une matière aussi étendue, un sujet aussi embrouillé. C'est aussi la raison, qui nous a porté à traiter de préférence le paupérisme sous le point de vue de son développement et de son organisation intérieurs, persuadés que par là nous représenterions plus fidèlement son caractère particulier, sans embrouiller le regard de l'observateur.

(signé) Ch. Huntziker.

Berne, le 1^{er} Décembre 1833.

F R A N C E.

BORDEAUX.

ANSWERS to QUERIES circulated by His Majesty's Poor Law Commissioners relative to the Condition of the Poor, and to the Legal and Charitable Provisions for their Support, within the District of His Majesty's Consulate at *Bordeaux*. Enclosed in Mr. Consul Scott's Despatch of 6th June 1834.

VAGRANTS.

1. To what extent, and under what form, does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?—The number of mendicant vagrants in the district of Bordeaux varies, and depends more or less on the season of the year, and the abundance or failure of the crops. Since the establishment of the *Depôt de Mendicité* in 1827, answering, in some respects, to the English workhouse, mendicity has greatly diminished in Bordeaux. This institution was established for the purpose of suppressing mendicity, by sending to it all persons found openly begging, who are kept there at the expense of the establishment, and are made to contribute, in some degree, to their own support by work.

2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country, seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded, and under what regulations?—Indigent persons, passing through the country on their way home, or seeking work, are allowed three sous ($1\frac{1}{2}d.$) per league, ($2\frac{1}{2}$ miles). If impotent, or unable to travel on foot, they are furnished with means of conveyance.

This relief is granted by the mayor, who states, in the passport or way-bill, the motive why the person is thus assisted. The person assisted presents his passport or way-bill to the mayor of every parish through which he passes, who furnishes the sum sufficient to carry him to the next.

One of the principal intentions of this relief is to afford to the police a clue to the tracing of vagrants, who may be especially designated as objects of suspicion.

The funds of the department support this expense. The sum of 12,000 francs (480*l.*) is destined yearly for this purpose in the department of the Gironde.

DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

1. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they, or any part of their families, billeted or quartered on householders? 2. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they boarded with individuals?—In France no laws or regulations exist by which destitute able-bodied persons or their families are quartered, billeted or boarded on and with householders.

3. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there district houses of industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families, and supplying them with food, clothes, &c., and in which they are set to work?—There are no houses of industry in this department for the destitute able-bodied, except that known as the *Depôt de Mendicité*.

This institution was first established in the year 1827, with a view to suppress the great number of professed beggars who infested the streets and public walks, taking advantage of any defect of conformation, &c. to attract the notice of passengers. By law all persons found begging in the streets are liable to be taken up and imprisoned; but instead of imprisonment, those arrested are conveyed to the *Depôt de Mendicité*, where, if able, they are made to work. The good effects of this institution are visible; for instead of the number of professed beggars, amounting to 800, which it did before the institution of the establishment, it does not now amount to above 150 or 200.

This institution is supported by private contribution. The King and the town contribute a certain portion to make up what may be wanting. The average number of the population of the *depôt* amounts to 350 souls.

Generally speaking, owing to the want of population, employment is to be found in commerce, trade or agriculture. The high price of wages in the towns and the country proves that work is always to be found.

When any unforeseen circumstances have arisen to interrupt the common order of things, the local authorities have come to the assistance of the population, by giving work to those out of employment. Public subscriptions are also resorted to on these occasions.

4. To what extent, and under what regulations, do any religious institutions give assistance to the destitute, by receiving them as inmates, or by giving them alms?—Since the suppression of the monasteries and convents, there are no religious establishments which regularly give assistance to the destitute. The priests of the various parishes, and the protestant clergymen, distribute, according to their judgment, whatever alms or assistance they may receive for that purpose, to the most indigent; but it is impossible to ascertain to what extent this is done.

5. To what extent, and under what regulations, is work provided at their own dwellings for those who have trades, but do not procure work for themselves?—There exists in Bor-

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deaux a society of ladies, who procure work for indigent families; this, however, is confined to needle-work, knitting, &c. This association is not very extensive.

6. To what extent, and under what regulations, is work provided for such persons in agriculture or on public works?—The only cases in which public works are resorted to for the indigent is in that mentioned in answer to query No. 3; it may be added, that there exists no law or regulation to that effect.

7. To what extent, and under what regulations, are fuel, clothing or money distributed to such persons or their families; at all times of the year, or during any particular seasons?—All indigent families, and in which there are those capable of working, but who are not able to obtain it, or whose numbers are so great that all cannot be subsisted, are relieved by the *Bureaux de Charité*, (a charitable institution).

The same relief is given to those who, having a habitation, are unable of themselves, through age or infirmity, to support themselves.

The mode of obtaining this relief is by petition, signed by some credible person, and attested by the priest or protestant clergyman. It is proportioned to the number of the family, and to the number of those able to work, and whose wages go to the maintenance of the family. The relief consists in bread, soup, wood for fuel, and sometimes, though rarely, blankets and woollen clothing; medicines for the sick, and broth.

Generally speaking, these distributions of food would be insufficient; but most indigent families are assisted by private persons, so that, on the whole, they have wherewithal to sustain life.

The annual *distribution à domicile* (domiciliary relief) amounts to the sum of 100,000 francs, (4,000 l.)

3,520 families are relieved. The number of impotent in these families, father and mother included, though able to work, amounts to 9,634.

It is in proportion to these numbers that the relief is given, but it is greater in winter than the other parts of the year.

As to the medicines and broth, whenever there are sick in these families a sufficiency is given. Physicians are attached to each auxiliary bureau of every district, who visit the sick, prescribe the remedies, &c., all of which are distributed by the *Sœurs de Charité* (Sisters of Charity, an order of nuns who devote themselves to the care of the poor and sick, and who undertake, gratuitously, the elementary education of their children). It is a most respectable and praiseworthy institution.

The same Sisters receive in their houses the little girls of these families who are old enough to learn to read. Books are supplied by the instructors.

In extraordinary cases, recourse is had to subscriptions and collections, which increase the means of the *Bureaux de Charité*; so that during long and hard winters, more clothing, &c. is distributed. It seldom happens that money is given.

There are, however, no positive regulations on these points. The whole is in the hands of the directors of this establishment. A responsible receiver is attached to it, whose accounts are submitted to the examination of the *Cour des Comptes* (audit-office). Thus, though the distributions are left to the judgment of the directors, they are subjected to control.

The above details relate to the city of Bordeaux. There are, however, proportionate institutions in most of the larger towns of the department, but in the poorer parishes and rural districts the *Bureaux de Charité* are merely nominal. These parishes being without a revenue, are unable to assist their poor, who subsist on the alms they may receive at the different dwelling-houses, and who when ill, if possible, come to the nearest hospital, generally to that of Bordeaux.

8. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they relieved, by their children being taken into schools, and fed, clothed and educated, or apprenticed?—In this department there are no schools in which indigent children are received to be fed and clothed gratuitously, but there are those in which they receive a certain degree of instruction.

For Boys.—The institution of *Frères des Ecoles Chrésiennes* (Brothers of the Christian Schools), and two Lancastrian schools, which have been lately instituted.

For Girls.—A Lancastrian school, a few boarding schools, in which a certain number of indigent girls are taught gratuitously. And also the Sisters of Charity attached to the administration of the *Bureaux de Charité*.

The *Ecoles Chrésiennes* are at the charge of the town. The sum appropriated to those establishments amounts annually to about 14,000 francs (560 l.). Admissions are granted by the town. The number of children instructed in reading, writing and a little arithmetic, amounts to about 1,800 for the town. At the Lancastrian school, the instruction is on a more extended scale. Grammar, drawing and surveying are taught, in addition to what is taught at the *Ecoles Chrésiennes*.

There are at present in these latter schools 300 boys and 150 girls in all.

The department pays the expenses of these schools.

The girls received in the private boarding schools, where they learn to read, to write and to sew, amount to the number of about 600. This is entirely a private act of charity.

The number of girls received by the Sisters of Charity amounts to about 900.

There has also been established within the last year a model infant school, founded by private subscriptions, for the children of labourers and journeymen artisans. At present, however, it is so little known, that it is of very little importance.

9. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are the relatives of the destitute compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking charge of part of their families?—In France there is no law to compel the relatives of the destitute to assist them in any degree, except the immediate parents and their children

children reciprocally, and in such cases the assistance is regulated according to the means of the parties.

10. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they assisted by loans?—The destitute are assisted by no public loans, except at the *Mont de Piété* (an establishment instituted by the town for the purpose of lending money on security), which advances sums proportioned to the objects placed in pawn. These loans are burdensome for the poor on account of the high rate of interest, and the expenses.

It is however a resource to them, as they are not obliged to have recourse to private usurers. The amount of the interest received at the *Mont de Piété*, is applied to the expenses of the hospitals and other charitable institutions.

IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

1. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there almshouses, or other institutions for the reception of those who, through age, are incapable of earning their subsistence?—Bordeaux is the only town of the department which possesses any establishments of this kind, viz. the Hospital of Incurables (*Hospice des Incurables*), and that of the old people (*Hospice des Vieillards*).

These two establishments support 300 old people. This number falls very short of that which the population requires. The requisite qualifications for admission are, to have passed the age of 60, and to prove that the candidate has no means of subsistence.

It may be added, that at Bordeaux the number of old people who are candidates for admittance to these hospitals amounts to 300, and that on an average a vacancy occurs for each at the end of four years at the *Hospital des Incurables*, and two years at the *Hospice des Vieillards*, and that all these claimants find either in their families the *Secours à Domicile*, or private charity, means of subsistence.

2. To what extent, and under what regulations, is relief in food, fuel, clothing or money afforded them at their homes?—See answer to question No. 7, under the head of "Destitute able-bodied."

3. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they boarded with individuals? 4. Or quartered or billeted on the householders?—In France no laws or regulations exist by which impotent through age are boarded with individuals, or quartered or billeted on householders.

5. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are their relatives compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking part of their families?—No such regulations exist, except between relations of the first degree, and in such cases the assistance is regulated according to the means of the parties.

SICK.

1. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there district institutions for the reception of the sick?—The department possesses, for the reception of the sick, a small hospital at Bazas; one at St. Macaire, and one at La Réole; a more extensive one at Blaye and Libourne, and the great hospital at Bordeaux.

In this last town there is a hospital especially destined for venereal diseases.

The great hospital of Bordeaux contains always from 600 to 650 sick. The daily admittances average 30; the discharges, 28, and the deaths two.

For admission, on application at the door, a student of medicine examines the applicant, who, if found labouring under a real disease, is admitted to one of the wards, where he is duly examined by a physician. No distinction is made as to country, &c., either in admittance, treatment or discharge.

The inmates of this hospital are generally composed of inhabitants of the town, who are too poor to be treated at home, or who prefer the care that is taken of them there to that which they would experience at home; of workmen, &c. from the neighbouring departments employed in the town, and who have nowhere else to go to; of peasants, even in easy circumstances, who, from illness or accidents, have not the same resources at home; of children, affected with ring-worm.

2. To what extent, and under what regulations, are surgical and medical assistance afforded to the poor at their own homes? 3. Or are there institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick?—There are none beyond those mentioned in answer to question No. 7, under the head of "Destitute able-bodied."

4. To what extent, and under what regulations, is assistance given to lying-in women, at their own homes or in public establishments?—Bordeaux possesses a *Hospice de la Maternité*, or Lying-in Hospital, and a society, founded by private benefactions, for the same purpose.

The Lying-in Hospital is an asylum in which any woman who presents herself in the ninth month of her pregnancy, whatever may be her state, her country or condition, is admitted without difficulty, without question or inquiry, under the name she pleases, and in such a manner, that the fear of being known or discovered may not prevent those who wish to remain unknown from benefiting by the institution.

If before the ninth month any woman should meet with an accident she is equally received.

Women admitted at the ninth month remain in the establishment till they have completely recovered their lying-in. Those admitted before this term on account of accidents, leave it as soon as the cause ceases.

The number of those women, either lying-in or subsisted in the hospital, varies from 35 to 60, and their stay is about 30 days. The births amount annually from 400 to 450;

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upon this number, 30 or 40 at most are kept and suckled by their mothers; the rest are abandoned and sent to the Foundling Hospital.

Among these inmates, about one-fifth is composed of married women, who have no means of being confined at home; two-fifths of young girls of the town, chiefly servants; the rest of peasants, who leave their homes in order not to be discovered.

The *Société de Charité Maternelle* (Charitable Maternal Society), is composed of the principal ladies of Bordeaux, of the chief functionaries, and of some charitable citizens.

This society collects annually about 34,000 francs (1,360 *l.*) The royal family, the department and the town, contribute one-fourth of this sum. Incomes bequeathed, or given, amounting to about 2,000 francs (80 *l.*); and gifts, subscriptions collected at religious ceremonies, &c. form the remainder.

In order to obtain admission, the mother must already have had two children; she can only be received at her third lying-in. She must be married. The request is made before the committee, attested by neighbours and inhabitants worthy of credit. When the admission is granted, the applicant receives on her lying-in, a complete *layette* (set of child's bed-clothes, &c.), 18 francs (14*s.* 5*d.*) for the expenses of the lying-in, and a cradle. She receives, during the whole year after her lying-in, five francs (4*s.*) a month. All this is distributed by ladies appointed for the purpose, and who overlook occasionally the mothers, to see they do their duty, that they bring up their own children, and that they do not take in another child to nurse. If the infant does not survive four months, the clothes, &c. are returned. The mothers are obliged to have their children vaccinated.

The society assists annually from 300 to 350 mothers.

This institution is of great utility, as it prevents many from exposing their children as foundlings.

5. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick?—Mention has already been made of an hospital for venereal complaints. This establishment, which is under the direction of the town, is completely in the hands of the police. Persons of both sexes requiring treatment are admitted, on their request to the mayor; and the commissioners and sworn surgeons of the town-house send there, either forcibly or willingly, those public women, who, at the periodical visits to which they are subjected, are discovered to need the treatment.

Beyond the above-mentioned institutions, there exist no other, either public or private, for the sick.

CHILDREN.

Illegitimate.

1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall; wholly upon the mothers, or wholly upon the fathers; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations? 2. To what extent, and under what regulations, are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards? 3. To what extent, and under what regulations, are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?—The French laws impose no explicit obligation on the fathers or mothers of illegitimate children. It is only after the death of the former that these children have any rights defined by the "Code Civil" as successors; and even then they must have been acknowledged, or must be able to prove who are their mothers, for the discovery of the fathers is forbidden.

Illegitimate children may be classed as follows:

Those born from concubinage. Those born from an accidental intercourse between the two sexes.

The first are generally brought up by their mothers, through the means afforded by the fathers.

The second, when the mother is unable to bring them up, either from want of means or her position in the world, and that the father does not contribute to their support, are deposited in the Foundling Hospital.

In short, generally, and in spite of the penal code which awards punishments to those who expose their children, the exposal in the boxes or wheel of the Foundling Hospital affords easy means to all who are either unable or unwilling to provide for their children.

It may be therefore safely said, that the care of illegitimate children not being forcibly at the charge of their fathers or mothers, falls on the State or the parishes.

Orphans, Foundlings, or Deserted Children whose Parents are known.

4. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they taken into establishments for their reception?—Illegitimate children deserted by their parents, and which are deposited at the Foundling Hospital, are clothed and nourished by women in the institution, till a nurse out of it can be procured.

This clothing and nourishment are at the charge of the hospital, which provides for them by means of its own, augmented by the subsidy paid by the town.

When the children leave the establishment to go to nurse, the same administration superintends and provides for them by funds especially set apart for this purpose, and which proceed from three sources; viz.

1st. On the common fund of the departmental budget.

2d. On the supplementary funds, called *Centimes Facultatifs*, which are in the hands of the general council of the department.

3d and last, to complete it, on the revenues of the town and country parishes of the department.

These

These children, after being suckled, remain with their nurses till the age of 12 years. At this age, if the individuals who have brought them up do not wish to keep them gratuitously till their majority and give them a trade, they return to the hospital, and they then cease to be at the charge of the special funds. The establishment itself provides for their expenses; and until they can be placed as apprentices, they receive, in the Bordeaux hospital, the rudiments of reading and writing, and they are taught some trade.

Once placed as apprentices, they remain with the master till the age of 21, when they are to shift for themselves.

Those that cannot be placed, or are infirm, remain in the hospital, and form a sort of permanent population there.

Children whose parents are known, and who are living, but have either disappeared or are confined, are received in the same way as foundlings, the mode of admission differing only. This must be granted by the prefect after an inquest. For the remainder, they enjoy the same advantages as the foundlings.

As to orphans, they are also admitted into the Foundling Hospital, upon the order of the administrative commission, after information as to the state of the family. At Bordeaux the orphans of the town alone are received. Those of the rest of the department remain at the charge of their parishes, and generally live by alms. The orphans received into the hospital enjoy the same privileges as the foundlings and deserted children.

The legislative dispositions with regard to these three classes of children are established by a decree of 19th January 1811.

5. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they billeted or quartered on householders? 6. Or boarded with individuals?—Children of these three classes are not billeted or quartered on householders, or boarded with individuals, in any other manner than above stated; that is, with the nurse till the age of 12, who receives a certain salary all that time; as apprentices after 12, and then gratuitously, and in virtue of a contract which binds the child to serve the master till the age of 21.

These two ways of disposing of these children arise from an engagement purely voluntary, as there is no obligation for the inhabitants to take charge of children coming under these classes.

7. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are relatives compelled to support them?—The father and mother alone, when they are known, are responsible for the maintenance of their children. But once in the Foundling Hospital, nothing is exacted except when the recognized parents wish to take out their children, and are able to reimburse the expenses to which the establishment has been put to on their account. The payment of these expenses is exacted before the children are given up.

It may be as well to finish these questions by a few statements.

The annual exposal of children amounts at Bordeaux to 900, comprising all those abandoned at the Lying-in-Hospital, those of the town, and those sent from various parts of the department, as well as from the neighbouring departments.

From 10 to 15 deserted children, and the same number of orphans, are annually admitted.

The population of the hospital amounts generally to 40 new-born infants, waiting to be sent to nurse; 150 children beginning their apprenticeships, and waiting to be placed; about 150 infirm of all ages forming the permanent part of the population.

The number of children from the age of one month to that of 12 years, amounts to 3,600; and that of children above 12 and below 21 apprenticed out, amounts to about 1,500.

The expenditure of the hospital, comprising the clothing for the children brought up out of the establishment, amounts to 110,000 francs per annum (4,400*l.*) That for the nurses or board in the country, to 240,000 francs (9,600*l.*), of which

104,000 fr. (4,160*l.*) is given by the government upon the common departmental fund.

27,000 fr. (1,080*l.*) taken from the revenue of the town of Bordeaux.

60,000 fr. (2,400*l.*) voted by the general council on the *Centimes Facultatifs*.

49,000 fr. (1,960*l.*) on the revenue of the other parishes of the department.

CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

1. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there establishments for their reception?—There are at Bordeaux no other establishments of this nature, except that for the deaf and dumb.

This institution is at the expense of the government, and receives as boarders children of family, and gratuitously those belonging to indigent families. The regulations, &c. of this establishment are the same as those of the institution of the deaf and dumb in Paris.

2. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they billeted or quartered on householders? 3. Or boarded with individuals? 4. Or are their relatives compelled to support them?—There are no regulations of the kind alluded to in these questions existing in Bordeaux.

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IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

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1. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there establishments for their reception?—The department of the Gironde possesses two institutions for the mad, one at Bordeaux, the other at Cadillac.

Both houses receive them as boarders and as indigents.

A third distinction may also be admitted; viz. the interdicted and non-interdicted.

Those interdicted are so by judgments of the tribunals, and these judicial acts suffice to authorize admission.

The non-interdicted can only be admitted on the authorization of the prefect, after an inquest proving that there is danger in leaving the individual at large. These admissions are only provisional, and are referred to the "Ministère Public," (king's attorney), in order that a permanent decree may be given.

2. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they billeted or quartered on householders? 3. Or boarded with individuals?—There are no obligations of this nature.

4. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—The only relatives bound to provide for the mad, are the fathers and mothers, and the children, reciprocally.

Generally speaking, the family in which resides the mad person makes such sacrifices as will enable them to place such person in the madhouse.

Those only are admitted as boarders whose families can ensure the payment of an annual sum of 1,200 francs (48*l.*) at Bordeaux, and from 600 to 800 francs (24*l.* to 32*l.*) at Cadillac.

Gratuitous admissions are granted to all those whose indigence, or that of their relatives, prevent their being sent as boarders.

There is, however, an intermediate class for those whose relatives not being able to pay the sum required for admission as boarders, are still unwilling to leave them to public charity; these are admitted on paying a daily allowance of 1 fr. 40 c. per day (1*s.* 1½*d.*)

The number of mad in the Bordeaux hospital amounts to 165, of which 40 are boarders.

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

Does the receipt, or the expectation of relief, appear to produce any, and what effect, 1st, On the industry of labourers? 2d, On their frugality? 3d, On the age at which they marry? 4th, On the mutual dependence and affection of parents, children and other relatives?—Generally speaking, the receipt or the expectation of relief does not produce to any apparent degree the effects alluded to in these questions.

A few exceptions, however, may be made; such as, The relief or succour given to children brought up under the auspices of the hospitals;

The measures taken to propagate and encourage instruction among the indigent classes; And the relief afforded by the Society of Maternal Charity.

Under those heads a favourable influence on the indigent population may be remarked.

Children brought up to work imbibe a taste for it, and often become expert workmen. The rustic education they receive, the food to which they are accustomed, prepare them for becoming honest, industrious and frugal artisans.

The encouragement offered to married women adds an incentive to their maternal affection, and may, to a certain degree, favour marriage.

5th, What, on the whole, is the condition of the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, as compared with the condition of the person subsisting on alms or public charity? Is the condition of the latter, as to food and freedom from labour, more or less eligible?—In answering this question, it is necessary to distinguish the professed beggars of the lowest class from a certain class of mendicants who, reduced by circumstances, are forced to subsist on charity, each of this class having particular private families on whom they depend.

The condition of these beggars is generally, in a great town, better than that of the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class; they are in the habit of dividing the town into separate divisions or beats, and generally collect daily more than the labourer is able to earn. By these means, not being under the necessity of working, they prefer their condition. But the professed street beggar, who is subject to confinement as a vagrant in the *Depôt de Mendicité*, or workhouses, is necessarily less well off than the labourer having employment.

Since the establishment of the *Depôt de Mendicité* in 1827, the number of professed mendicants has diminished from 700 to 800, to 150 to 200; and petty crimes, such as stealing in shops, &c., has decreased in the same proportion.

The subsistence sent to the dwellings (*secours à domicile*), can only be considered as a supplement to other resources, and would be very far from sufficient for the support of those assisted, and cannot therefore be counted as a daily and individual sufficiency.

It has been stated elsewhere, that nearly 9,600 individuals participate in these distributions, and that the annual expenditure amounts to about 100,000 fr. (4,000*l.*), so that each individual does not receive monthly above one franc (9½*d.*) in food or other assistance.

Owing to the want of population, and consequent scarcity of labourers, few beggars, except persons incapable of working, or vagrants, are to be found in the rural districts. The former are either supported partly by their families, or by the neighbouring proprietors.

LABOURERS, &c.

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1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month, or the year, with and without provisions, in summer and in winter?—

	fr.	£.	s.
The wages of an able-bodied male labour, by the year, amount to - -	425	17	-
A house and garden is found him, valued at 60 francs per annum - -	60	2	8
In addition to the above sum, he receives four hogsheads of piquette, (a beverage made by pouring water over the residue of the grapes and lees of new wine) valued at - - - - -	fr. 25		
Wood for fuel, valued at - - - - -	30		
	55	2	4
Total for the year - - - - -	540	21	12

The wages of a day-labourer are, 1 fr. 50 c. (1 s. 4 ½ d.).
These are the only two kinds of labourers employed in this department.

2. Is piece-work general?—Piece-work is general in the vine districts alone.
3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—A common labourer alone earns yearly, all advantages included, 540 francs, (21 l. 12 s.). Owing to the scarcity of labourers, no distinction, as to wages, is made between an able-bodied and a common labourer.
4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?—Owing to the extreme carelessness and entire absence of frugality, on the part of the peasantry and other classes of labourers, it is impossible to give an accurate account of their expenditure. They live entirely from hand to mouth; and nine-tenths are in debt for the common necessities of life. The men are addicted to gambling, and the women spend the greater part of what they earn in useless articles of dress. As to the expenditure for schooling and religious teaching, no provision is thought of.
5. Is there any, and what, employment for women and children?—Women and children are employed in out-of-doors labour, such as hoeing, &c. in the corn districts; binding the vines, &c. in the vine districts. The in-door employments of women are few, such as coarse knitting and spinning.
6. What can women, and children under 16, earn per week in summer, in winter and harvest; and how employed?—In corn districts women, or children under 16, can earn, harvest excepted,

	fr.	c.	s.	d.
Per week - - - - -	4	20	3	4 ½
In harvest - - - - -	5	25	4	2 ½
In the vine districts, except during the vintage - -	3	50	2	10

During vintage they receive the same wages, say 50 centimes (5 d.) per day; besides which they are fed and lodged.

7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8 and 5 years respectively, (the eldest a boy) expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?—A labourer's wife and four children can earn, by labour, about 300 francs, (12 l.) per annum; viz.

	Fr.	£.	s.
The wife - - - - -	120	4	16
Eldest boy - - - - -	80	3	4
Child, 11 years old - - - - -	50	2	-
Child, 8 ditto - - - - -	30	1	4
Child, 5 ditto - - - - -	20	-	16
	300	12	-

8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children; and if so, on what food?—Certainly. The food varies in different districts. Throughout the district called *Landes*, (Heath) occupying about one-third of this department, the food consists in rye bread, soup made of millet, cakes made of Indian corn, now and then some salt provision and vegetables, rarely, if ever, butchers' meat; their drink, water, which, for the most part, is stagnant.

In the other parts of the department the peasantry live better. They eat wheaten bread, soup made with vegetables, and a little grease or lard twice a day, potatoes and other vegetables, but seldom butchers' meat; their drink is wine or piquette.

9. Could it lay by any thing, and how much?—It is certain that a family, composed as above, could lay something by from their gains at the end of the year, as the wants of the lower classes are much fewer than in England; in fact, the luxuries of tea, &c. are quite

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 —
 Bordeaux.

unknown. For the causes above alluded to few of the peasants have any surplus at the end of the year; on the contrary, they are mostly in debt. The few exceptions may, with proper care, always have 6*l.* to 8*l.* in advance; this is generally employed in the purchase of a little bit of land.

With respect to artisans, those of Bordeaux are chiefly coopers, masons and stone-cutters. Their wages average from 2 fr. 50 c. to 3 fr. per day, (2*s.* to 2*s.* 5*d.*)

The wages of other description of artisans average from 2 francs to 3 francs per day (1*s.* 7½*d.* to 2*s.* 5*d.*), according to their abilities.

Generally speaking, the same causes that prevent peasants from saving any thing prevail among the artisans. Those, however, who, through good management, succeed in having some advances at the end of the year, generally invest them in the savings bank.

10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?—The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation, if belonging to the proprietor, is about half an acre. The quantity of land belonging to a labourer varies from 2 to 30 acres. From the division of property in France, a large estate soon becomes parcelled off into a quantity of small ones, so that the number of very small properties, varying from 2 to 30 acres, is very considerable. It is impossible to ascertain the exact proportion of land so occupied, but it is presumed to exceed greatly that of the large ones, except in the district of Médoc, where, from the high price of land, and the great expense attending the cultivation of the vine, the number of small properties is very inferior to that of the large ones, which are seldom subdivided, but are either sold by the heirs, or cultivated conjointly by them.

11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations?—Either the labourer himself, or the proprietor, who employs the labourer on his property.

12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale?—Labourers' habitations are never let; the person who employs the labourer is bound to find him lodging, except those who are employed by the day.

13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—Land is never let to the labourer.

14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?—In the department, 1 per 368.

15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?—In the department, 1 per 395.

16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?—In the department, 1 per 554.

17. The average number of children to a marriage?—In the department, 3.

18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate children?—In the department, 18 per 1.

19. The proportion of children that die before the end of the first year?—In the department, one-seventh.

20. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 10th year?—In the department, one-fourth.

21. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 18th year?—In the department, one-third.

22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—In the department, males, 25; females, 20.

23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—The principal, if not the only cause, that retards marriages among the labouring classes is the fear of the conscription, to which all are subject, except those morally or physically incapable of serving, the only sons of widows, &c. The want of means to support a family operates in some degree in preventing marriages, but, generally speaking, with the exception of the above causes, there are no other causes of hinderance or delays in marriage. In spite of this, few early marriages are contracted.

24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried; 2d, the married, save?—Few of the labouring classes have prudence enough to lay by anything. A single man, if so inclined, may lay by at the end of the year between 3*l.* and 4*l.*; and a married man, with four children, may lay by 4*l.* to 8*l.*

25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—In the towns, their savings are generally put into the *Caisse d'Epargnes*, or savings bank; and in the rural districts, they are employed in the purchase of a bit of land, sometimes a cow, donkey or pig.

T. B. G. Scott.

DIETARIES.

Translations expressing the Amounts and Quantities in English Money, Weights and Measures.

GENERAL HOSPITAL FOR THE SICK.

Medicines, bread, meat and other necessary food is given, the lowest average of which for the sick and the convalescent is, per day,

1 lb. bread, equal to about	-	-	-	17 oz. English.
½ bottle of wine	-	-	-	1 pint, do.
10 oz. of meat	-	-	-	11 oz. do.

Other food, such as fowl, fish, &c. to the value of 15 centimes (1½*d.*)

Medicines, to the value of 15 centimes (1½*d.*)

The daily average expense for each inmate amounts to 1 fr. 4 c., about 10*d.*

HOSPITAL FOR THE VENEREALS.

Men.

1 $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. of bread, equal to about	-	-	26 oz. English.
$\frac{1}{6}$ th of a bottle of wine	-	-	$\frac{1}{6}$ th of a quart.
$\frac{1}{2}$ lb. meat and broth	-	-	8 $\frac{1}{2}$ oz.
$\frac{1}{4}$ lb. prunes or French beans	-	-	4 $\frac{1}{4}$ oz.
or $\frac{3}{4}$ lb. of potatoes	-	-	13 oz.

Foreign
Communications.

FRANCE.

Bordeaux.

Women have only one pound (17 oz.) bread and receive no wine

Prunes and French beans each twice a week, potatoes three times.

The average expense for food only, for each inmate, is per day, 51 centimes, about 5 *d.*The average expense for food, other necessities, &c. for each, is per day, 95 centimes, about 9 *d.*

HOSPITAL FOR THE INCURABLES.

1 lb. of bread, equal to about	-	-	17 oz. English.
6 oz. of meat	-	-	7 oz. do.
$\frac{3}{4}$ of a bottle of wine	-	-	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ pint, do.

The average expense for each, per day, including medicines, &c. is 1 fr. 3 c., about 10 *d.*

HOSPITAL FOR OLD PEOPLE.

1 lb. of bread, equal to about	-	-	17 oz. English.
6 oz. meat	-	-	7 oz. do.
$\frac{3}{4}$ of a bottle of wine	-	-	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ pint, do.

The average expense for each, per day, including medicines, &c., 82 centimes, about 7 $\frac{3}{4}$ *d.*

MADHOUSES.

1 $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. of bread, equal to about	-	-	26 oz. English.
7 oz. of meat	-	-	7 $\frac{3}{4}$ oz. do.
$\frac{1}{3}$ of a bottle of wine	-	-	$\frac{1}{3}$ quart, do.

Other food in proportion.

The daily average expense for each, including medicines, &c., is 1 fr. 48 c., about 1 s. 2 $\frac{1}{4}$ *d.*

LYING-IN HOSPITAL.

The daily average expense for each inmate, including medicines, &c., is 1 fr. 85 c., about (1 s. 5 $\frac{3}{4}$ *d.*)

FOUNDLING HOSPITAL.

Inmates.

1 $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. bread, equal to about	-	-	26 oz. English.
3 oz. meat	-	-	3 $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. do.
$\frac{1}{3}$ of a bottle of wine	-	-	$\frac{1}{3}$ of a quart, do.

Fish, vegetables, &c. to the value of 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ centimes, (1 $\frac{1}{4}$ *d.*)Average expense per day for each, including medicines, &c., 80 centimes, about 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.*Daily average expense for those out at nurse, for each, 21 $\frac{1}{2}$ centimes, about 2 *d.*

DEPOT DE MENDICITE—(Workhouse.)

Sundays, Tuesdays and Thursdays.

1 lb. of bread, equal to about	-	-	17 oz. English.
1 lb. bread and meat soup	-	-	17 oz. do.
Meat and rice, to the value of 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ centimes,	$\frac{3}{4}$ <i>d.</i>		do.
Wine, to the value of 3 centimes	-	-	$\frac{1}{4}$ <i>d.</i> do.

Mondays, Wednesdays, Fridays and Saturdays.

1 lb. of bread, equal to about	-	-	17 oz. English.
2 lb. lard and vegetable soup	-	-	34 oz. do.
Wine to the value of 3 centimes, about	$\frac{1}{4}$ <i>d.</i>		do.

Average expense per day for each for food only, about 26 centimes, 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.*Average expense per day for each including food, other necessities, &c., about 51 centimes, nearly 5 *d.*

PRISONS.

The only food allowed to prisoners, without distinction, consists in,

1 $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. of bread, equal to about 26 oz. English.Bread and vegetable soup once a day, to the value of 11 centimes, about 1 *d.*The average expense per day for each, amounts to 37 $\frac{1}{4}$ centimes, about 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.*

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.

FRANCE.

Bordeaux.

RAPPORT fait à L'Assemblée Générale de la Société pour l'Extinction de la Mendicite,
dans la ville de Bordeaux.

Messieurs,

Séance du 29 Juin 1827.

CONFIANT dans les dispositions bienfaisantes des habitants de Bordeaux, je n'ai pas hésité à proposer l'exécution d'un plan qui avoit pour objet l'extinction de la mendicité. L'enfance, la vieillesse, tous les genres de maladies et d'infirmités, trouvoient dans des hospices dirigés avec les soins les plus éclairés et les plus soutenus, les secours qu'elles réclament. Un bureau de charité pourvoyoit aux besoins de cette portion de la société, si digne d'intérêt, que le malheur place entre de cruelles privations, et un sentiment de pudeur qui s'oppose à ce qu'elles soient révélées. Mais il restoit la classe, fort nombreuse en apparence, de ces êtres dégradés que l'habitude de la fainéantise, plus que des motifs réels, a poussés à la dernière misère, et conduits à baser sur la pitié publique, des moyens d'existence qu'ils n'avoient pas le courage de demander à une profession utile.

C'est cette tourbe d'individus entretenus dans l'oisiveté par l'aumône, dont il falloit utiliser les bras au profit de la société et au leur propre. C'est ce faste de mendicité, si je puis m'exprimer ainsi, permis, recommandé presque par l'esprit ingénieux de la charité chrétienne, qu'il s'agissoit d'attaquer. Je reconnus la nécessité, et j'étudiai les moyens de mettre un terme à un état de choses qui sembloit attirer sur l'administration le reproche de ne pas savoir donner une direction réfléchie aux ressources affectées sans discernement à cet objet.

On ne pouvoit douter qu'ici, comme partout, les sommes destinées aux pauvres ne fussent plus que suffisantes pour les soulager; mais une distribution mal entendue les prodiguoit à l'impudence, à la paresse importune, au détriment du malheur timide. Pour parvenir à réformer ces abus, on étoit obligé de porter atteinte, en apparence, au principe sacré de la charité; et c'est là qu'étoit la difficulté. On ne déracine pas plus aisément l'habitude de faire du bien, que celle d'en abuser. Il falloit donc ménager ceux qui donnent, non moins que ceux qui se font donner. Il falloit conserver aux uns leurs bonnes intentions et leur bienfaisance, tout en diminuant l'exigence et l'importunité des autres. Il falloit ajourner assez l'exécution du projet, pour que, dégagé de ce qui tendoit à ajouter à sa difficulté, et passé déjà, à l'aide d'un commencement de publicité, au creuset de l'opinion, ce projet pût paroître avec moins de défaveur; et cependant ne pas laisser à cette opinion, qui sembloit l'accueillir, le temps de céder à des influences contraires.

Je m'étois attaché à réduire graduellement le nombre des mendiants, en déployant une sévérité toujours croissante dans l'exécution des lois répressives de la mendicité. Les individus étrangers au département furent, les premiers, l'objet des mesures que j'avois prescrites. Renvoyés d'abord en liberté, puis sous l'escorte de la gendarmerie lorsqu'ils étoient repris, ils n'ont pas tardé à perdre l'habitude de venir lever une sorte de contribution sur un pays auquel ils n'appartenoient pas.

La même mesure fut ensuite appliquée aux mendiants des différents arrondissements qui composent le département. On éloigna ainsi de Bordeaux, point le plus recherché de cette classe d'individus, la presque totalité de ceux qui lui étoient étrangers; et bientôt il n'y resta que ceux que la ville avoit vu naître, ou à qui une résidence prolongée avoit donné une sorte d'*indigenat*. C'est seulement lorsque ce résultat fut obtenu, que je commençai l'exécution du plan que j'avois conçu.

Ma première démarche fut de consulter, et sur le fond et sur la forme, MM. les membres du bureau de charité, ceux de la commission des hospices, et quelques citoyens dont les dispositions m'étoient garanties par leurs habitudes de bienfaisance. Réunis en commission, ils voulurent bien m'aider des lumières que leur avoient procurées une étude persévérante du mal que je voulois détruire, et une longue et honorable pratique des moyens de le combattre. J'attendois beaucoup d'un tel concours: mes espérances furent dépassées; et le succès me parut assuré, lorsqu'au lieu de l'hésitation à laquelle il étoit naturel de s'attendre, je ne remarquai qu'un zèle disposé à surmonter tous les obstacles, une énergique volonté du bien, gage toujours certain de réussite, et cette résolution de ne tenir aucun compte des contrariétés, qui les domine et les fait même disparaître.

Si le mal est contagieux, le bien, dans certaines circonstances, ne l'est pas moins; celle dont il s'agit en fournit la preuve. A peine quelques idées vagues d'un établissement tendant à favoriser l'extinction de la mendicité à l'aide du travail qui seroit imposé aux mendiants, eurent-elles donné l'éveil à la charité, que les plus estimables citoyens sollicitèrent, comme une faveur, une part dans ce genre de bonne œuvre. Des offres d'argent, des offres non moins utiles de services, de conseils, de co-opération, me parvinrent de toutes parts. Ce fut de ce louable empressement que surgirent et un projet plus arrêté, et des idées plus mûries, et la création d'une société dont l'objet étoit de donner de la réalité à ce qui n'étoit encore qu'une pensée, et enfin l'organisation d'une commission, qui fut chargée d'imprimer une direction positive aux intentions charitables dont étoient animés les membres de la société générale*.

L'administration

* Cette commission, composée de sept membres, non compris le Préfet, président, Mgr. l'Archevêque et M. le Maire, présidents honoraires, fut choisie par la société générale, et investie de tous les pouvoirs qui lui étoient nécessaires pour atteindre le but que l'on se proposoit.

L'administration s'étoit assurée du nombre réel des individus dont on s'occupoit d'améliorer le sort. La liste en fut mise sous les yeux de la société. Ces mendiants, que l'on n'osoit énumérer, tant on craignoit d'en trouver la quantité hors de proportion avec les moyens de les secourir; ces mendiants, qui encombroient les avenues des édifices publics, et dont on étoit obsédé dans toutes les rues, dans toutes les promenades; ces mendiants patentés, que l'on ne devoit compter que par milliers, ne s'élevoient qu'à deux cent soixante-six. En portant leur nombre à trois cents, en admettant que, pour couvrir leurs dépenses journalières, on dût ajouter 50 cent. par individu au produit du travail que l'on en obtiendrait, on reconnut qu'une somme annuelle de 54,000 fr. seroit rigoureusement suffisante, et qu'en l'évaluant à 64,000 fr., on auroit la certitude de pourvoir à tous ses besoins (la dépense d'installation exceptée). La question ainsi simplifiée, sa solution ne fut plus douteuse, et on s'occupa de réaliser un projet dont le développement se présentait sous un aspect aussi favorable.

La commission arrêta qu'un appel seroit fait à la bienfaisance des habitants de Bordeaux, et qu'en même temps elle porteroit à leur connoissance le but qu'elle se proposoit d'atteindre, et les moyens qu'elle comptoit employer pour y parvenir. Un prospectus*, dans lequel on développoit les intentions de la société, fut publié; il produisit tout l'effet que l'on s'en étoit promis. De nombreuses, de riches souscriptions parvinrent à la commission, qui bientôt s'occupa d'organiser d'une manière plus régulière la réunion des offres qui étoient ou devoient être faites. Des commissaires, pris parmi les membres de la société générale, furent chargés de se présenter au domicile de chaque habitant, et de constater la somme pour laquelle il souscriroit. Les quartiers furent distribués, et en moins d'un mois, la souscription produisit une somme de 312,000 fr., acquittable en trois années†. Le recouvrement des sommes souscrites se fait par trimestre et par un procédé qui réunit le double avantage d'une grande économie dans les frais de perception, et d'une extrême simplicité dans la comptabilité.

Les premiers soins de la commission avoient été dirigés vers la rédaction d'un règlement destiné à devenir la base invariable de ses opérations‡. Elle se livra ensuite à la recherche d'un local propre à recevoir l'établissement. Un examen approfondi la détermina à fixer son choix sur un bâtiment situé en dehors, mais tout près des limites de la ville, dans une situation élevée, saine, et qui, au moyen de quelques changements et de quelques améliorations dans sa distribution, parut devoir offrir toutes les conditions désirables. La location en fut faite pour trois années et à des conditions assez avantageuses. On dut s'occuper immédiatement du soin de l'approprier à la destination qui lui étoit assignée. Des planchers furent construits, de manière à établir sur trois étages des salles de 27 mètres 50 centimètres de longueur, sur 9 mètres 72 centimètres de largeur et 3 mètres 30 centimètres de hauteur, dans lesquelles des croisées spacieuses et correspondant les unes aux autres, favorisent la circulation de l'air.

Le rez de chaussée, séparé dans le sens de sa longueur par une cloison, est destiné aux mendiants des deux sexes auxquels l'âge ou des infirmités rendroient impossible l'usage des étages supérieurs.

Le premier étage est affecté aux femmes et le second aux hommes valides. Deux cours distinctes, terminées par un double atelier, offrent aux individus des deux sexes des moyens de distraction et de travail, exempts d'inconvénients.

Quoique très-vaste, ce local, pour convenir à sa destination, commandoit une extrême économie dans la distribution des places. La commission a adopté un système de lits qui, relevés pendant le jour et appliqués les uns contre les autres, ont l'avantage de rendre disponible pour les repas et même pour le travail, une grande partie de l'espace qu'ils occupent pendant la nuit. C'est dans l'établissement, Messieurs, qu'il faut étudier ce que ce genre de lits présente de commode et de convenable sous une foule de rapports. Je crois devoir acquitter en cette circonstance, envers M. de Lagatinerie, commissaire de la marine à Bordeaux, l'un de vos collègues les plus zélés, le tribut de gratitude qu'inspire le service, qu'au milieu de beaucoup d'autres, il a rendu, en indiquant cette manière de coucher les mendiants§.

Les ressources dont votre commission peut disposer, dépasseront probablement les besoins auxquels elle devra faire face; mais l'étendue même de ces ressources, le généreux désintéressement avec lequel on les a offertes, entraînoient le devoir de les employer avec la plus grande réserve. Ce devoir a été rempli.

Le

* Voir la Pièce, No. 1.

† Voir le modèle de la souscription, Pièce, No. 2.

‡ Voir la Pièce, No. 3.

§ Ces lits, dont les fonds sont en corde, se composent d'un cadre de bois supportant une pailleasse, un traversin, deux draps et une couverture de laine. Ils procurent un coucher suffisamment doux et bien supérieur à celui dont les pauvres faisoient usage. Relevés le matin, dès que ceux qui les occupent les ont quittés, toutes les parties peuvent en être visitées et nettoyées; les matelas ou pailleasses sont remués et aérés, les planchers balayés, et rien de ce qui tient à la propreté ne sauroit échapper à l'examen des surveillants. (Voir la planche gravée.)

Appendix (F.)

Le personnel de l'administration soldée, se compose ainsi qu'il suit :

										f.	c.
Foreign Communications.	Directeur	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,400	-
	Inspecteur	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,200	-
FRANCE.	Deux commis	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,500	-
	Collecteur pour les souscriptions	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	400	-
Bordeaux.	Portier	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	200	-
	Cuisinière	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	150	-
	Surveillants	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	480	-
	Surveillantes	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	324	-
Total du Personnel - - - f.										6,654	-

Dépenses Annuelles Diverses.

										f.	c.
Loyers de la maison	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,500	-
Chauffage	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,500	-
Blanchissage	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,400	-
Eclairage	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,000	-
Pharmacie	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	700	-
Dépenses diverses	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,500	-
Tonnelier	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	120	-
Voitures pour conduire les malades à l'hôpital	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	120	-
Fonds pour dépenses imprévues	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	600	-
Frais d'inhumation	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	60	-
Frais de bureaux et impressions	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,500	-
Total pour les Dépenses Annuelles et Diverses - - -										12,000	-
Total Général - - - f.										18,654	-

Cette somme, répartie sur trois cents individus, fait ressortir le prix de la journée à 16 cent $\frac{1}{10}$.

Dépenses Générales à reporter sur Trois Années.

										f.	c.
Acquisition de lits complets	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	17,220	-
Vêtements d'hiver et d'été, que l'on suppose devoir durer trois ans	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	14,760	-
Appropriation du local	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	11,000	-
Chaudières pour la cuisine, et mobilier	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,500	-
Dépenses imprévues pour le mobilier	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	500	-
Total - - - f.										44,980	-

Le tiers de cette somme étant de 14,979 fr. 33 cent., il résulte que cette portion de la dépense fait remonter le prix de la journée à 13 cent. $\frac{2}{3}$.

Récapitulation.

										f.	c.
La dépense annuelle, répartie sur chaque individu, est, par jour, de	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	16 $\frac{1}{10}$
La dépense générale à porter sur les trois années, en l'attribuant à chaque individu, par jour, est de	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	13 $\frac{2}{3}$
Le prix de la nourriture étant de	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	26 $\frac{1}{2}$
La Journée sera donc de - - - f.										-	56 $\frac{1}{10}$

On fait observer que la dépense de la journée seroit bien moins considérable pour un plus grand nombre d'années, parce que l'acquisition des lits, et l'appropriation du local, qui s'élèvent à plus de 28,000 fr., ne devant pas se représenter, elle ne figureroit plus sur les dépenses à faire après la fin de la troisième année.

La dépense totale pour les trois cents pauvres seroit de 62,767 fr. 50 cent. par année.

Nous devons espérer que ce nombre de trois cents ne sera jamais dépassé. La commission a fait appeler devant elle les deux cent soixante-six individus qui jouissoient du triste privilège d'exercer la mendicité : elle les a interrogés sur leur origine, leur âge, leurs infirmités, la position de leurs familles, leurs besoins, leurs ressources ; et elle a consigné le résultat

resultat de son enquête sur des états synoptiques, qui permettent de se fixer rapidement sur ce qui concerne chaque individu. Quatre-vingt-six, qui ont été reconnus ne pas appartenir à la ville de Bordeaux, ont été renvoyés et dirigés sur les localités où ils avoient leur dernier domicile.

On a transigé avec quelques autres, que des infirmités trop graves auroient rendus à charge à l'établissement, ou que recommandoit une position spéciale. Un sacrifice équivalent à peu près à la part pour laquelle ils auroient figuré dans la dépense s'ils avoient habité le dépôt, a laissé dans leurs familles, mais sous la condition qu'ils ne mendieroient pas, 91 pauvres, parmi lesquels on compte 15 aveugles.

Le nombre des individus admis dans l'établissement est, de

Hommes	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100
Femmes	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	108
Enfants	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	—
TOTAL											208
Indigents secourus hors de l'établissement	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	91
TOTAL GENERAL des individus présents et secourus											299

Un respectable ecclésiastique a bien voulu se charger du service religieux, qui, au moyen de dispositions simples, sera exercé dans le grand atelier.

Les ministres des différents cultes seront appelés à la première demande que feront les indigents, et admis toutes les fois qu'ils jugeront convenable de se présenter.

Votre commission avoit formé le projet de confier les soins de l'administration intérieure à quelqu'un de ces ordres de pieuses filles, qui se vouent avec tant de zèle et de désintéressement au soulagement de l'humanité. Les conditions auxquelles étoit attachée la réalisation de ce désir, ne se sont pas trouvées en rapport avec les moyens dont elle pouvoit disposer et les règles qui la dirigent; et, quoiqu'avec peine, elle s'est vue dans la nécessité d'adopter d'autres mesures. Jusqu'à présent le succès est tel, qu'il ne lui reste d'autre regret que de devoir à d'autres qu'à ces anges de charité, l'amélioration du sort de la classe dont les intérêts l'occupent. Les secours religieux, les soins temporels, sont administrés avec une régularité un à-propos, qui, dès ce moment, ne laissent rien d'essentiel à désirer, et qui ne peuvent que se perfectionner, lorsque la pratique aura révélé les moyens de faire mieux.

Dix-sept médecins avoient offert leurs soins gratuits. Ces messieurs ont jugé que leur nombre pourroit nuire à la régularité du service, et ils ont résolu de le réduire à quatre; mais comme aucun d'eux ne vouloit renoncer à l'honorable prérogative à laquelle son dévouement lui donnoit des droits, c'est au sort que l'on a confié le soin de désigner ceux qui seroient chargés d'acquitter la dette de tous. Le hasard qui, dans cette circonstance, ne pouvoit amener que des choix heureux, a désigné MM. Grateloup, Caussade, Bancal et Boucher de Vitray. Avant de se séparer, MM. les médecins ont arrêté les bases d'un travail rempli des vues les plus élevées, sur les moyens qu'il convient d'employer pour entretenir la santé des individus que renferme l'établissement. Je saisis l'occasion qui se présente, de leur offrir l'expression de la gratitude qu'inspire à la commission le zèle dont ils ont donné des preuves.

Des marchés passés avec des fournisseurs, par voie de soumissions cachetées, ont produit une grande économie dans les diverses dépenses auxquelles on avoit à pourvoir.

Un lit complet, garni d'une paillasse, un traversin, deux paires de draps, une couverture, coûte	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	fr. c.
Un habit complet pour homme	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	57 40
Un - idem - pour femme	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	31 5
										18 15
Le pain	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	19 ^c le kilo.
Le viande	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	48 idem
Le vin	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	14 le litr.
Un portion de nourriture	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	26 $\frac{1}{2}$

La nourriture de chaque individu devoit se composer de vingt-quatre onces de pain et vingt-quatre onces d'une soupe faite avec du riz, du pain, des légumes secs ou frais, de la graisse ou du beurre.

Il a été reconnu que cette quantité excédoit les besoins; elle a été réduite d'un tiers; et l'économie qui en résulte a été convertie en une distribution d'un quart de litre de vin par jour, et d'un sixième de kilogramme de viande trois fois par semaine. Ainsi réglée, la ration complète coûte 26 cent. $\frac{1}{2}$.

La commission a cru devoir autoriser le directeur à suppléer, par une distribution particulière de pain, à l'insuffisance de la ration, lorsque la nécessité lui en seroit démontrée. Cette faculté, connue des pauvres, paroît les satisfaire, et un très-petit nombre d'entr'eux en a usé.

La commission doit à la société générale qui l'a investie de sa confiance, elle se doit à elle-même de rendre un compte détaillé de l'emploi des sommes mises à sa disposition. Chaque année, dans le courant du mois de Février, ce compte vous sera soumis, et il sera imprimé. Sa publicité préviendra une sorte de *laissé aller*, une trop grande disposition à un excès de confiance, qui ne seroient pas sans inconvénients.

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Le travail des pauvres, borné jusqu'à ce moment à la conversion des vieux cordages en étoupes destinées au calfatage des navires, a produit une somme bien faible ; mais que l'on a l'espoir de voir s'accroître par suite de l'habitude de ce genre de travail, que contracteront des ouvriers qui lui étoient étrangers comme à quelque occupation que ce fût.

La commission cherche, en outre, à établir d'autres branches d'industrie, telles que la filature du chanvre, de la laine et du lin, le tissage d'étoffes communes, la fabrication de filets de pêche, de paniers, etc. ; mais elle ne se dissimule pas que le produit en sera toujours fort restreint. Qu'attendre, en effet, de ces bras la plupart octogénaires, surtout lorsque l'on songe qu'engourdis par la fainéantise, ils ne se sont guère exercés qu'à s'étendre, pour provoquer et recevoir des aumônes ? Il faut donc des travaux bien simples, qui n'exigent ni pratique antérieure, ni réflexion, ni combinaison d'idées, ni emploi de forces. Or, de tels travaux seront peu lucratifs ; mais il n'est pas moins nécessaire, indispensable même d'en établir et d'en faire une obligation.

Les pauvres les plus valides seront employés à la réparation des chemins, et au balayage des rues, pour lequel la commission se propose de traiter, soit avec l'administration municipale, soit avec les particuliers.

Le bienfait auquel vous avez concouru, Messieurs, par des sacrifices de tous genres et par votre exemple, ne peut être bien apprécié qu'en comparant la situation passée des infortunés qui ont été l'objet de votre sollicitude, avec leur situation présente. Pour la faire cette comparaison, c'est dans les habitations malsaines, où ils languissoient en proie à toutes les souffrances, rongés par tous les genres d'insectes, respirant un air infecté par la malpropreté la plus dégoûtante ; c'est dans ces lieux, où plusieurs d'entre vous, et notamment votre honorable vice-président, ont été étudier la misère dans ce qu'elle a d'idéal, si je puis m'exprimer ainsi ; c'est là, dis-je, qu'il falloit avoir le courage de se transporter pour connaître dans toute son étendue et dans ses affligeants détails l'affreuse existence à laquelle ces malheureux étoient condamnés ; c'est là qu'on les trouvoit entassés par bandes de quatre, de six, de huit, dans des espèces de huttes toute au rez de chaussée, toutes sans autre plancher qu'une terre humide, toutes au-dessous d'un sol que le dépôt sans cesse renouvelé des plus sales immondices, tendoit à élever au-dessus du seuil de ces misérables demeures ; c'est là qu'ils se partageoient, que souvent ils se disputoient un grabat à peine recouvert d'une paille rarement renouvelée ; c'est là que, passant de l'excès de la profusion à celui de la privation, selon que les circonstances avoient bien ou mal servi leur déplorable industrie, ils dissipoient sans prévoyance le produit d'un gain obtenu sans travail, ou qu'ils souffroient toutes les angoisses du besoin présent et des craintes de l'avenir. Tels sont les êtres que votre bienfaisance a secourus. Comparez les tristes habitations d'où vous les avez tirés, à l'asile que votre charité leur ouvre ; voyez-les dégagés des haillons empestés qui les couvroient à peine ; soumis, à leur entrée dans l'établissement, à des mesures de propreté, condition première d'une bonne hygiène ; vêtus d'habits convenables ; assurés d'une nourriture saine, abondante, appropriée à leur âge ; trouvant dans le salaire du travail modéré dont on leur impose l'obligation, les moyens de satisfaire à quelques besoins que vous n'avez pas dû comprendre dans ceux auxquels vous vous êtes engagés à pourvoir, à quelques fantaisies mêmes que leur date reculée a élevées au rang des nécessités ; et dites si ces pauvres, objet de votre pieux intérêt, ne sont pas plus heureux qu'ils n'étoient ; dites si les sacrifices que vous avez provoqués, si ceux que vous vous êtes imposés, n'ont pas eu le résultat qui vous étoit promis ; et après avoir comparé ces sacrifices avec ceux que vous arrachoit l'importunité des mendiants, dites si, en ne tenant pas compte du bien que vous avez fait, il ne résulte pas quelque économie du nouveau mode d'aumône que vous avez adopté.

Ainsi, Messieurs, vous avez résolu ce problème de l'extinction de la mendicité, qui se présente, à la pensée du grand nombre, entouré de difficultés telles que l'on en considéroit la recherche comme une sorte d'amusement de l'esprit, mais non comme un objet dont on pût sérieusement s'occuper. La plus grande de ces difficultés consistait à réunir un nombre suffisant de citoyens animés de la volonté ferme et persévérante d'atteindre le but qui leur étoit proposé. Ces citoyens, et, je dois le proclamer à la gloire de cette ville généreuse, ces citoyens se sont présentés dans toutes les classes, dans toutes les religions, dans tous les quartiers. Le choix des membres de votre commission n'a été le résultat d'aucune combinaison ; et ces membres justifient par un zèle qui se retrouve dans tous les moments, qui s'applique à toutes les circonstances, la confiance que vous leur avez accordée. Ils ne m'en voudront pas, Messieurs, si, parmi eux, je cite d'une manière plus spéciale M. le marquis de Bryas, vice-président, qui, chargé des nombreux et pénibles détails de la formation de l'établissement, a consacré ses soins avec une ardeur, une assiduité, un dévouement auxquels nous reconnaissons tous qu'appartient la plus grande part du succès que nous avons obtenu.

D'importants travaux avoient classé M. Durand parmi les architectes les plus distingués de Bordeaux : les soins assidus et désintéressés qu'il a donnés aux minutieuses réparations du local destiné au dépôt, le rangent parmi les citoyens qui ont le plus activement favorisé le succès de vos soins.

M. Maillères, dont le nom s'associe à presque toutes les administrations de bienfaisance de Bordeaux, a réuni ses efforts à ceux de son digne collègue, et, comme lui, il a les droits les mieux acquis à notre gratitude.

M. Sarget, dans les fonctions d'ordonnateur général ; MM. Journu, Portal, Fabre et Blanc-Dutrouilh, ont donné et donnent constamment des preuves d'un zèle souvent invoqué et toujours empressé de répondre à l'appel qui lui est fait.

L'administration intérieure de l'établissement est dirigée avec autant de talent que de douceur et de fermeté par M. Auguste, et la répression de la mendicité à l'extérieur est confiée au

au sieur Fernandez, qui justifie, par son activité, le choix qui a été fait de lui pour les fonctions d'inspecteur.

J'ai dû signaler, Messieurs, ceux d'entre vous qui se sont plus particulièrement distingués par les services qu'ils ont rendus : mais leurs efforts eussent été sans résultat, si les membres de la Société générale, les commissaires chargés de recueillir des souscriptions, et la presque totalité des habitants de Bordeaux, n'avoient, par leur empressement à favoriser la réalisation de vos vues, fait disparaître jusqu'aux moindres difficultés. L'exemple devoit être et a été donné par l'honorable magistrat à qui est confié le soin d'administrer notre ville. Son éloge étant dans le bien qu'il fait ou qu'il encourage, je me bornerai à dire qu'il a obéi à la noble impulsion de son cœur et à son habitude la plus familière, en aidant de son concours l'exécution des mesures proposées par la commission.

Vous vous étonnez, Messieurs, de n'avoir pas encore entendu citer le nom du prélat que la Providence du monde, que celle de la France ont appelé parmi nous : mais ce nom ne se place-t-il pas de droit là où se fait une bonne œuvre ? Mgr. l'Archevêque ne devoit-il pas présider à une solennité qui a pour objet d'ouvrir et de consacrer un asile à l'indigence ?

Il est au milieu de vous, Messieurs ; il y est, entouré d'infortunés, son cortège de prédilection, seule pompe qui soit digne de lui, la seule aussi que ne condamne pas la religion consolante, dans laquelle son éloquence puise de saintes inspirations, et sa vertu d'innombrables bienfaits ; il y est, et sa bénédiction va donner un caractère sacré au bien opéré par votre zèle, en descendant à la fois sur vous et sur le malheur que vous avez noblement secouru.

Ma tâche est remplie, Messieurs ; je vous ai rendu compte du bien que vous avez fait, et des moyens employés pour l'obtenir ; je vous ai signalé les citoyens auxquels vous êtes principalement redevables du succès de vos efforts et de vos sacrifices. Désormais votre ville aura la gloire, encore unique en France, d'être délivrée du spectacle affligeant de ces malheureux, dont toute l'industrie consiste à étaler et à exagérer ce que l'aspect de la misère a de plus hideux et de plus révoltant ; et cette gloire, elle en jouira avec d'autant plus de confiance, qu'elle aura la certitude que la classe objet de vos soins charitables sait apprécier dans toute son étendue le bienfait qu'elle doit à votre généreuse sollicitude.

APPENDICE.

No. 1.—SOCIÉTÉ pour l'extinction de la Mendicité dans le Département de la Gironde.

PLUSIEURS citoyens, animés du désir de faire disparaître de Bordeaux ces bandes de mendiants qui encombrant les rues et les abords des principaux lieux publics, se sont, de l'aveu et avec le concours des premiers magistrats du département et de la ville, livrés à la recherche des moyens d'atteindre le but qu'ils se proposent. Ils ont arrêté qu'un appel seroit fait à la bienfaisance des habitants de Bordeaux, dans la vue de former un établissement destiné à procurer aux mendiants du travail et toutes les ressources nécessaires à leur existence.

L'établissement que l'on a le projet de former n'a aucune analogie avec les dépôts de mendicité, abandonnés peu d'années après leur création, et que l'action unique d'une autorité absolue dirigeoit, sans égard pour les garanties de la liberté individuelle. Dans l'institution proposée, cet ordre de choses, incompatible avec les lois paternelles qui régissent la France, est écarté. Un asile sera ouvert à l'indigence ; du travail lui sera offert ; mais nulle contrainte ne sera exercée à l'égard des individus auxquels ce double genre de secours est destiné.

L'autorité administrative a contracté l'engagement d'user du droit qu'elle a de faire cesser la mendicité, le jour où des moyens convenables d'existence seront offerts aux mendiants valides ou invalides, en échange de la honteuse industrie qu'ils exercent. Cette condition sera remplie par la création d'un établissement où chaque sexe, chaque âge, chaque infirmité même, trouveront un travail approprié à leurs facultés et à leur aptitude, et une nourriture saine et abondante, qui sera distribuée au prix rigoureusement nécessaire pour en couvrir la valeur.

Des mesures seront prises pour qu'il soit pourvu aux besoins que le produit du travail ne pourroit satisfaire.

Ainsi, la classe des mendiants verra son sort amélioré par une institution qui délivrera la société de la pénible alternative, ou de laisser sans secours des pauvres vraiment dignes de compassion, ou de répandre, sans discernement, des aumônes, arrachées par l'importunité, et rarement accordées au malheur réel.

On ne peut nier que, dans l'état actuel des choses, les mendiants vivent ; que quelques-uns même vivent dans une sorte de profusion ; que tous vivent dans l'oisiveté ; qu'en leur continuant les aumônes qu'on leur fait, qu'en réglant l'emploi de ces aumônes, qu'en faisant du travail une condition obligée des secours, on aura des ressources équivalentes aux besoins ; on en fera une répartition plus égale ; on économisera, au profit des pauvres, le temps qu'ils ne comptent pour rien ; que sans ajouter aux sacrifices, on les ramènera à la pratique et à l'esprit de la religion, sans laquelle il n'existe pas de morale, et à des habitudes plus conformes aux intérêts de la société et aux leurs propres ; que conséquemment tout se réunit pour porter jusqu'à l'évidence les avantages que promet une institution dont le but est l'extinction de la mendicité. Mais ces avantages ne peuvent être obtenus qu'au prix d'avances assez considérables, puisqu'il s'agit de pourvoir à la dépense de création de l'établissement et à celle d'entretien des mendiants. C'est de la bienfaisance naturelle aux habitants de Bordeaux, que l'on attend les ressources nécessaires. On a la certitude que chaque famille, chaque individu, s'empresseront de remettre à une société dont la composition mérite quelque confiance, les sommes consacrées à ces œuvres de bienfaisance qu'excite et détermine l'aspect d'un malheureux ; que les habitants aisés ajouteront à ces sommes un excédant destiné à couvrir les premières dépenses, et qu'il résultera de ces libéralités une somme suffisante pour faire face à tous les frais.

Afin de donner aux personnes qui dirigeront leur charité vers ce genre de bonne œuvre, la garantie ou que le but indiqué sera atteint, ou que l'engagement contracté cessera d'exister, les sommes

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souscrites annuellement ne seront perçues que par quart, et avec la condition que le recouvrement n'en sera pas opéré, *si la mendicité n'est pas réprimée dans son sens le plus absolu.*

La société pour l'extinction de la mendicité s'adresse donc avec confiance aux habitants de Bordeaux, et elle espère qu'ils n'hésiteront pas à lui fournir les moyens qui lui sont indispensables pour réaliser une institution réclamée par l'intérêt général. En conséquence elle arrête ce qui suit :

1°. Une maison de travail et de secours pour les mendiants sera établie à Bordeaux. A cet effet, un local sera loué au nom et pour le compte de la société.

2°. Les mendiants trouveront dans cette maison un travail approprié à leur aptitude et une nourriture saine.

3°. Le prix de la nourriture sera prélevé sur le salaire du travail de chaque individu.

4°. En cas d'insuffisance ou de nullité du travail, il sera pourvu par la société aux besoins de tous genres en nourriture, habillement, logement, etc., que le produit du travail n'aurait pu couvrir.

5°. L'établissement sera disposé de manière à recevoir trois cents mendiants, nombre supérieur à celui que, d'après des données officielles, présente en ce moment la ville Bordeaux.

Dans le cas où, par des circonstances extraordinaires, ce nombre viendrait à s'accroître, la société se réserve la faculté de pourvoir à leur entretien actuel, autant que ses moyens lui permettront de le faire.

6°. Afin de pourvoir à la dépense que l'établissement entraînera, il sera ouvert une souscription à laquelle les citoyens de toutes les classes seront invités à participer.

L'établissement étant formé pour une durée de trois années, il est à désirer que les souscriptions concordent avec cette période de temps ; néanmoins les souscripteurs auront la faculté de ne souscrire que pour une ou deux années.

7°. La souscription ne sera obligatoire ni pour les héritiers des souscripteurs, ni pour les souscripteurs qui cesseroient d'habiter Bordeaux, ni pour ceux que des causes valables forceroient à renoncer à l'exécution de leurs engagements.

8°. Le produit de la souscription sera recueilli par des membres de la société.

9°. Le compte des recettes et des dépenses sera imprimé et publié chaque année.

10°. Le montant annuel sera perçu par quart, et la perception n'aura lieu que dans l'hypothèse où elle s'élèverait assez pour couvrir la dépense de création et d'entretien de l'établissement. Elle cessera de droit, si le but que l'on se propose n'est pas atteint.

No. 2.—SOUSCRIPTION pour l'Extinction de la Mendicité à Bordeaux.

AFIN de pourvoir à la création d'un établissement destiné à procurer aux mendiants du travail et tous les genres de secours que réclamera leur position, je déclare m'engager à acquitter annuellement, pendant _____ années de suite, la somme de _____ dont la perception devra avoir lieu par quart, et de trois mois en trois mois.

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No. 3.—SOCIÉTÉ pour l'Extinction de la Mendicité dans Bordeaux.

STATUTS ET RÈGLEMENTS GÉNÉRAUX.

L'OBJET que se propose la Société pour l'extinction de la Mendicité, est de supprimer la mendicité dans la ville de Bordeaux, en procurant du travail et des secours aux mendiants de la ville actuellement existants et aux individus natifs de Bordeaux, ou qui du moins y ont acquis un domicile légal, auxquels le malheur de leur situation ne laisserait à l'avenir aucun autre moyen d'existence que la mendicité.

TITRE PREMIER.

Art. 1. Pour atteindre ce but, il sera formé un établissement suffisant pour servir d'atelier de travail et de maison de refuge à trois cents individus, nombre que des documents officiels démontrent être supérieur au nombre habituel des mendiants à Bordeaux. Les sexes y seront séparés. Les enfants mâles au-dessous de sept ans seront placés dans le local des femmes.

Art. 2. Il sera également pourvu par la Société, dans la maison de travail ou dans des locaux aussi rapprochés que possible, au logement des mendiants.

Art. 3. Les mendiants qui auroient une famille résidant à Bordeaux, ou un domicile fixe et connu où ils pourroient continuer à loger, pourront être autorisés à se retirer dans leur domicile ; dans ce cas, il leur sera alloué une indemnité.

Art. 4. La Société pourvoira à la nourriture, et, autant que de besoin, à l'habillement des mendiants.

Art. 5. La nourriture sera saine et suffisante ; un règlement particulier fixera de quoi elle se composera chacun des jours de la semaine, pour les individus en état de santé et pour ceux en état d'infirmité. On prendra pour base de cette fixation, les expériences faites dans les maisons de dépôt nationales et étrangères.

Art. 6. La maison de travail et de refuge n'étant pas un hôpital, et ne devant jamais le devenir, des mesures seront prises avec MM. les Administrateurs des hôpitaux existants, pour que les individus dépendant de l'établissement que seroient admis malades, ou qui le deviendroient, reçoivent dans les hôpitaux les secours et les soins que réclame leur état.

Art. 7. Le travail des individus capables d'une occupation quelconque, proportionnée à leur âge, à leur sexe et à leur force, est considéré comme condition essentielle des secours accordés. Ce travail sera rétribué suivant sa valeur ; il donnera lieu à un salaire. Le mendiant aura droit à la moitié de ce salaire ; le décompte en sera arrêté chaque semaine ; l'autre moitié sera retenue au profit de l'établissement, comme indemnité des frais de nourriture, etc.

Art. 8. Tout mendiant qui sera reconnu impropre au travail, recevra, indépendamment de la nourriture, une indemnité en argent qui sera ultérieurement déterminée.

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Art. 9. Des récompenses seront accordées, chaque semaine, à celui des travailleurs qui se sera distingué par son activité dans son travail et sa bonne conduite.

Art. 10. L'individu valide qui refuseroit le travail pendant plus de quinze jours, sera chassé de la maison.

Art. 11. Les peines déterminées par les lois seront provoquées contre les individus qui trouble- roient l'ordre dans l'établissement, ou s'y rendroient coupables de quelques délits.

Art. 12. Les mendiants devront représenter, à la première injonction qui leur en sera faite, les vêtements, les objets de travail, les outils et les différents effets qui leur auront été confiés.

Art. 13. Dans le cas d'impossibilité de leur part de les représenter, ils seront exclus de la maison, sans préjudice de l'action réservée contr'eux, comme coupables de détournement d'effets.

Art. 14. Toutes les fournitures relatives à l'établissement seront faites par voie d'adjudication ; néanmoins, après délibération de la commission administrative, prise sur le rapport d'un de ses mem- bres, à la majorité des voix, et démontrant l'avantage qui en résulteroit pour l'établissement, les fournitures pourront être faites *par économie*. Une délibération spéciale devra avoir lieu pour cha- cun des articles à fournir par cette dernière méthode.

Art. 15. L'établissement sera placé sous la surveillance d'une commission administrative.

Art. 16. Il sera immédiatement dirigé par un employé ayant le titre de *Directeur*.

Art. 17. Les mendiants du culte catholique assisteront les dimanches et les fêtes au service divin, dans une chapelle qui sera construite à cet effet. Les secours et les consolations de la religion leur seront administrés par un aumônier.

Art. 18. Les individus des autres cultes seront assistés par leurs ministres respectifs, qui seront appelés d'office, ou admis sur la demande qu'ils en formeront. Ils seront conduits aux jours de fêtes dans les temples des cultes auxquels ils seront attachés.

Art. 19. Il sera pourvu à l'éducation des enfants des mendiants par des moyens qui seront ulté- rieurement déterminés.

TITRE II. *Comptabilité.*

Art. 20. Le mode des écritures pour la comptabilité sera réglé par la commission adminis- trative.

Art. 21. Les recettes et les paiements se feront par un directeur-trésorier, qui sera chargé égale- ment de surveiller l'ensemble et les détails de l'établissement, de défendre ses intérêts, d'y maintenir l'ordre et de proposer les dépenses à la commission administrative.

Art. 22. Les dépenses ne seront acquittées que sur l'ordonnance qui en sera faite par un des mem- bres de la commission, qui aura le titre d'*Ordonnateur Général*.

Art. 23. Le directeur-trésorier devra fournir un cautionnement de 3,000 fr., soit en immeubles, soit en argent, ou en rentes cinq pour cent consolidés, soit enfin par la garantie qu'il présenteroit d'un capitaliste ou propriétaire agréé par la commission.

Art. 24. Les fonds touchés par le trésorier devront être versés, au fur et à mesure de leur recou- vrement, dans la caisse de la banque, à l'exception d'une somme destinée à pourvoir aux besoins courants, et dont la quotité sera déterminée par la commission.

Art. 25. Afin d'assurer d'une manière positive l'exécution des mesures qui seront prises pour la répression de la mendicité, il sera établi un agent qui, indépendamment de la surveillance générale que M. le Maire sera invité à faire exercer par tous les officiers de police de la ville, sera spéciale- ment chargé de cette branche de police. M. le Maire sera invité de lui conférer le titre d'*Agent de Police*.

Art. 26. Le traitement de cet agent sera à la charge de la Société.

Art. 27. Toutes les fonctions administratives de l'établissement, autres que celles du directeur- trésorier, de l'inspecteur et de leurs subordonnés, sont essentiellement gratuites.

Art. 28. Les traitements seront fixés ultérieurement par la commission.

Art. 29. L'excédant des recettes sur les dépenses formera une réserve destinée à la dotation de l'établissement.

TITRE III. *Mode d'Admission.*

Art. 30. Seront admis dans l'établissement, les individus qui sont actuellement porteurs d'une autorisation de M. le Maire pour mendier.

Art. 31. A l'avenir, pour être admis, les mendiants produiront les pièces suivantes :

1°. Un certificat de M. le Maire, constatant l'état d'indigence absolue, la profession habituelle et le degré de moralité de l'individu ;

2°. Son acte de naissance ;

3°. Un autre certificat constatant, s'il n'est pas natif de Bordeaux, son domicile légal dans la ville ;

4°. Une attestation des curés ou ministres dans les paroisses desquels il a résidé.

Art. 32. La commission aura, nonobstant la présentation de ces pièces, la faculté de refuser l'admission, soit d'après les documents sur les moyens d'existence du réclamant, qui lui auront été fournis par les membres de la Société, soit d'après la situation de l'établissement. Cette faculté ne pourra néanmoins être exercée qu'avec la forme suivante :

Quatre voix sur neuf, ou trois voix sur sept, suffiront pour l'admission ; il faudra six voix sur neuf, ou cinq voix sur sept, pour le rejet.

Art. 33. L'établissement, formé d'après les bases ci-dessus posées, remplissant les conditions d'établissement public organisé afin d'obvier à la mendicité, l'application des peines prescrites par l'art. 274 du code pénal, pourra être réclamée contre les individus mendiant dans le territoire de la commune, et dès-lors il sera permis d'espérer que l'on ne rencontrera plus à Bordeaux de pauvres demandant l'aumône.

Art. 34. Les moyens d'exécution seront fournis, 1° par les souscriptions volontaires des socié- taires ; 2° par la retenue sur le salaire du travail effectué dans les ateliers.

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TITRE IV. *Conseil Général de la Société.*

Art. 35. La Société pour la répression de la Mendicité, se compose de tous les souscripteurs qui ont fourni ou qui fourniront des fonds pour l'entretien du dépôt de mendicité.

Art. 36. La Société se réunit en conseil général, composé de cent de ses membres, le 1^{er} Mai et le 1^{er} Decembre de chaque année.

Art. 37. Sont membres de ce conseil, les fondateurs de la Société, ceux des premiers souscripteurs qui auront efficacement concouru à recueillir les souscriptions; enfin, les souscripteurs qui auront donné les plus fortes sommes, sans que cependant le nombre total du conseil général puisse, dans aucun cas, excéder celui de cent.

Art. 38. En cas de démission ou de décès, ils seront remplacés par ceux des membres de la Société qui auront souscrit pour les plus fortes sommes.

Art. 39. M. le Préfet est président; Mgr. l'Archevêque et M. le Maire de Bordeaux sont présidents honoraires, de droit, du conseil général.

Art. 40. Le conseil général pourra être convoqué extraordinairement par M. le président, toutes les fois que les circonstances paroîtront l'exiger.

Art. 41. Dans sa réunion du mois de Février, le conseil général entend les comptes qui lui sont rendus au nom de la commission administrative. Ces comptes seront de deux sortes: 1°. compte moral de l'établissement; 2°. compte de recette et de dépense.

Ces comptes seront rendus publics.

TITRE V. *Commission Administrative.*

Art. 42. La commission administrative se compose de Mgr. l'Archevêque de Bordeaux, de M. le Préfet et de M. le Maire, qui en sont les présidents, et de sept autres membres élus par le conseil général.

Art. 43. Les fonctions de membres de la commission dureront sept ans; ils seront renouvelés par septième chaque année.

Art. 44. Le membre sortant sera indiqué par le sort les premières années, ensuite par rang d'ancienneté; il sera remplacé par les membres restants.

Art. 45. Les membres de la commission sont rééligibles.

Art. 46. La commission nomme parmi ses membres, à la pluralité absolue, un vice-président et un secrétaire. Le bureau se renouvellera chaque année.

Art. 47. La commission se réunit de droit, et sans qu'il soit besoin de convocation, le vendredi de chaque semaine, à deux heures après-midi; elle peut être réunie extraordinairement, sur la convocation de l'un de ses présidents ou de son vice-président.

Art. 48. Un des membres de la commission administrative est de service, chaque semaine, pour la surveillance de l'établissement.

Art. 49. Le tour de service des membres de la commission sera, pour la première fois, déterminé par le sort.

Art. 50. La commission administrative arrêtera les règlements intérieurs nécessaires pour la discipline de l'établissement; elle passera tous les marchés tant pour l'appropriation de son local, que pour l'achat de l'ameublement, des matières premières et des outils, et pour la nourriture, le vestiaire et la literie des mendiants; elle pourvoira à la vente des objets confectionnés dans les ateliers; enfin, elle exercera, relativement au dépôt de mendicité, les mêmes attributions que la commission administrative des hospices exerce sur les maisons confiées à ses soins.

Art. 51. La commission administrative pourra apporter aux présents statuts et règlement toutes les modifications dont l'expérience lui auroit fait connoître la nécessité.

Art. 52. Les délibérations de la commission administrative seront inscrites sur un registre, et signées par le président et par le secrétaire.

Art. 53. Le secrétaire certifiera la conformité des extraits des délibérations.

Fait et arrêté en séance, le

1827.

Les Membres de l'Assemblée Générale.

B^{on} d'Haussez, préfet, président; V^{te} du Hamel, maire: Andrade; Balguerie aîné; Baour; Barennès; Bazanac; Berreterot, curé de Saint-Louis; Blanc-Dutrouilh aîné; Bonnaffé fils; Brown fils (David); Brun, négociant; M^{is} de Bryas; Cabarrus; Croneau; Desfourniel; Desmirail; Didier-Béchade; Dudevant fils (L^a); Dussumier-Latour; Fabre (Louis); Feuilhade de Chauvin; Galos; Gautier fils; Gradis; Guestier junior: Johnston (D^d) Johnston (Nathaniel); Journu; Leblond, président du tribunal de commerce; Lucadou; De Mallet, conseiller à la cour royale; Martin, pasteur; Pelletreau; Pettersen; Pichon-Longueville; De Pontet; Portal; Raba (Elisée); Ravez fils; De Saget; Sarget; Toucas de Poyen; V^{te} de Verthamon; Vonhemert; Maillères, secrétaire.

No. 4.—DEPOT DE MENDICITE.

Règlement Intérieur.

A six heures du matin, le son de la cloche annoncera le lever des pauvres; les salles seront balayées et les lits relevés.

A six heures et demie, la prière.

A six heures trois quarts, le pain sera distribué.

A sept heures, les pauvres entreront dans les ateliers de travail.

A dix heures, on distribuera la première soupe et la ration de vin.

A onze heures, les pauvres rentreront dans les ateliers.

A cinq heures du soir, on distribuera la seconde soupe.

A sept heures, la prière.

A sept

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A sept heures et demie, l'arrangement des lits.

A huit heures, le coucher.

Le pauvre, malade, attendra au pied de son lit la visite du médecin.

M. le directeur accompagnera le médecin, ainsi que le chirurgien chargé des pansements, et les deux pauvres chargées de préparer les tisanes.

Le directeur veillera à ce que les prescriptions ordonnées par M. le médecin de service soient exécutées.

Le directeur assistera à toutes les distributions.

Les pauvres ne pourront se coucher pendant le jour, si le médecin ne l'a point prescrit.

Il est expressément défendu de fumer dans les salles ou dans les ateliers.

Les surveillants seront responsables de l'exécution du règlement: ils prendront en compte les effets mobiliers qui se trouveront placés dans leurs salles respectives, et en rendront compte au directeur.

Dans chaque salle, on désignera, à tour de rôle, des pauvres qui seront chargés de balayer l'établissement.

Les chemises seront changées tous les samedis matin.

Les draps de lit, tous les mois.

Les paillasses seront lavées et remplies lorsque le besoin l'exigera.

Les couvertures de laine, les draps de lit, seront mis à l'air et battus chaque semaine.

Le service du perruquier commencera le vendredi, et sera terminé le samedi, avant quatre heures.

M. le directeur accordera des permissions de sortie aux pauvres de l'établissement; elles seront demandées la veille, et délivrées après la distribution du pain. Dans tous les cas, ils devront être rentrés au dépôt avant trois heures du soir.

Le même pauvre ne pourra obtenir plus de deux permissions par mois.

Aucun individu ou employé ne pourra entrer dans la cuisine sans l'ordre du directeur.

MM. les employés des bureaux devront être rendus au dépôt à huit heures du matin l'été, et à neuf heures pendant l'hiver.

A tour de rôle, un employé restera au bureau jusqu'à sept heures du soir. Le dimanche, un employé sera de service à l'établissement jusqu'à cinq heures du soir.

Le portier, dans aucun cas, ne pourra s'absenter de sa loge; il inscrira sur son livre tout ce qui entrera et sortira de l'établissement.

Le directeur est spécialement chargé et responsable de l'exécution du règlement.

Un extrait en sera délivré à tous les employés du dépôt de mendicité.

La commission a décidé que les dimanches et fêtes le dépôt de mendicité seroit fermé, et que le public n'en auroit pas l'entrée.

Le présent règlement a été approuvé par délibération de la commission administrative.

MAIRE DE LA VILLE DE BORDEAUX.

No. 5.—EXTRAIT du Registre des Arrêtés du Maire de la Ville de Bordeaux.

Du 11 Avril 1827.

LE Maire de la ville de Bordeaux, officier de l'ordre royal de la légion d'honneur, gentilhomme de la chambre du roi,

Vu l'avis qui lui a été donné, qu'une Société se proposoit de former un établissement destiné à obvier à la mendicité dans la ville de Bordeaux;

Vu un autre avis portant que cette Société a réuni, au moyen d'une souscription, une somme suffisante pour assurer pendant trois années des secours en travail, nourriture, vêtements et logement, à trois cents pauvres, nombre auquel peut être approximativement évalué celui des mendiants; qu'un local destiné à les recevoir a été loué et approprié à cet usage; qu'enfin, les mendiants pourront y être admis le 1^{er} Mai;

Vu les statuts et règlements adoptés par la Société, soit pour l'administration et l'emploi des fonds qui lui sont confiés, soit pour la police intérieure de l'établissement et le régime auquel les pauvres seront assujettis;

Vu l'art. 274 du code pénal, ainsi conçu :

"Toute personne qui aura été trouvée mendiant dans un lieu pour lequel il existe un établissement public organisé afin d'obvier à la mendicité, sera punie de trois à six mois d'emprisonnement, et sera, après l'expiration de sa peine, conduite au dépôt de mendicité;"

Considérant qu'au moyen de l'établissement projeté, les conditions établies par l'article ci-dessus cité seront remplies, et que conséquemment les individus qui se permettroient de mendier, seront passibles des peines portées audit article;

Considérant que les mesures qui sont prises, assurent aux indigents un sort infiniment préférable à celui que leur procurent les moyens précaires auxquels ils doivent leur existence actuelle;

Considérant, en outre, que le zèle bien connu et le caractère des membres de la Société pour l'extinction de la mendicité, offrent toutes les garanties désirables sous le rapport de la bonne administration et de la continuité des secours;

Arrête :

Art. 1. L'établissement formé aux frais et par les soins d'une réunion de citoyens, sera, quoique régi par une commission choisie par eux, assimilé aux établissements municipaux, et considéré comme dépôt de mendicité.

Art. 2. A partir du 1^{er} Juin prochain, la mendicité, sous quelque prétexte et pour quelque cause qu'elle soit exercée, sera interdite d'une manière absolue dans la ville de Bordeaux.

Art. 3. Les individus que seront trouvés mendiant, seront arrêtés et mis à la disposition de M. le Procureur du Roi, pour être poursuivis conformément à l'art. 274 du code pénal.

Art. 4. Les indigents vivant actuellement du produit de la mendicité, et inscrits comme tels, et ceux qui réunissent les conditions requises pour participer au bienfait de l'institution, seront admis dans l'établissement.

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Art. 5. Le présent arrêté, dont M. le Préfet sera invité à étendre les dispositions aux communes de la banlieue de Bordeaux, sera soumis à l'approbation de ce magistrat, avec prière de solliciter, s'il y a lieu, celle de S. Ex. le Ministre de l'Intérieur.

Art. 6. Il sera imprimé, publié et affiché dans les lieux accoutumés, et adressé aux tribunaux compétents, à MM. les commandants de la place, de la gendarmerie royale, de la garde municipale, aux commissaires de police, pour que, chacun en ce qui le concerne, en assure l'exécution.

Fait à Bordeaux, en l'Hôtel de Ville, les jour, mois et an susdits.

Le Maire, *Le V^{te} du Hamel*.

Vu et approuvé. Bordeaux, le 12 Avril 1827.

Le Conseiller d'Etat, Préfet de la Gironde,
Baron D'Haussez.

No. 6.—DEPOT DE MENDICITE.

Composition de 350 Soupes aux Légumes.

	fr.	c.
43 demi-kilog ^{mes} , haricots, à 14 cent. le $\frac{1}{2}$ kil. - - - -	6	2
21 $\frac{1}{2}$ idem riz, à 34 cent. le $\frac{1}{2}$ kil. - - - -	7	31
4 l ^{is} $\frac{3}{4}$ graisse, à 55 cent. idem - - - -	2	62
30 l ^{is} de pain, à 9 cent. $\frac{1}{2}$ idem - - - -	3	80
Bois, poivre et sel - - - -	1	25
fr.	21	-

Les 350 soupes coûtant 21 fr., une seule revient à 6 cent.

No. 7.—Composition de 175 Soupes à la Viande, et du repas du soir pour 175 pauvres, la viande accommodée avec du riz.

	fr.	c.
58 l ^{is} $\frac{1}{2}$ viande, à 24 cent. la livre - - - -	14	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
21 l ^{is} 14 ^{onces} riz, à 34 cent. la livre - - - -	7	43 $\frac{3}{4}$
Légumes verts - - - -	1	-
Pain pour tremper le soupe, 20 l ^{is} , à 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ cent. - - - -	1	90
Graisse, 1 l ⁱ $\frac{1}{2}$, à 55 cent. - - - -	-	82 $\frac{1}{2}$
Bois, sel et poivre - - - -	1	4 $\frac{3}{4}$
fr.	26	25
Les 175 soupes et le repas du soir pour 175 pauvres, coûtant 26 fr. 25 cent., chaque soupe revient à - - - -	fr.	c.
	-	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
Et le repas du soir, pour chaque pauvre, aussi à - - - -	-	7 $\frac{1}{2}$

No. 8.—Composition de la Nourriture d'un Pauvre pendant une Semaine, et Prix de chaque Objet.

Le Dimanche :		fr.	c.
Une soupe au bouillon et au pain - - - -	-	-	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
Le repas du soir, viande et riz - - - -	-	-	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
Une ration de vin - - - -	-	-	3
Une ration de pain - - - -	-	-	9 $\frac{1}{2}$
fr.	-	27	$\frac{1}{2}$
Le Lundi :		fr.	c.
Deux soupes aux légumes et à la graisse - - - -	-	-	12
Une ration de vin - - - -	-	-	3
Une ration de pain - - - -	-	-	9 $\frac{1}{2}$
fr.	-	24	$\frac{1}{2}$
Le Mardi : Même distribution que le Dimanche - - - -	-	-	27 $\frac{1}{2}$
Le Mercredi : Même distribution que le Lundi - - - -	-	-	24 $\frac{1}{2}$
Le Jeudi : Même distribution que Dimanche et le Mardi - - - -	-	-	27 $\frac{1}{2}$
Le Vendredi : Soup aux légumes et à la graisse - - - -	-	-	24 $\frac{1}{2}$
Le Samedi : Même distribution - - - -	-	-	24 $\frac{1}{2}$

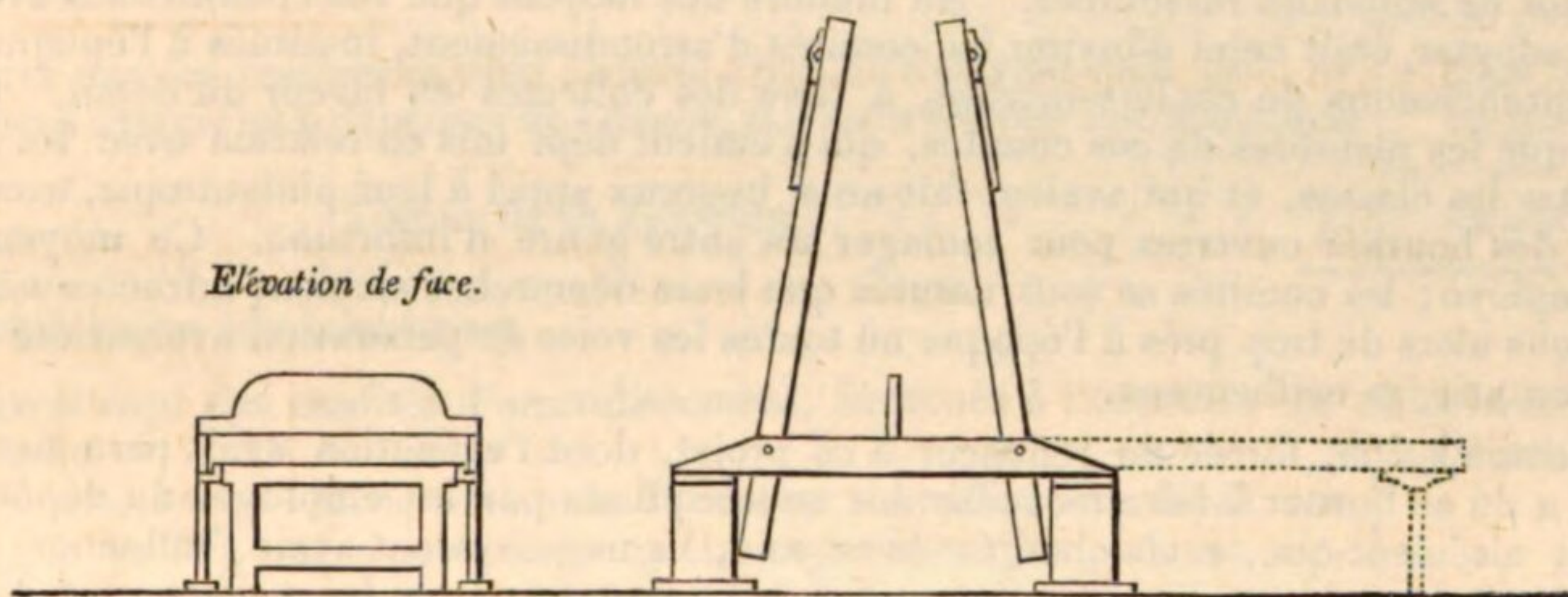
RECAPITULATION

RECAPITULATION :

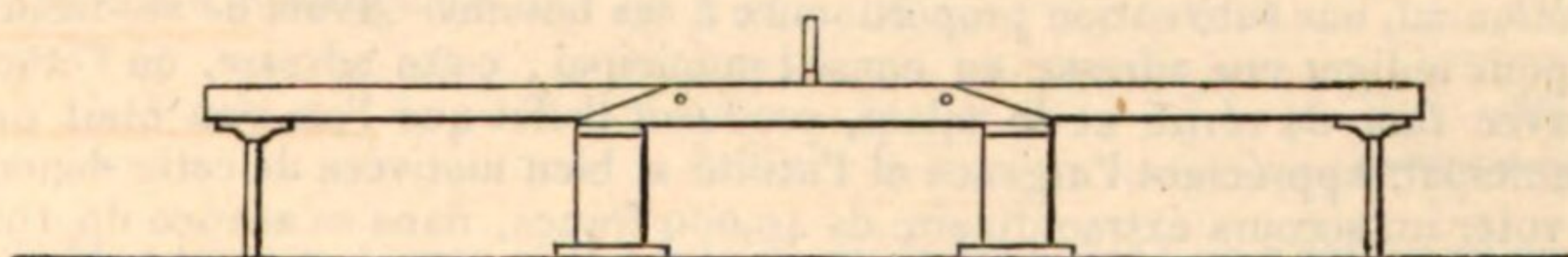
Le Dimanche	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	fr.	c.
Le Lundi	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	27 $\frac{1}{2}$
Le Mardi	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	24 $\frac{1}{2}$
Le Mercredi	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	27 $\frac{1}{2}$
Le Jeudi	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	24 $\frac{1}{2}$
Le Vendredi	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	27 $\frac{1}{2}$
Le Samedi	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	24 $\frac{1}{2}$
								fr.	1 80 $\frac{1}{2}$

Les jours de nourriture d'un pauvre coûtant 1 fr. 80 $\frac{1}{2}$ cent. ; le prix de la journée est un peu moins de 26 cent.

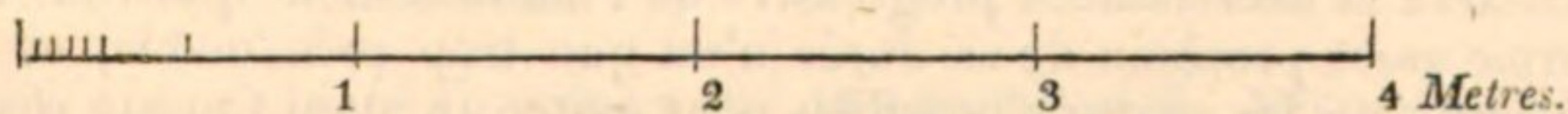
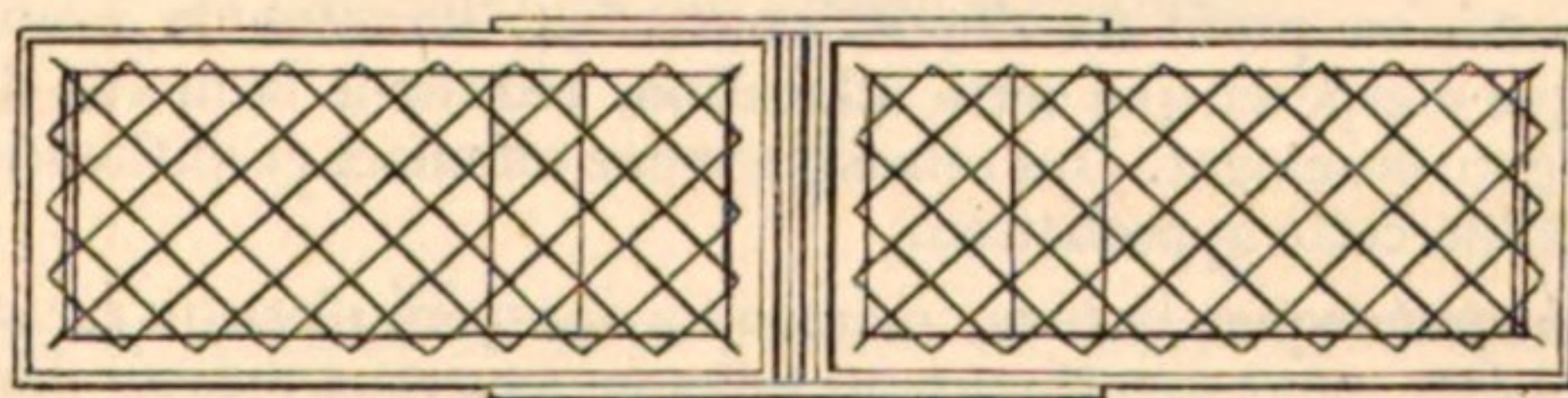
Elévation de deux Lits relevés.



Elévation laterale.



Plan de deux Lits.



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RAPPORT fait à Messieurs les Membres du Conseil Général du Dépôt de Mendicité,
par M. J. Brun, Maire de Bordeaux, Président de la Société.

Messieurs,

Séance du 10 Avril 1834.

J'AI eu l'honneur de vous présenter l'année dernière, à semblable époque, le tableau de la situation du Dépôt de Mendicité; je vous ai fait part des craintes qu'avaient conçues les Administrateurs de cet utile établissement, sur l'insuffisance de ses ressources, et les conséquences bien déplorables qui devaient en résulter. Mais, Messieurs, grâce à votre puissant concours, aux sages mesures qui ont été adoptées et à l'influence que vous avez heureusement exercée, nous avons vu retarder la fermeture de cette maison de secours, qui nous aurait paru inévitable, si nous avions pu douter de vos efforts généreux et de votre sollicitude pour les infortunés que vous avez recueillis.

Cependant, il ne faut pas vous le dissimuler, les Administrateurs du Dépôt de Mendicité n'ont pu prolonger sa durée qu'en lui imposant les plus grands sacrifices, et l'on est peut-être autorisé à dire que ce dernier effort a épuisé toutes les sources de son existence.

Ainsi, pour faire face aux dépenses de l'année 1834, on a été contraint de vendre les dernières actions que l'on possédait sur la Banque de Bordeaux; on s'est privé, par conséquent, des seuls fonds de réserve que l'on avait conservés, et tout l'avenir repose sur l'espoir d'obtenir, de la charité publique, des souscriptions assez abondantes pour détourner le malheur qui menace l'établissement.

Dans le courant de l'exercice dernier, plusieurs propositions ont été faites pour procurer au dépôt de nouvelles ressources. Au nombre des moyens que vos commissions avaient cru devoir adopter, était celui d'inviter les comités d'arrondissement, institués à l'époque funeste des appréhensions du choléra-morbus, à faire des collectes en faveur du dépôt. On avait pensé que les membres de ces comités, qui s'étaient déjà mis en relation avec les habitants de toutes les classes, et qui avaient fait un si heureux appel à leur philanthropie, trouveraient encore des bourses ouvertes pour soulager un autre genre d'infortune. Ce moyen n'a pu être employé; les comités se sont assurés que leurs démarches seraient infructueuses: nous touchions alors de trop près à l'époque où toutes les voies de persuasion avaient été épuisées pour secourir les malheureux.

La commission, forcée de renoncer à ce projet, dont l'exécution avait paru naturelle et facile, a dû se borner à faire recueillir des souscriptions par les employés du dépôt, et l'on conçoit aisément que, seuls chargés de ce soin, ils ne pouvaient avoir l'influence salutaire que les membres des comités auraient eux-mêmes exercée: aussi leurs démarches n'ont-elles presque rien produit.

Enfin, Messieurs, après avoir inutilement tenté tous les efforts possibles, la commission administrative, pressée par l'imminence du danger que courait le dépôt, proposa comme dernière ressource de s'adresser au conseil municipal de la ville de Bordeaux, et de lui demander, en faveur d'un établissement que l'on peut considérer sous certains rapports comme communal, une subvention proportionnée à ses besoins. Trois de ses membres furent désignés pour rédiger une adresse au conseil municipal; cette adresse, où l'état du dépôt est tracé avec tant de vérité et de talent, produisit l'effet que l'on s'en était promis. Le conseil municipal, appréciant l'urgence et l'utilité si bien motivées de cette demande, s'empressa de voter un secours extraordinaire de 40,000 francs, dans sa séance du 19 Novembre dernier.

L'autorité supérieure, vous le savez, Messieurs, n'a pas approuvé la délibération du conseil municipal, parce qu'elle est contraire aux lois financières qui régissent la comptabilité des communes. Néanmoins, l'allocation votée paraissait trop équitable en principe pour que M. le Ministre rejetât tout moyen de concilier les exigences de la loi et les intérêts de l'établissement qui réclamait impérieusement des secours. En conséquence, le conseil municipal a été appelé de nouveau à délibérer sur cette grave affaire, et dans cette seconde délibération il a voté, au profit du dépôt, pour 1834, un secours éventuel de 20,000 fr. Nous avons tout lieu d'espérer que cette allocation, réduite à la moitié de la première, sera sanctionnée par le gouvernement. Des renseignements officiels et authentiques ne permettent même pas de douter de cette approbation.

Mais, Messieurs, remarquez le bien, ce secours inespéré n'est qu'*éventuel*: il y aura toujours insuffisance même pour le présent, et nous ne pouvons prévoir dans l'avenir le point fixe où s'arrêtera la décroissance progressive de l'établissement que vous avez créé: je dirai plus, le terme assez prochain de sa durée n'est que trop présumable, si nous n'employons immédiatement tous les moyens possibles pour éviter un aussi funeste résultat.

Je crois donc, Messieurs, devoir engager le conseil général à concourir aux travaux de la commission pour assurer la destinée du Dépôt de Mendicité. Le conseil, augmenté aujourd'hui par l'adjonction de tous les membres du conseil municipal de Bordeaux, pourra, en divisant le travail, combiner favorablement le plan de ses opérations. Nous y sommes tous intéressés, puisque tous nous avons contribué à la fondation de l'établissement. Je ne vous parlerai plus du spectacle déplorable qu'offrirait la mendicité courant de nouveau les rues avec le dégoûtant étalage des infirmités ou des maux sur lesquels elle fonde ses tristes spéculations: je me contenterai de vous rappeler que, seuls en France, vous avez formé cet établissement-modèle, et qu'au milieu des difficultés qui semblent contrarier vos vues bienfaisantes et votre humanité, vous acquerriez un nouveau titre à la reconnaissance de nos concitoyens.

concitoyens, en assurant, par votre généreux concours, le maintien et la durée de cette œuvre tout à la fois de charité et d'ordre public.

Appendix (F.)

Il ne me reste plus, Messieurs, qu'à vous entretenir de la comptabilité du dépôt pendant l'année qui vient de s'écouler.

Foreign
Communications.

La population qui a produit pour l'année 1832, 143,824 journées, a été réduite, pendant l'année 1833, à 122,271 journées de présence, compris les pauvres secourus à domicile, ce qui fait ressortir le terme moyen des pauvres entretenus par l'établissement à 335 pendant l'année 1833.

FRANCE.

Bordeaux.

Le total de la dépense pour les besoins ordinaires s'est élevé à 62,196 fr. 89 c., ce qui fait ressortir le prix de la journée à 50 cent. $\frac{868}{1000}$.

Ce prix est inférieur de 6 cent. $\frac{326}{1000}$ au prix de la journée en 1832. En comparant chaque article de la dépense dans les deux exercices, on reconnaît que cette différence provient principalement de la diminution survenue dans le prix des subsistances. Cet heureux résultat aurait été plus sensible encore, si les autres chapitres du budget n'avaient présenté une augmentation nécessitée par l'invasion du choléra.

Comme les années précédentes, la dépense a dépassé de beaucoup les recettes. En effet, les souscriptions que l'on n'a pu obtenir que par les soins des employés, ne se sont élevées qu'à - - - - - f. 31,306 80

Sur cette somme on aura, comme d'usage, à déduire les nonvaleurs.

En y ajoutant la portion du travail des pauvres, attribuée à l'établissement, qui ne s'est élevée qu'à - - - - - 567 19

Et les intérêts des actions de la banque - - - - - 1,400 -

On trouve que les ressources pour l'année 1833 ne s'élèvent qu'à - - 33,273 99

Ainsi, pour fournir aux dépenses de l'année, il a fallu trouver une somme de 28,922 90

TOTAL de la Dépense - - - - - f. 62,196 89

La commission administrative,

Après avoir reçu des comités d'arrondissement, institués à l'occasion du choléra-morbus, une somme de - - - - - f. 6,000 -

Un autre secours que M. le Maire de Bordeaux a appliqué au dépôt, sur la somme que Sa Majesté a envoyée pour être répartie sur les pauvres, victimes du choléra - - - - - 2,000 -

La commission a été obligée d'employer le remboursement fait par la ville de Bordeaux, de la dernière moitié de l'avance qui avait été faite à M. Coupat, pour l'achat du local - - - - - 11,000 -

Bien plus : il lui a fallu emprunter une somme de 10,000 francs en attendant que les actions de la banque, dont le dépôt était propriétaire, fussent placées d'une manière avantageuse - - - - - 10,000 -

f. 29,000 -

Le Dépôt de Mendicité se trouve réduit à la dernière ressource ; ce n'est qu'en vendant les 28 actions de la banque qui restaient que l'on a pu se procurer des fonds pour faire face aux premières dépenses de l'année 1834.

Le produit de la vente de ces 28 actions au profit du dépôt, deduction faite des 10,000 francs remboursés à la banque, a été de - - - - - f. 23,040 -

Les souscriptions obtenues pour 1834 ne s'élèvent qu'à environ - - 8,000 -

Legs de M. Jacques Guilhem en faveur de l'établissement - - 2,000 -

Sommes présumées sur les souscriptions qui restent à recouvrer - - 440 -

f. 33,480 -

On se rendra facilement compte de cette position en jetant un coup-d'œil sur les livres de l'établissement, qui sont toujours à la disposition de MM. les Membres du Conseil Général.

L'état sanitaire du dépôt, pendant l'année, a été très-satisfaisant ; moins de pauvres ont été envoyés à l'hôpital que pendant les années précédentes. Je suis heureux, Messieurs, de pouvoir vous en donner l'assurance en terminant ce rapport, comme une compensation pour tous les affligeans détails que j'ai dû vous soumettre.

Le Maire de Bordeaux, Président de la Commission
Administrative du Dépôt de Mendicite,

Bordeaux, le 10 Avril 1834.

J. Brun.

Appendix (F.)

COMPTE des RECETTES et des DEPENSES du Dépôt de Mendicité, pendant l'Exercice 1833.

DOTATION DE L'ANNEE 1833.

Foreign Communications.		fr. c.		fr. c.		fr. c.		fr. c.	
	Le montant des souscriptions et dons volontaires, est de	31,306	80	Transport	25,401	23			
FRANCE.	La portion du travail des pauvres attribuée à l'établissement	567	19	Sel	400	-			
Bordeaux.	Intérêts des 28 actions sur la banque de Bordeaux	1,400	-	Haricots	27	-			
	Emprunt fait à la banque sur le dépôt de 10 actions			Poivre	55	-			
	f. 10,000 -			Pommes de terre	6	-			
	A déduire: escompte du premier mois	43	5	Légumes verts	181	-			
	Différence dont la banque a crédité le dépôt	9,956	95	Fèves	278	-			
				Pois	81	-			
				Vin	3,517	91			
	Don du Roi, soit la portion des secours attribuée par M. le Maire au Dépôt de Mendicité, sur la somme que S. M. a envoyée pour secourir les pauvres atteints du choléra-morbus	2,000	-		29,947	14			
	Remboursement fait par la ville de Bordeaux en Juillet, pour moitié de l'avance qui avait été faite par le Dépôt de Mendicité à M. Coupat pour l'achat du local	11,000	-	Sommes distribuées en argent	1,461	-			
				Secours accidentels	51	90			
					1,512	90			
	TOTAL du Revenu de l'année 1833	56,230	94	TOTAL des Subsistances et Secours à Domicile				31,460	4
				Ce qui fait ressortir le prix de la journée à vingt-cinq centimes sept cent trente millièmes de centime.					
				III ^e CHAPITRE.					
				Frais d'Administration.					
				Directeur	f. 2,400	-			
				Aumônier	500	-			
				Chirurgien	400	-			
				Chirurgiens extraordinaires pour le choléra	366	-			
				Inspecteur	1,400	-			
				Adjoint à l'inspecteur	600	-			
				1 ^{er} . Commis aux souscriptions et aux recettes	800	-			
				2 ^e . Commis idem	716	66			
				3 ^e . Commis idem	540	-			
				4 ^e . Commis idem	112	50			
				Garde-magasin	480	-			
				Employé au bon pasteur	600	-			
				Employé au bureau, pauvre du dépôt	90	-			
				Maître d'école, idem	82	50			
				Frais de bureau	f. 296	20			
				Arrestation des mendiants	325	-			
				Assurances contre l'incendie	81	60			
				Abonnement au ramonage	18	80			
				Escomptes	340	75			
				Impositions	79	89			
				Loyers	1,350	-			
				Portier	200	-			
				Cuisinière	200	-			
				2 Aides de cuisine, pauv. du dépôt	108	-			
				1 Infirmière, idem	54	-			
				1 Couturière, idem	36	-			
				1 Perruquier, idem	63	-			
				1 Jardinier, idem	54	-			
				Surveillans, idem	223	20			
				Surveillantes, idem	198	-			
				Gratifications aux employés pour le choléra	1,245	62			
				TOTAL des Frais d'Administration				13,961	72
				Ce qui fait ressortir le prix de la journée à onze centimes quatre cent dix-neuf millièmes de centime.					
				A transporter					
								45,421	76

Le nombre des journées, pendant l'exercice 1833, est donc de cent vingt-deux mille deux cent soixante et onze, sur lesquelles on répartira la dépense.

I^{er} et II^e CHAPITRES du Budget.

Subsistances et Secours à Domicile.

	fr. c.
Pain de ration	f. 11,388 58
Pain de soupe et de supplément	5,684 32
Viande	6,539 94
Graisse	1,177 26
Riz	611 13

A transporter 25,401,23

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Transport - - -	fr. c. 45,421 76	Transport - - -	fr. 54,396 47
IV ^e CHAPITRE.		IX ^e CHAPITRE.	
Blanchissage.		Vêtemens.	
Draps de lit - - f. 647 60		Chemises d'hommes - f. 665 80	
Couvertures de laine 575 75		Pantalons de toile - 13 20	
Chemises - - 1,596 80		Pantalons d'étoffe - 343 51	
Vêtemens en général 574 69		Gilets à manche,	
Linge de toute espèce 1,042 24		d'étoffe - - 475 55	
Linge d'autel - - 20 -		Chemises de femmes - 644 40	
TOTAL du Blan-		Brassières - - 243 50	
chissage - -}	4,457 8	Jupons - - - 307 49	
Ce qui fait ressortir le prix de		Manteaux - - 279 65	
la journée à trois centimes six cent		Mouchoirs de col et de	
quarante-cinq millièmes.		poche - - - 340 2	
V ^e CHAPITRE.		Chaussons - - 116 30	
Chauffage et Eclairage.		Souliers - - 18 50	
Bûches de pin - f. 1,060 23		Tabliers de travail - 184 85	
Fagots dits faisonnats 57 50		Sabots - - - 325 -	
Charbon - - 2 50		TOTAL des Vête-	
Chandelles - - 104 45		mens - -}	3,957 77
Huile à brûler - - 500 75		Ce qui fait ressortir le prix de	
Mèches - - 10 85		la journée à trois centimes deux	
Cierges - - 24 -		cent trente-sept millièmes de centime.	
TOTAL du Chauffage		X ^e CHAPITRE.	
et Eclairage -}	1,760 28	Coucher.	
Ce qui fait ressortir le prix de		Draps de lit - - f. 605 35	
la journée à un centime quatre cent		Paille - - - 285 30	
quarante millièmes.		TOTAL du Coucher	890 65
VI ^e CHAPITRE.		Ce qui fait ressortir le prix de	
Pharmacie.		la journée à sept cent vingt-huit	
Drogues ou médica-		millièmes de centime.	
mens - - f. 478 5		XI ^e CHAPITRE.	
Lait - - 219 -		Frais d'Installation.	
Bandages - - 137 -		Meubles - - f. 337 45	
TOTAL de la Phar-		Utensiles de ménage 75 55	
macie - -}	834 5	Chapelle - - 228 -	
Ce qui fait ressortir le prix de		Impressions - - 260 65	
la journée à six cent quatre-vingt-		Maison de secours - 100 80	
deux millièmes de centime.		TOTAL des frais	
VII ^e CHAPITRE.		d'Installation -}	1,002 45
Inhumation.		Ce qui fait ressortir le prix de	
Frais payés au bureau		la journée à huit cent vingt mil-	
des décès - - f. 48 -		lièmes de centime.	
Frais au Dépôt de		XII ^e CHAPITRE.	
Mendicité - - 7 75		Appropriation du Local.	
TOTAL des frais		Charpenterie - f. 1,195 70	
d'Inhumation -}	55 75	Serrurerie - - 80 -	
Ce qui fait ressortir le prix de		Menuiserie - - 179 -	
la journée à quarante-six millièmes		Réparations - - 494 85	
de centime.		TOTAL des appropri-	
VIII ^e CHAPITRE.		ations du Local -}	1,949 55
Dépenses Intérieures.		Ce qui fait ressortir le prix de	
Frais divers - - f. 618 90		la journée à un centime cinq cent	
Cochers et charrois - 479 65		quatre-vingt-quatorze millièmes de	
Dépenses imprévues - 58 15		centime.	
Frais de jardinage - 105 60		TOTAL de la dépense pen-	
Entretien du linge et		dant l'Exercice 1833 -}	fr. 62,196 89
des vêtemens - 605 25			
TOTAL des dé-		RECAPITULATION du prix de la Journée	
penses Inté-		pendant l'Exercice 1833.	
rieures - -}	1,867 55	Substances et secours à do-	
Ce qui fait ressortir le prix de		micile - - -	c.
la journée à un centime cinq cent		Frais d'administration - -	25 730/1000 ^{es} .
vingt-sept millièmes de centime.		Blanchissage - -	11 419
A transporter - - fr.	54,396 47	Chauffage et éclairage - -	3 645
P. L. (F.)		Pharmacie - -	1 440
		Frais d'inhumation - -	- 682
		Dépenses intérieures - -	- 46
		Vêtemens - -	1 527
		Coucher - -	3 237
		Frais d'installation - -	- 728
		Appropriations du local - -	- 820
			1 594
			c. 50 868/1000 ^{es} .
		Le prix de la journée des pauvres admis au	
		Dépôt de Mendicité et secours à domicile, est	
		donc de cinquante centimes huit cent soixante-huit	
		millièmes de centime.	
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RESUME GENERAL de la Dépense et des Emplois effectués depuis l'Ouverture de l'Etablissement jusqu'au 31 Décembre 1833.

	f.	c.	REPARTITION.	f.	c.	f.	c.
Les sommes dépensées depuis la fondation de l'établissement jusqu'au 31 Décembre de l'année 1827, conformément au livre de la dépense générale, sont de - - - -	69,960	72	L'allocation des huit mois de l'exercice 1827 - - - -	34,027	33		
Les sommes dépensées depuis le 1 ^{er} Janvier 1828 jusqu'au 31 Décembre même année, selon le livre de la dépense générale, sont de - - - -	40,565	11	L'allocation de l'année 1828 - - - -	42,875	96		
Les sommes dépensées ou employées depuis le 1 ^{er} Janvier jusqu'au 31 Décembre 1829, conformément au livre de la dépense générale, s'élèvent à	119,367	62	L'allocation de l'année 1829 - - - -	45,432	53		
Les sommes dépensées depuis le 1 ^{er} Janvier jusqu'au 31 Décembre 1830, selon le livre de la dépense générale, sont de -	56,499	6	L'allocation de l'année 1830 - - - -	53,457	56		
Les sommes dépensées depuis le 1 ^{er} Janvier jusqu'au 31 Décembre 1831, selon le livre de la dépense générale, sont de -	72,550	28	L'allocation de l'année 1831 - - - -	74,335	30		
Les sommes dépensées depuis le 1 ^{er} Janvier jusqu'au 31 Décembre 1832, selon le livre de la dépense générale, sont de -	81,575	92	L'allocation de l'année 1832 - - - -	82,259	63		
Les sommes dépensées depuis le 1 ^{er} Janvier jusqu'au 31 Décembre 1833, selon le livre de la dépense générale, sont de *	62,115	23	L'allocation de l'année 1833 - - - -	62,196	89		
DEPENSE Totale et Emploi de Fonds à transporter - }	502,633	94	Portion des frais d'installation, construction et appropriation du local, appliquée aux années 1828 - 1829 -	16,278	31		
			4 mois de l'exercice 1830 -	3,752	83		
			Dépense extraordinaire pour l'achat du local	5,000	-		
			42 actions sur la Banque de Bordeaux, achetées pour une somme de - - -	47,510	-		
			Titres sur la ville, cédés par le sieur Coupât	22,000	-		
			Vin restant en cave le 31 Décembre 1833, estimé au prix d'achat	575	85		
			SOMME EGALE -			502,633	94

COMPTE de la Situation Générale du Dépôt de Mendicité depuis l'Ouverture de l'Etablissement jusqu'au 31 Décembre 1833.

	f.	c.	fr.	c.	f.	c.
Dotation de l'année 1827 - -	105,383	18	Transport -	365,628	91	
Dotation de l'année 1828 - -	98,836	76	Au compte de l'année 1832 - - -	83,948	43	
Dotation de l'année 1829 - -	99,751	98	Au compte de l'année 1833 - - -	53,126	69	
Dotation de l'année 1830 - -	54,016	84	TOTAL des Verse- mens - }	502,704	3	
Dotation de l'année 1831 - -	46,589	13	Les non-valeurs de 1827 - - -	5,485	17	
Dotation de l'année 1832 - -	88,277	18	Les non-valeurs de 1828 - - -	9,332	67	
Dotation de l'année 1833 - -	56,230	94	Les non-valeurs de 1829 - - -	15,559	39	
TOTAL - - - f.	549,086	1	Les non-valeurs de 1830 - - -	4,186	75	
SOMMES REÇUES.			Les non-valeurs de 1831 - - -	4,385	-	
Fonds versés à la Banque de Bordeaux.			Les non-valeurs de 1832 - - -	4,328	75	
Au compte de l'année 1827 - - -	99,898	1	Les quittances qui restent à recouvrer sur l'exercice 1833, sauf à en déduire les non-valeurs, sont de	3,104	25	
Au compte de l'année 1828 - - -	89,504	9	SOMME EGALE -			549,086 1
Au compte de l'année 1829 - - -	84,192	59				
Au compte de l'année 1830 - - -	49,830	9				
Au compte de l'année 1831 - - -	42,204	13				
A transporter - fr.	365,628	91				

* Le vin restant en cave le 31 Décembre 1832, et celui qui reste le 31 Décembre 1833, explique la différence qui se trouve entre le livre de la dépense générale et les sommes employées selon le compte précédent.

ETAT de la Caisse, le 31 Décembre 1833.

Les sommes encaissées depuis l'ouverture du Dépôt de Mendicité, jusqu'au	f.	c.
31 Décembre de l'année 1833, étant de - - - - -	502,704	3
Les sommes dépensées ou employées s'élèvent à - - - - -	502,633	94
Il reste en caisse, d'accord avec la Banque de Bordeaux ce jour, une somme de - - - - -	70	9

Foreign
Communications.
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FRANCE.
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Bordeaux.

CERTIFIE le présent compte des recettes et dépenses, depuis l'ouverture du Dépôt de Mendicité, conforme aux livres de comptabilité de l'établissement, arrêtés par M. Baour, vice-président de la Commission administrative, et M. Sarget, administrateur, ordonnateur général.

Bordeaux, le 31 Décembre 1833.

Le Maire de Bordeaux, Président de la Société,
J. Brun.

COMMISSION ADMINISTRATIVE DES HOSPICES DE BORDEAUX.

REGLEMENT POUR L'HOSPICE DES VIEILLARDS.

But de l'Etablissement, et Organisation du Service.

Art. 1. L'hospice des Vieillards est destiné à recueillir cent quatre-vingt-onze vieillards indigents des deux sexes.

Art. 2. Cet hospice est sous la surveillance d'un membre de la commission administrative, spécialement délégué par elle.

Art. 3. Sont chargés du service intérieur de l'établissement, chacun suivant ses attributions :

Une dame de la charité, supérieure, assistée de sept sœurs ;
Un aumônier ;
Un médecin ordinaire, un médecin adjoint, et un chirurgien ;
Un préposé aux entrées, portier ; huit infirmiers ou domestiques.

De l'Administrateur-Commissaire.

Art. 4. L'administrateur-commissaire exerce sa surveillance sur toute les parties du service.

Art. 5. Il est, auprès de la commission, l'organe des besoins de l'établissement.

Art. 6. Il autorise les entrées, sorties, visites dans l'hospice, dans les cas et dans les formes que prescrit le règlement.

De la Supérieure et de ses Sœurs.

Art. 7. La supérieure et les sœurs sous ses ordres sont chargées de tous les détails du service.

Art. 8. La supérieure a autorité sur tous les employés ou préposés, et elle peut, en cas de manquement, les suspendre de leurs fonctions, pour en référer à la commission, par l'intermédiaire de l'administrateur-commissaire.

Art. 9. Elle a également autorité sur les habitués ; et dans le cas où ils encourroient des punitions, elle leur inflige, soit la privation du tabac, du vin et de la viande, soit les arrêts dans la chambre de discipline ou prison.

Art. 10. Elle est autorisée à faire directement les dépenses au marché et autres menus achats journaliers, sous le nom de *dépense intérieure*, en se conformant aux allocations du budget. Elle est remboursée de cette avance à la fin de chaque mois, sur son compte vérifié par le directeur général, agent comptable, et arrêté par l'administrateur-commissaire.

Art. 11. Elle paie les traitements des employés à la fin de chaque mois, conformément aux allocations du budget ; elle en est remboursée sur la production de l'état de paiement, émargé de leur acquit, vérifié et arrêté comme il est ci-dessus.

Art. 12. Pour tous autres besoins de l'hospice, il y est pourvu par la commission, sur les demandes de la supérieure, vérifiées par le directeur général, agent comptable, soumises à la commission en séance, et par elle approuvées.

Art. 13. La supérieure vérifie à l'entrée les comestibles, approvisionnements, matériaux, et généralement tous les articles qui entrent pour la consommation ou l'entretien de la maison ; elle n'agréé pas ce qui est défectueux.

Elle appose son *visa* sur les comptes, mémoires ou factures, pour constater que cette vérification a eu lieu, soit pour la qualité, soit pour les quantités ou poids.

De l'Aumônier.

Art. 14. L'aumônier est nommé par Mgr. l'Archevêque, sur la présentation, par la commission, d'une liste triple de candidats.

Art. 15. Il réside dans l'hospice, et ne peut s'absenter sans l'autorisation de la commission. (*Décision ministérielle du 28 Juillet 1820.*)

Art. 16. Il célèbre la messe tous les jours de la semaine, à sept heures et demie du matin en hiver, et à six heures en été.

P. L. (F.)

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Les

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Les vêpres du dimanche se disent à deux heures et demie.

Art. 17. L'aumônier assiste, dans la pratique des devoirs chrétiens, les habitués et les employés qui lui donnent leur confiance.

Il fait au moins une fois par mois une instruction religieuse pour les habitués.

Art. 18. Il observe les réglemens de la maison, pour l'ordre intérieur, les heures d'ouverture des portes, etc.

Des Médecins et du Chirurgien.

Art. 19. Les médecins et le chirurgien sont nommés par M. le Préfet, sur une liste triple présentée par la commission.

Art. 20. Le médecin ordinaire et le médecin adjoint font concurremment le service : l'un d'eux visite l'hospice deux fois par semaine, indépendamment des visites qu'ils doivent faire chaque jour, lorsqu'il y a des malades dans la maison.

Art. 21. Le chirurgien fait une visite chaque jour ; il ordonne les remèdes pour les cas pressants ; il panse les vieillards infirmes. Il peut se faire aider, pour les pansements, par des élèves externes de l'hôpital Saint-André, agréés par la commission.

Du Préposé aux Entrées.

Art. 22. Le prepose aux entrées demeure assidûment au bureau d'entrée de l'hospice.

Art. 23. Il ouvre la porte à cinq heures du matin en été, et à sept heures en hiver. Il la ferme, en toute saison, à neuf heures, et remet alors les clefs à la supérieure.

Art. 24. Il ne laisse introduire dans l'hospice aucun nouvel habitué, s'il n'est muni d'un ordre d'entrée délivré par l'administrateur-commissaire : il ne permet la sortie qu'aux habitués qui justifient d'une autorisation écrite, délivrée par la supérieure, ou d'un ordre de sortie donné par l'administrateur-commissaire.

Art. 25. Il ne permet la visite aux étrangers, que sur une permission du même administrateur.

Art. 26. Il veille à ce qu'aucun effet ou comestibles ne soient portés de l'hospice au-dehors.

Art. 27. Il tient le registre de porte, constate, tant audit registre que sur les mémoires, comptes ou factures, la vérification qu'il est tenu de faire de la nature, poids ou quantité de tous approvisionnements, denrées ou matériaux entrants.

Il lui est expressément défendu de gratter, rayer, intercaler ou mettre hors de sa date aucun article dudit registre, toute rectification ne pouvant y être faite que par le directeur général agent comptable, qui l'établit d'une manière circonstanciée et motivée, sans rature ni surcharge sur les articles défectueux.

Art. 28. Il tient les registres de population, remet les états périodiques de mouvement au bureau du directeur général agent comptable.

Art. 29. Il remet à l'Hôtel de Ville, conformément aux lois, les déclarations des décès, certifiées par la supérieure.

Art. 30. Il fait, pour la maison, tous comptes et écritures dont il est chargé par la supérieure.

Art. 31. Il ne peut s'absenter sans l'autorisation de la commission.

Des Infirmiers ou Domestiques.

Art. 32. Les infirmiers ou domestiques exercent leur emploi sous les ordres de la supérieure, en se conformant à ce qu'elle leur prescrit pour l'ordre du service, le soulagement des pauvres et la bonne tenue de l'établissement.

Des Habitués.

Art. 33. Pour être admis à l'hospice des Vieillards, il faut réunir les conditions suivantes, et en rapporter la preuve :

Etre âgé au moins de soixante ans ;

Etre dans un état complet d'indigence ;

Etre dans l'impossibilité de pourvoir à son existence par le travail.

Art. 34. Les demandes en admission doivent être adressées à la commission administrative ; et si elle reconnoît que le pétitionnaire est dans le cas d'être admis, elle renvoie la pétition à l'administrateur-commissaire, pour délivrer l'ordre d'entrée à mesure de la vacance des places.

Art. 35. Le tour d'entrée est fixé alternativement par le rang d'ancienneté d'inscription et par celui d'ancienneté d'âge.

Art. 36. Les habitués portent l'habit de la maison.

Ils ne forment qu'une seule classe, et n'ont qu'un même ordinaire. Ils prennent les repas aux réfectoires communs.

Les exceptions aux dispositions du présent article sont accordées, dans les cas et pour des circonstances extraordinaires, par la commission, sur la proposition de l'administrateur-commissaire.

Art. 37. Les habitués concourent, suivant leur âge, leur intelligence et leur sexe, aux travaux de la maison, et donnent leur temps auxdits travaux, soit dans l'atelier du linge, soit dans les autres parties, de neuf heures à midi, et de deux heures à cinq.

Les

Les heures pour les transports de bois, d'eau et autres, pour le jardin, pour les soins de propreté, sont fixées par la supérieure, suivant que le service l'exige.

Art. 38. Les habitués sortis de l'hospice sans permission, de même que ceux sortis définitivement par autorisation ou ordre de l'administrateur-commissaire, ne peuvent plus être admis sous aucun prétexte.

Art. 39. Ceux qui, ayant eu la permission de sortir momentanément, se seroient livrés en ville à la débauche, à la mendicité, ou qui auroient commis des délits susceptibles d'être punis par l'autorité, seront exclus de l'établissement.

Art. 40. Les habitués qui ne professent pas la religion Catholique, sont autorisés à sortir pendant deux heures, chaque jour de fête consacré dans leur culte, pour assister aux cérémonies qui ont lieu dans leurs temples.

Art. 41. Les mêmes habitués, lorsqu'ils sont malades, et qu'ils désirent être assistés par leurs pasteurs, en préviennent le préposé aux entrées. Celui-ci est alors tenu de faire avertir le pasteur désigné, qui est reçu dans l'hospice quand il se présente.

Art. 42. Les habitués se lèvent à cinq heures du matin en été, et à sept heures en hiver. Après le lever, ils font leurs lits, nettoient les dortoirs, et immédiatement après se fait la prière du matin, en présence d'une sœur.

Art. 43. Ils se couchent à huit heures et demie en été, et à six et demie en hiver. La prière du soir précède le coucher; elle est faite, comme celle du matin, en présence d'une sœur.

Art. 44. Le déjeûné a lieu à sept heures en été, et à huit heures en hiver; le dîné à midi, et le souper à cinq heures, en toute saison.

Art. 45. Les habitués ne peuvent avoir du feu à leur disposition particulière, et il leur est défendu de fumer dans les dortoirs, les chambres ou les salles.

Dispositions Générales.

Art. 46. L'heure du coucher des employés ne peut être portée plus tard qu'à dix heures: passé cette heure, il ne doit plus y avoir ni feu ni lumière dans l'hospice, à l'exception des lampes nécessaires pour veiller.

Art. 47. La chapelle de l'hospice n'est pas ouverte au public.

Art. 48. La commission fait les règlements de détail que peut nécessiter l'application des articles organiques qui précèdent. Si les cas non prévus exigent des modifications ou additions au règlement général, il y est procédé par M. le Préfet, sur la proposition de la commission.

Arrêté par la commission administrative des hospices de Bordeaux, dans la séance du 26 Février 1822.

Desfourniel, Vice-Président.

Louis Fabre,

Sarget,

Duprat,

Portal,

Loriague aîné,

} Administrateurs.

Vu et approuvé, Bordeaux, le 11 Mars 1822.

Le Préfet de la Gironde,

C^{te} de Breteuil.

COMMISSION ADMINISTRATIVE DES HOSPICES DE BORDEAUX.

REGLEMENT POUR L'HOPITAL DES ALIENES.

But de l'Etablissement, et Organisation du Service.

Art. 1. L'hôpital des Aliénés est destiné à recueillir environ cent trente individus des deux sexes.

Art. 2. Cet hôpital est sous la surveillance d'un membre de la commission administrative, délégué par elle.

Art. 3. Sont chargés du service intérieur de l'établissement, chacun suivant ses attributions:

Une dame de la charité, supérieure, assistée du nombre de sœurs nécessaires pour le service, et réglé par la commission;

Un aumônier;

Un médecin ordinaire;

Un médecin adjoint;

Un chirurgien ordinaire;

Un chirurgien adjoint;

Un préposé aux entrées;

Le nombre d'infirmiers des deux sexes que la commission juge nécessaire pour les besoins du service.

De l'Administrateur-Commissaire.

Art. 4. L'administrateur-commissaire exerce la surveillance sur toutes les parties du service de l'hôpital.

Art. 5. Il est, auprès de la commission, l'organe des besoins de l'établissement.

Art. 6. Il autorise les entrées, sorties, visites dans l'hôpital, dans les cas et dans les formes que prescrit le règlement.

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De la Supérieure et de ses Sœurs.

Art. 7. La supérieure et les sœurs sous ses ordres, sont chargées de tous les détails du service.

Art. 8. La supérieure a autorité sur tous les employés ou préposés, et elle peut, en cas de manquement, les suspendre de leurs fonctions, pour en référer à la commission par l'intermédiaire de l'administrateur-commissaire.

Art. 9. Elle a également autorité sur les aliénés de toute classe entretenus dans la maison, et elle l'exerce pour l'ordre du service, en ayant égard à l'état de chacun d'eux.

Art. 10. Elle est autorisée à faire directement les dépenses au marché, et autres menus achats journaliers, sous le nom de *dépense intérieure*, en se conformant aux allocations du budget. Elle est remboursée de cette avance à la fin de chaque mois, sur son compte vérifié par le directeur général agent comptable des hospices, et arrêté par l'administrateur-commissaire.

Art. 11. Elle paie, à la fin de chaque mois, les traitements des employés, conformément aux allocations du budget. Elle en est remboursée sur la production de l'état de paiement émargé de leur acquit, vérifié et arrêté comme il est dit ci-dessus.

Art. 12. Pour tous autres besoins de l'hôpital, il y est pourvu par la commission, sur les demandes de la supérieure, vérifiées par le directeur général agent comptable, visées par l'administrateur-commissaire, soumises à la commission en séance, et par elle approuvées.

Art. 13. La supérieure vérifie à l'entrée les comestibles, approvisionnements, matériaux, et généralement tous les articles qui entrent pour la consommation ou l'entretien de la maison. Elle n'agrée pas ce qui est défectueux.

Elle appose son *visa* sur les comptes, mémoires ou factures, pour constater que cette vérification a eu lieu, soit pour la qualité, soit pour les quantités ou poids.

Art. 14. La supérieure est chargée du registre de la population; elle correspond directement avec la commission, pour tout ce qui a trait à l'entrée ou à la sortie des aliénés séquestrés, soit provisoirement, soit définitivement, et elle remet au directeur général agent comptable les états périodiques de mouvement.

De l'Aumônier.

Art. 15. L'aumônier est nommé par M^{gr}. l'Archevêque, sur trois candidats présentés par la commission administrative des hospices.

Art. 16. Il ne peut s'absenter sans l'autorisation de la commission. (*Décision ministérielle du 28 Juillet 1820*).

Art. 17. Il est chargé de tout le service religieux de l'établissement; il célèbre la messe à huit heures chaque jour de la semaine, et le Dimanche à neuf heures.

Les vêpres des Dimanches et fêtes ont lieu à deux heures.

Art. 18. Il assiste, dans la pratique des devoirs Chrétiens, les personnes qui habitent la maison, administre les sacrements, fait les funérailles.

Art. 19. Il fait, au moins une fois par mois, une instruction Chrétienne pour les infirmiers.

Art. 20. Il observe les règlements de la maison, pour l'ordre intérieur, les heures d'ouverture des portes, etc.

Des Médecins et Chirurgiens.

Art. 21. Les médecins et chirurgiens sont nommés par M. le Préfet, sur une liste de trois candidats présentés par la commission.

Art. 22. Les médecin et chirurgien ordinaires se partagent le service de l'hôpital, conformément à leurs attributions respectives.

Les aliénés en traitement sont visités chaque jour par le médecin ou le chirurgien, sans préjudice des soins extraordinaires que pourroient nécessiter des maladies graves, soit des aliénés, soit des employés.

Art. 23. Les médecin et chirurgien ordinaires appellent en consultation les médecin et chirurgien adjoints, soit pour des cas de maladie extraordinaire, soit pour des autopsies cadavériques.

Art. 24. En cas d'absence ou de maladie du médecin ou chirurgien ordinaire, ils sont respectivement remplacés dans leur service par le médecin ou chirurgien adjoint.

Art. 25. Les médecins et chirurgiens ordinaires et adjoints se réunissent en conférence le Mardi de chaque semaine.

Art. 26. Les jours de conférence, les médecins et chirurgiens ordinaires et adjoints réunis, procéderont à l'examen des aliénés entrés pendant la semaine précédente, et ils rédigeront, sur la situation particulière de chacun d'eux et relativement à leur état d'aliénation, un rapport qui sera adressé à la commission par la supérieure.

Art. 27. Il sera en outre remis à la commission, à la fin de chaque trimestre, un état de tous les aliénés, avec des notes sur leur curabilité ou incurabilité présumée.

Du Préposé aux Entrées.

Art. 28. Le préposé aux entrées se tient assidûment au bureau d'entrée de l'hôpital.

Art. 29. Il ouvre les portes à cinq heures du matin dans l'été, et à sept heures en hiver. Il les ferme, en toute saison, à neuf heures du soir, et remet alors les clefs à la supérieure.

Art. 30. Il ne laisse introduire dans l'hôpital et n'en laisse sortir aucun habitué, qu'autant qu'il lui est justifié du billet d'entrée ou de sortie délivré par la commission et par l'administrateur-commissaire.

Art. 31. Il ne permet l'entrée de l'établissement aux étrangers qui veulent le visiter, ou

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aux parents qui désirent voir des aliénés, qu'en vertu d'une permission écrite de l'administrateur-commissaire.

Art. 32. Il veille à ce qu'aucun effet ou comestible ne soit porté de l'hôpital en dehors.

Art. 33. Il tient le registre de porte, constate, tant audit registre que sur les mémoires, comptes ou factures, la vérification qu'il est tenu de faire, de la nature, poids ou quantités de tous approvisionnements, denrées ou matériaux entrants.

Il lui est expressément défendu de gratter, de rayer, intercaler ou mettre hors de sa date aucun article dudit registre, toute rectification ne pouvant y être faite que par le directeur général agent comptable, qui l'établit d'une manière circonstanciée et motivée, sans rature ni surcharge sur les articles défectueux.

Art. 34. Il remet à l'Hôtel de Ville les déclarations, certifiées par la supérieure, des décès qui surviennent dans l'hôpital.

Art. 35. Il fait, pour la maison, tous comptes et écritures dont la supérieure trouve bon de le charger.

Art. 36. Il ne peut s'absenter sans l'autorisation de la commission.

Des Infirmiers.

Art. 37. Les infirmiers et infirmières exécutent les ordres de la supérieure, dans toutes les parties du service qu'elle leur confie pour le bon ordre de la maison et pour le plus grand soulagement des aliénés.

Art. 38. Ils veillent à tour de rôle, et l'infirmier de veillée fait pendant la nuit plusieurs tournées dans l'établissement.

Des Aliénés.

Art. 39. Le mode d'admission et de sortie des aliénés, le règlement des pensions ou journées, etc., demeurent maintenus ainsi qu'il est fixé par l'arrêté réglementaire de la Préfecture, du 20 Décembre 1814.

Les ordres d'admission ou de sortie sont délivrés par la commission, et rendus exécutoires par le visa de l'administrateur-commissaire.

Art. 40. Les aliénés sont pensionnaires ou indigents. L'ordre d'entrée que fait délivrer la commission indique à cet égard la classe à laquelle appartient l'aliéné, et le quartier dans lequel il doit être placé.

Art. 41. Les soins médicaux, l'application des remèdes, bains, douches, ou autres moyens de guérison, sont les mêmes pour toutes les classes. Il n'est établi de différence entre les aliénés indigents et les pensionnaires, que relativement au régime alimentaire et à leur séparation dans des quartiers distincts.

Art. 42. Les pensionnaires que leur famille n'entretient pas de vêtements, sont revêtus du costume de l'hôpital.

Art. 43. La supérieure règle, d'après les saisons, et en consultant l'état des divers individus, les heures du lever et du coucher.

Art. 44. Immédiatement après le lever, les loges et les cours sont nettoyées et balayées, les lits faits, etc., par les infirmiers, aidés des aliénés indigents que leur état permet d'employer à ces travaux.

Art. 45. Les aliénés font trois repas par jour, savoir :

Le déjeuné,

Le dîné,

Le souper.

Chaque aliéné prend son repas dans sa loge, à l'exception de ceux que la supérieure juge susceptibles d'être réunis dans des réfectoires communs.

Art. 46. Les aliénés sont constamment surveillés dans chaque cour par deux infirmiers, sous les ordres d'une sœur.

Art. 47. Les parents des aliénés qui désirent les voir, s'adressent par écrit à la supérieure, qui, après avoir reconnu si l'état de l'aliéné permet les communications, en prévient les parents, par écrit également, en indiquant le jour et l'heure auxquels ils pourront être reçus. Munis de cette réponse, les parents se présentent à l'administrateur-commissaire, qui délivre, s'il y a lieu, le permis de visiter.

Dispositions Générales.

Art. 48. Le public n'est point admis dans la chapelle de l'hôpital des Aliénés.

Art. 49. La commission fait les règlements de détail que peut nécessiter l'application des articles organiques qui précèdent. Si des cas non prévus exigent des modifications ou additions au règlement général, il y est procédé par M. le Préfet, sur la proposition de la commission administrative.

Arrêté par la commission administrative des hospices de Bordeaux, dans la séance du 26 Février 1822.

Desfourniel, Vice-Président.

Lous Fabre,

Sarget,

Duprat,

Portal,

Loriague aîné,

} Administrateurs.

Vu et approuvé, Bordeaux, le 11 Mars 1822.

Le Préfet de la Gironde,

C^{te} de Breteuil.

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CONSULATE OF BAYONNE,

DEPARTMENT OF THE LOWER PYRENEES.

ANSWERS to the QUERIES of the Poor Law Commissioners, enclosed in H. M. Consul's
Despatch, 12 June 1834.

VAGRANTS.

1. To what extent and under what form does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country? 2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country, seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded and under what regulations?—Mendicity, under the head of vagrancy, is not prevalent in the department of the Lower Pyrenees; the relief afforded to French subjects passing through the department, seeking work (which seldom occurs), or returning to their native places, is at the rate of three sols per league, or $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per mile; but this relief is more frequently granted to foreigners in distress, and is paid by the several mayors at certain stations or towns on their route. There is no public relief granted to vagrants living by begging.

DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

There are no public or private establishments or relief afforded to the destitute able-bodied or their families; but this description of pauper is seldom or ever to be met with in this department.

IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

There are no public or religious institutions or regulations for the relief of the poor in general; they subsist by begging; and when no longer able to do so, they receive a trifling relief from "The Ladies of Charity" (*Dames de la Charité*), who make quarterly collections from the respectable inhabitants, which these ladies distribute in food, fuel or money, to the *pauvres hontus*, or infirm, as the case may be; but this private voluntary subscription is very inadequate.

The inhabitants of Bayonne (and it is hoped and expected that the example will be followed in other places) are now occupied in forming, by voluntary annual subscriptions, an establishment for the relief of the poor; a commission of gentlemen has been appointed, and there is every prospect that this charitable undertaking will be crowned with success.

I have added my name to the list of subscribers, and have only to regret that my means will not admit of my subscribing more largely, considering that His Majesty's subjects in distress may benefit by this establishment.

SICK.

In the towns there are public hospitals for the sick and wounded; but when convalescent, they are obliged immediately to quit the hospital, destitute or not.

At the Chef Lieu of the department (at Pau) there is a public venereal hospital, where females who have been found by the police to have the bad disorder upon them are conveyed, even from one end of the department to the other, in open carts, escorted by the gendarmery; a disgusting practice in a civilized country, and it might be supposed completely at variance with French courtesy.

CHILDREN.

Illegitimate.

1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall; wholly upon the mothers, or wholly upon the fathers; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations?—Illegitimate children (infants only) are received into the hospitals established by the famous St. Vincent de Paul, but where the parents have no communication with or control over them; these children are placed out to nurse in the country at about 5s. a month, and are afterwards provided for by the hospital, if in the course of seven years they are not claimed by the parents. The secrecy of this excellent establishment, which is supported by the funds of the corporation and endowments (as also the hospital for the sick), has proved a complete preventive of the horrible crime of infanticide.

If females were compelled by law to support their illegitimate children, without the option of depositing them in the hospitals, the crime of infanticide would undoubtedly be increased to an alarming degree.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards?—There are no regulations which compel parents to assist in the maintenance of bastards; but when not deposited in the hospitals, the mothers have invariably been found to bestow upon their infants the most scrupulous care and attention, the natural consequence of having had the firmness and humanity not to abandon their offspring, notwithstanding the facility of concealment held out to them by the hospital.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?—Illegitimate children are supported in no other way than by their admission into the hospital, or in the manner above stated.

ORPHANS, FOUNDLINGS, OR DESERTED CHILDREN.

There are no public or private institutions or regulations for orphans.

Foundlings in a state of infancy are received into the hospitals of St. Vincent de Paul.

Deserted Children—There are no public or private regulations or institutions under head; but I have not heard of a case in question in this department.

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CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

Cripples.—Obliged to beg if destitute, there being no public or private institutions or regulations for cripples.

The deaf and dumb, if poor and destitute, are obliged to beg; there are excellent establishments in the large towns for their instruction, for those who have the means.

Blind.—Obliged to beg, there are no public or private institutions for them.

IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

There are no public or private institutions for idiots.

There is an institution (Maison de Force) for the admission of lunatics at the Chef Lieu of the department only (at Pau).

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

You are requested to state whether the receipt, or the expectation of relief, appears to produce any, and what effect,

1st, On the industry of the labourers? 2d, On their frugality? 3d, On the age at which they marry? 4th, On the mutual dependence and affection of parent, children, and other relatives?—The small prospects of public or private relief held out to the lower classes has naturally the effect of giving impulse to industry and frugality, and increasing the mutual affection of parent, children and other relatives; it does not appear to produce any particular effect on the age of marriages.

5th, What, on the whole, is the condition of the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, as compared with the condition of the person subsisting on alms or public charity. Is the condition of the latter, as to food and freedom from labour, more or less eligible? (See p. 261 & 335 of the Poor Law "Extracts?")—There can be no comparison drawn between the self-supported able-bodied labourer of the lowest class, and the person subsisting on alms or public charity, there being no public establishments or relief for the poor.

LABOURERS, &c.

1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month, or the year, with and without provisions, in summer and in winter?—The general and average amount of wages of an able-bodied male labourer is at the rate of 25 sols, or 1 s., per diem, either in summer or winter, or in the town or country.

2. Is piece-work general?—Piece-work is not general.

3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—A good artisan may expect to earn from 2 s. 6 d. to 3 s. per diem, an average workman from 1 s. 3 d. to 1 s. 6 d. per diem, throughout the year, Sundays and fête days excepted.

4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?

5. Is there any, and what employment for women and children?

6. What can women, and children under 16, earn per week in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed?

7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife, and four children, aged 14, 11, 8 and 5 years, respectively, (the eldest a boy), expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?

8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children, and if so, on what food?

9. Could it lay by anything, and how much?

10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?

11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations?

12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale?

13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?

The above questions relative to hired country labourers are not altogether applicable to this department, which is invariably divided into small farms, not exceeding from 20 to 30 English acres each, the families on each farm sufficing for the cultivation thereof, the proprietors or the farmers being themselves the labourers of the soil, the neighbours assisting each other in time of harvest; consequently it seldom occurs that a hired labourer is called in; but when employed they are paid at the rate of about 1 s. per diem, without food. The women, and the children from the age of 10 years, constantly work on the land. The children generally receive a primary education at the village day-schools, where there is always a schoolmaster or mistress appointed by the authorities; price of education, 2 francs

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(about 1 s. 7 d.) per month. At these schools the children are prepared for their first communion; they learn reading, writing and calculation. The food of the proprietor or farmer labourer chiefly consists in vegetable soups, potatoes, salt fish, pork, bacon, &c., and seldom or ever butcher's meat, and invariably Indian corn bread, homebaked. These persons (who are generally the owners of the soil) procure for themselves a comfortable subsistence, but they are seldom able to lay by anything. The equal division of the land prevents in a great measure mendicity. The families on each farm in the whole department consist on an average of about five persons.

14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?—The population of the department of the Lower Pyrenees, according to the last census taken in 1831, is 428,401; of which, annual deaths 8,507.

15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?—Proportion of annual births, 11,266.

16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?—Proportion of annual marriages, 2,583.

17. The average number of children to a marriage?—Each family in general is not numerous.

18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?—Annual legitimate births, 10,489; illegitimate ditto, 777; total 11,266.

19. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year? 20. Before the end of their tenth year? 21. Before the end of their eighteenth year?—The only calculation on deaths that I have been able to obtain is as follows; viz.

From 3 months to 4 years	-	-	-	-	3,307	deaths.
Ditto - - 4 to 20	-	-	-	-	1,516	—
Ditto - - 20 to 40	-	-	-	-	811	—
Ditto - - 40 to 60	-	-	-	-	951	—
Ditto - - 60 to 80	-	-	-	-	1,031	—
Ditto - - 80 to 90	-	-	-	-	737	—
Ditto - - 90 to 95	-	-	-	-	104	—
Ditto - - 95 to 100	-	-	-	-	38	—
Ditto - - 100 and upwards	-	-	-	-	12	—
Total - -					8,507	

N. B. It is calculated that persons attain a more advanced age in this department than in any other in France.

22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—There is nothing remarkable as to the age of marriage; very young marriages are not common.

23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—Males cannot marry in France under the age of 25 years, and females under the age of 21, without the consent of both their parents, or producing a certificate of their death. Having attained the ages of 21 and 25 years, if the parents refuse consent to the marriage, then the children are compelled to make three legal acts of respect or declarations, when the marriage can be legally celebrated at the town-hall, in the presence of the mayor or his assistants. The law does not require any religious ceremony.

24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried; 2d, the married, save?—Amongst the lower orders, their savings are very inconsiderable.

25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—There are no saving banks of any note. The lower classes invest their money sometimes in the purchase of small farms, or on houses and land in the neighbourhood; but more frequently they keep it locked up at home.

DENMARK.

LETTER from *Peter Browne*, Esq., to the Right hon. Viscount *Palmerston*, G. C. B.,
&c. &c. &c.

My Lord,

Copenhagen, January 21st, 1834.

I HAVE the honour of enclosing Replies to the series of Questions relative to the provision for the poor in Denmark, required by your Lordship in Sir George Shee's Circular of the 30th November. I likewise enclose a translated copy of the Poor Laws, together with two communications made to me on the subject, by country gentlemen of great practical knowledge, and who have long and anxiously watched the working of the system in all its various points of view.

I have, &c.

(signed) *Peter Browne*.

Enclosure, No. 1.

(Enclosure, No. 1.)

VAGRANTS.

Question 1. To what extent and under what form does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?—*Answer.* Very little indeed in the Danish dominions.

Q. 2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded, and under what regulations?—*A.* None, except when taken ill; but all expense incurred by his illness must be paid by the parish to which he legally belongs, as also the expense of his burial, should he die.

DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

Q. 1. To what extent and under what regulations are they, or any part of their families, billeted or quartered on householders?—*A.* The system of billeting is resorted to when there is no regular poor-house established in the parish.

Q. 2. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—*A.* Depends on the discretionary decision of the Poor Committee.

Q. 3. To what extent and under what regulations are there district houses of industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families, and supplying them with food, clothes, &c. and in which they are set to work?—*A.* Some have already been bought or built. Wherever the poor are numerous, the parish builds or procures a poor-house, as less expensive than the billeting system. Poor-houses are on the increase at present, so much so that it is thought something will be done to prevent its going further. In the island of Funen there is a general poor-house, or house of industry, for the whole island, into which all poor and vagrants who will not work in the parish poor-houses are sent and compelled to labour; there they are subject to strict discipline, and in cases of insubordination, solitary confinement is inflicted. It is intended to establish such houses in all the great divisions of the Danish dominions. Such labour as is imposed in the parish poor-houses is very trifling, and the whole of the machinery employed in the management extremely defective. I do not think it would be possible to alter it much for the better. The system itself is wrong; favouritism, prejudice and partiality have so much room for play, that relief is often refused where it is required, and often afforded when it should be refused.

Q. 4. To what extent, and under what regulations, do any religious institutions give assistance to the destitute, by receiving them as inmates, or by giving them alms?—*A.* Many establishments of this nature exist—rather, however, to be designated benevolent than religious. It is the business of the Poor Committee, where such establishments exist, to take care that the will of the founder be in all points of view carried into effect; but such are liable to great abuse, in consequence of the defective machinery employed. They possess some trifling privileges and exemptions, not sufficiently important to note. The great majority of these establishments existed before the existence of the Poor Laws (1803 generally established). It has been found, that bequests in favour of charitable institutions, as well as private charity, have diminished since the introduction of Poor Laws, and that, therefore, the latter tends to dry up the fountain of individual benevolence and charity. The Jews must support their own poor.

Q. 5. To what extent, and under what regulations, is work provided at their own dwellings for those who have trades, but do not procure work for themselves?—*A.* Left to the discretion

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cretion of the Poor Committee, according to circumstances; but this discretion, for reasons assigned in Answer 3, is often exercised in a manner both injudicious and unjust.

Q. 6. To what extent, and under what regulations, is work provided for such persons, in agriculture or on public works?—A. A pauper, able and willing to work, and who states he cannot procure work, must have it found for him by the Poor Committee; but this is seldom the case. A story, well hung together, will generally procure him provisions, sometimes money. And herein arises abuse; he obtains the one or the other, works at home for himself, and for others from his home, and pockets or consumes besides, gratis, what he receives from the parish. It is true that this sort of trickery cannot be long practised by the same individual; but still there is always a great temptation to attempt it, and as the individual energy of the pauper is always sharp and active, it is greatly an overmatch for the Poor Committee, who, having their own business, private and public, to attend to, can hardly be expected to sift each case with the degree of accuracy and patience necessary to detect and punish the attempted imposition.

Q. 7. To what extent, and under what regulations, are fuel, clothing or money distributed to such persons, or their families, at all times of the year, or during any particular seasons?—A. Left to the discretion of the Poor Committee in all cases.

Q. 8. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they relieved, by their children being taken into schools, and fed, clothed and educated, or apprenticed?—A. The children of all poor persons are educated gratis, and the parish is taxed, for the payment of the schoolmaster, repairs of school-house, books, paper, pens, ink, &c. When the poor cannot afford to clothe their children, clothes are provided. Such clothes are often made by the poor working in the parish poor-houses. In manufactories the children are allowed to work the whole day; but the master manufacturer must provide a schoolmaster, &c. at his own cost, and all the children he employs must receive instructions during the evening. All children must attend the parish school, except in the above case.

Q. 9. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are the relatives of the destitute compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking charge of part of their families?—A. Only the parents.

Q. 10. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they assisted by loans?—Sometimes for a short period; this, however, is not common.

IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

Q. 1. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there alms-houses or other institutions for the reception of those who through age are incapable of earning their subsistence?—A. Such often find asylums in the establishments referred to, No. 4, (previous head.) But in case they are not admitted, the parish to which they belong is obliged to support them in the poor-house or otherwise.

Q. 2. To what extent, and under what regulations, is relief in food, fuel, clothing or money afforded them at their homes?—A. *Vide* previous head, No. 5.

Q. 3. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they boarded with individuals?—A. *Vide* previous head, No. 2.

Q. 4. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they quartered or billeted on the householders?—A. *Vide* previous head, No. 1.

Q. 5. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking part of their families?—*Vide* previous head, No. 9.

SICK.

Q. 1. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there district institutions for the reception of the sick?—A. In every bailiwick there is an hospital into which the sick poor are admitted, or, what is more generally the case, medical attendance and medicines are supplied them at home, at the cost of the parish. Every parish has its midwife, every district its surgeon, and at least one apothecary, and every bailiwick or province its physician. These persons are obliged to attend the poor at a stipulated rate, enjoying besides some exclusive privileges.

Q. 2. To what extent, and under what regulations, are surgical and medical relief afforded to the poor at their own homes?—A. *Vide* No. 1, above.

Q. 3. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick?—A. None.

Q. 4. To what extent, and under what regulations, is assistance given to lying-in women at their homes, or in public establishments?—A. In Copenhagen there is one very extensive, in which the women are maintained till quite recovered. In the country none. But the parish midwife, who has been expressly educated for the purpose, is obliged to attend all the women belonging to it. She is paid as well as the physician, surgeon, &c. by an annual charge on the parish.

Q. 5. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick?—A. None, of which I am aware.

Q. 6. To

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CHILDREN.

Illegitimate.

Q. 1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall; wholly upon the mothers, or wholly upon the fathers; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations?—A. The support of such falls in the first instance on the mother. The father, however, on her application is obliged to assist until the child is 10 years old, but no longer. The yearly sum which he is to contribute is settled by the high bailiff of the province, according to circumstances more or less. If the father cannot, or will not, pay the stipulated sum, he is confined in prison a day on bread and water for every dollar (2s.) which the amtsmand (high bailiff) has directed him to be assessed. The least sum he can be rated to pay is 10 dollars per annum, or 1*l.* sterling. It very often occurs that imprisonment under such circumstances and for such causes takes place.

Q. 2. To what extent, and under what regulations, are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards?—A. Parents of the mother can be compelled, but in no case the parents of the father.

Q. 3. To what extent, and under what regulations, are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?—A. In case the father and mother cannot support them, they are then supported as other children of the parish.

Orphans, Foundlings, or Deserted Children.

	ORPHANS.	FOUNDLINGS.	DESERTED CHILDREN, whose Parents are known.
Q. 4. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they taken into establishments for their reception?	- - A. Generally supported by the parish in poor-house; or if there is none, as other parish children.	-- Generally supported by the parish in poor-house; or, if there is none, as other parish children.	- - The parents must support them if they can; if not, the parish.
Q. 5. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they billeted or quartered on householders?	- - A. As other poor, and according to the discretion of the Poor Committee.	- - As other poor, and according to the discretion of the Poor Committee.	- - As other poor, and according to the discretion of the Poor Committee.
Q. 6. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they boarded with individuals?	- - Ditto.	- - ditto.	- - ditto.
Q. 7. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?	- - Ditto.	- - ditto.	- - ditto.

CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

	CRIPPLES.	DEAF AND DUMB.	BLIND.
Q. 1. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there establishments for their reception?	-- A. Many establishments exist for their special support; but where they do not exist, the parish must take the most particular care of them.	-- At Copenhagen and Slesvig, there are two institutions exclusively for their education, maintenance, &c. If such, or the parents of such, cannot pay their expenses, the parish must defray them.	-- At Copenhagen there is one supported by private subscription, principally by persons forming a sort of freemason lodge. Education, clothes, food, &c. are afforded. In case of weakness of intellect, either in this case, or in that of the deaf and dumb, the parish may support persons thus afflicted in the parish, the cost being much less than when sent to the institutions referred to.

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IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

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	IDIOTS.	LUNATICS.
Q. 1. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there establishments for their support?	A. The parish must support them, unless the parents can.	- - Confined in madhouses, if dangerous; the expense paid by the parish.
Q. 2. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they billeted or quartered on householders?	A. As other paupers.	- - As other paupers.
Q. 3. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they boarded with individuals?		
Q. 4. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?		

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

You are requested to state whether the receipt or the expectation of relief appears to produce any and what effect—

Q. 1. On the industry of the labourers?—A. On their industry, allowed on all hands to be most injurious, involving the levelling principle to a very great degree, lowering the middleman to the poor man, and the poor man who labours to the pauper supported by the parish. It tends to harden the heart of the poor man, who demands with all that authority with which the legal right to provision invests him. There is no thankfulness for what is gotten, and what is given is afforded with dislike and reluctance.

Q. 2. On their frugality?—A. The Poor Laws greatly weaken the frugal principle.

Q. 3. On the age at which they marry?—A. Encourage early and thoughtless marriages. The children are brought up with the example of indolence and inactivity before their eyes, which must be most prejudicial in after-life. I have often remarked amongst the people, who are naturally soft, susceptible and sympathizing, an extraordinary insensibility towards those who voluntarily relieve them, even at the moment of relief, and no gratitude whatever afterwards. I can attribute this most undesirable state of feeling, so contrary to what might be expected from the natural character of the people, solely to the perpetual association of right to relief. Thus does the system always disturb and often destroy the moral and kindly relation which should subsist and which is natural between the higher and lower orders. The poor man becomes stiff and sturdy; the rich man indifferent to the wants and sufferings of the poor one. He feels him a continual pressure, at moments inconvenient to relieve, and under circumstances where he would often withhold if he could, partly from dislike to the compulsory principle, and often not regarding the case as one of real charity, and disapproving, as he naturally may, of the whole system of Poor Laws, administration. From all I have observed I feel persuaded (and I have lived a good deal in the country, having had much connexion with the lower orders, and not having been indifferent to their condition either moral or physical) that a more mischievous system could not have been devised—that poverty has been greatly increased by weakening the springs of individual effort, and destroying independence of character—that the lower orders have become tricky, sturdy and unobliging, the higher orders cold and uncharitable, and in short, that ere long, unless some strenuous steps are taken, Denmark will drink deep of the bitter cup of which England, by a similar system, has been so long drinking to her grievous cost. Were there no other objection, the machinery is wanting to conduct so delicate and complicated a system. And were it the best possible, and had the managers no other occupation but

but the one, the ingenuity of idleness to escape from action is so great, that it would often, very often defeat eyes less actively open to detect it. I have spoken with few who do not object to the system from first to last, or who do not press an opinion that the state of the population before the existence of the Poor Laws was more desirable by far than at present.

Q. 4. On the mutual dependence and affection of parent, children and other relatives?—No doubt it materially disturbs the natural dependence and affection of parent and child. The latter feels his parent comparatively needless to him; he obtains support elsewhere; and the former feels the obligation to support the latter greatly diminished. In short, being comparatively independent of each other, the affections must inevitably become blunted.

Q. 5. What, on the whole, is the condition of the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, as compared with the condition of the person subsisting on alms or public charity: is the condition of the latter, as to food and freedom from labour, more or less eligible?—A. Were I a Danish labourer, I would endeavour to live partly on my own labour and partly on the parish, and I feel persuaded that a labourer so living in Denmark will be better off than one who gets no help from the parish; that is, the former, from a knowledge that he may fall back on the parish, will spend all he earns at the time on coffee, spirits, tobacco, snuff, &c., whereas the latter, who certainly can live on his industry (except under extraordinary and occasional emergencies, sickness, &c.) is debarred from such gratifications. Under such circumstances, the *poorer* labourer is better off than the *poor* one.

LABOURERS, &c.

Q. 1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer by the day, the week, the month or the year, with and without provisions, in summer and in winter?—A. Between 6*d.* and 8*d.* a day. In harvest time provisions, but of a very poor quality, are given.

Q. 2. Is piece-work general?—A. Not very, and not well executed.

Q. 3. What, on the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—A. About 15*l.* The Sunday in one shape or other is almost, if not altogether, as much a day of work as any other of the week. Artisans may be rated at one-third more, but their relative position in point of means is the same, because of the greater expense of living in towns, and being generally more extravagant and debauched.

Q. 4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?—A. Little short of the whole of their earnings. Artisans are not by any means so sure of work as labourers. I should prefer the position of the latter to the former in this country, unless a first-rate artisan.

Q. 5. Is there any, and what, employment for women and children?—A. In summer they can easily procure work, but not in winter.

Q. 6. What can women and children under sixteen earn per week in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed?—A. A woman may earn about 4*d.* a day if she be industrious during the year round. Children until fourteen being kept at school can help their parents but little, except in spring and harvest time, when they are allowed to remain at home to assist in sowing and reaping. During these two months, perhaps, they may earn, including two under sixteen, about 1*s.* per day, and the husband 8*d.* The least quantity of food, and the most simple, on which each such person can live, is 3 lbs. of black or rye bread, which costs about 4 skillings, or 1*d.* per lb., and about 1 lb. of butter each week, costing 6*d.* If you take the seven days (they generally work on Sundays) and suppose a family as above described in regular work, their earnings will be 12*s.* a week, and the cost of their food will be about 1*s.* 4*d.* per day, or about 9*s.* 4*d.* per week; and when it is considered that the remaining 2*s.* 8*d.* is to cover house-rent, fuel, beer and clothing, the labourer and his poor family will be found to have no large balance in hand between them and parish relief, especially if sickness or other such event should occur, making an extraordinary demand on their means, together with a deduction from their power of earning.

Q. 7. What, on the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8 and 5 years respectively (the eldest a boy) expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?—A. Very little more than a woman, perhaps in harvest a trifle more, about 6½*d.* At Copenhagen the wages are higher. My replies refer to the country generally. But in the country provisions are in the same proportion cheaper.

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Q. 8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children, and if so, on what food?—A. It is frequently done; the food, wholesome rye bread, bad milk cheese, shocking butter, coffee, as it is called, profusion of tobacco and snuff, and too much spirits, which are unfortunately cheap and very bad.

Q. 9. Could it lay by any thing, and how much?—A. I do not think, under ordinary circumstances, it could.

Q. 10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?—About one acre, for which he pays (his house-rent included) about thirty days work, but which generally falls much more heavily on the occupant than the proportion of the time he gives, because his landlord, sometimes a great proprietor, sometimes a small one, sometimes a farmer (who takes the farm with the cottages on it, the tenants subject to duty work) takes care to employ him when labour is most scarce, and therefore most dear, in spring and in harvest. His labour thus given may be valued at about 2*l.*, a large deduction out of the 25*l.* per annum he, his wife and children may with great industry earn.

Q. 11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations?—
A. Generally the nobility.

Q. 12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale?—A. Never sold; rent paid as per Answer 10.

Q. 13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—A. None, except annexed to their habitations. In this case one acre. About half of the country is in possession of petty proprietors, the remainder half great proprietors, whose situation was very bad, but is now, although slowly, on the improve, like that of all other proprietors. They let the land to farmers, who, as well as the little proprietors, employ those who live solely by labour. Farming labour, however, is often, indeed very generally, executed by hired servants taken from the class of labourers. Such labourers are much better off than those who live in hired cottages, and are dependent on daily work.

Q. 14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?

Q. 15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?

Q. 16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?

Q. 17. The average number of children to a marriage?

Q. 18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?

Q. 19. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year?

Q. 20. Proportion of children that die before the end of their tenth year?

Q. 21. Proportion of children that die before the end of their eighteenth year?

—A. I defer replying to these questions for a short time, as a new census of the population, and all relating to it, will be shortly published.

Q. 22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—A. Women, 22, men, 28, when the period of serving or rather training for the army is over.

Q. 23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—A. No cause by law, except when the couple happen to be both paupers living in the parish; but this is so easily evaded that it is no hindrance whatever. The prudential check, however, operates considerably. I am informed that in Funen it often occurs that amongst the lower orders, in case of cohabitation, there is an understanding that marriage is not to take place unless the woman become pregnant. Then the peasant immediately, as in honour bound, marries her. Amongst the higher orders matrimonial engagements are often made several years before marriage takes place.

Q. 24. Extent to which, 1st. the unmarried, 2d. the married, save?—A. The unmarried man can save more, but, being more improvident, saves less.

Q. 25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—The first thing a Dane does with his savings is to purchase a clock, then a horse or cow, which he hires out, and which pays a good interest. Then his ambition is to become a petty proprietor; and this class of persons is better off than any in Denmark. He purchases cheap (all present charges on the land taken into consideration), and his way of living being very economical. Indeed, I know of no people in any country who have more easily within their reach all that is really necessary for life than this class, which is very large in comparison with that of labourers. It is very rare that petty proprietors get parish relief. The amount of savings invested in the Savings Banks since the establishment in 1816 is upwards of 10,000,000 dollars, or 1,000,000*l.*, about 15*s.* per head for the whole population. Two millions of these dollars are invested at

Copenhagen,

Copenhagen, principally by servants, petty shopkeepers, and artisans a little better off than the rest. So large an unemployed sum proves how small the means are of industriously employing capital in this country, as likewise that the people are naturally saving.

Enclosure, No. 2.

THE POOR ESTABLISHMENT IN DENMARK PROPER.

(A.) *for the Country.*

THE country people may, as well as the rest of the inhabitants of the kingdom, be divided into two principal classes; the one comprehending those able and bound to provide for themselves by their own means or labour, consequently not needing support from the public, or their fellow citizens; the other, the really indigent, who are unable without assistance to procure for themselves and their families the most scanty means of supporting life.

The assistance rendered the indigent by the public or their fellow citizens for their maintenance, is generally called alms.

The laws and establishments of the country have provided for such really indigent people, either by admitting them into hospitals and poor houses, or affording them aid by compulsory or voluntary assessments on their fellow citizens, founded on law.

The Danish Law B. 2. 6. 19. treats of hospitals, and the regulations therein contained are common to the whole realm, including the cities and towns as well as the country. The greater number of hospitals have their own special foundations, and only few poor houses are found in the country districts, to which the said regulations (principally concerning those on a larger scale) are applicable.

Various opinions have of late been entertained as to the question "whether the poor, according to common law principles, are entitled to crave support, and the rich consequently in duty bound to afford the same by assessments." In England, where poor laws have long existed, Malthus, in his Essay on Population, endeavours to prove the perniciousness of this maxim, even to the class of individuals intended to be benefited thereby; considering that such individuals are thus induced rashly to intermarry; occasioning distress that can only be imperfectly relieved, and imposing a burden too heavy on their fellow citizens.

The legislature of our country has for a length of time considered it to be a sacred duty for the rich and those in easy circumstances to provide for the indigent (Ordinance of 6th October 1731), but it is only by recent ordinances that it is made incumbent on the parishes in the country and towns, to provide for the poor by contributions regulated by the respective poor committees.

According to the General Regulations (Reglement) for the poor establishments in the country, dated the 10th of June 1803, published by the Chancery under the sanction of his Majesty, the whole country is divided into parish districts, as many as there are parsons, each parish being bound to provide for its own poor. In extraordinary cases all the parishes contained in a bailiwick (amt) must contribute to support a single one; and certain expenses considered as relating to more than one district, and as too heavy for the same, are to be defrayed out of a general poor fund common to the whole bailiwick.

General Regulations.

The poor establishment for each parish is administered by a Committee. These committees are subordinate to a Poor Directory for each bailiwick, and the whole poor establishment is under the control of the Chancery.

Poor Committees.

It being incumbent on each parish to provide for the poor in the same, it is a matter of importance to decide what poor people shall be considered as belonging to each parish. In this respect the general regulations above mentioned declare (§ 6.) that any individual who for the last three successive years has resided in a parish, in the enjoyment of a lawful livelihood, shall be entitled to support, when becoming in want thereof. The same right is granted to those who have been born and educated in the parish, and who shall be residing there at the time they become in need of support, even although they may formerly have been domiciliated at another place. And likewise to those who during the last three years, notwithstanding occasional periods of absence, have upon the whole resided more at the parish in question than at any other place, and maintained themselves lawfully during their stay. The same privilege is extended to strangers, who may have established themselves in a parish with a reasonable prospect of maintaining themselves there, but who afterwards, through unforeseen misfortunes, have become indigent. (§ 8) grants the same right to persons craving immediate relief, provided they have not resided so long at another place in the Danish dominions as to be entitled to support there, or provided their birth-place cannot be ascertained. It is further enacted by a placard of 14th December 1810, that the aid a poor

Qualifications for being entitled to support.

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person is judged to be in need of, is to be given to him at the place he requires the same, even in the case that he has not resided there for three years, and that he shall not leave, much less be forcibly expelled from, the parish in which he is supported before it has been ascertained, either by correspondence with the respective magistracy, or by a resolution from the Chancery at what other place he ought to be provided for in future. The parish thus judged in duty bound to provide for him must thereupon reimburse the other parish that supported him *ad interim* for the amount of its disbursements. It is enacted by the same placard that no person not yet wanting support is to be turned out of the poor district in which he lives, under the pretext that he might likely in course of time become a burthen on the district. A poor person, having relations or friends willing and able to assist him, may be permitted to live with them, and there enjoy the pecuniary support allowed him from the parish to which he belongs.

Remarks.

1. A circular letter from the Chancery of 5th March 1803, declares, that every person able and in duty bound to contribute to the poor, shall, in case of his afterwards becoming in want, be entitled to support from the parish, without distinction as to religion.

2. It is a matter of course that wives, widows and children, who are in want, are entitled to support from the parish of the husband and father, so long as they do not reside at another parish. Natural children follow the mother in this respect.

The different
classes.

The parish committees are to decide, if and how far a person demanding support of the poor establishment may be considered to be really in want of the same (§ 35). As a general rule, it is declared, (§ 5) that only such persons as are unable to earn their bread in a lawful manner by their own exertions, are to be considered qualified for support; but in respect to the degree and mode of support (§ 21) divides them into three classes.

1. Those who are so old and infirm that they are nearly totally unable to earn any thing for the first necessities of life.

2. Orphans, or the children of parents, whose mental disabilities, ill health, or bad morals are such that the rearing and education of the children ought not to be left to them.

3. Families, or single persons, from some cause or other, unable to earn as much as will barely support their own lives and that of their children.

Members of the
Committee.

The parish committee is to consist of the parson, the police-master of the place, one of the most considerable landholders, and three or four of the most respectable parishioners, according to the extent of the parish. (§ 2.)

The Parson.

It is in particular incumbent on the parson,—

1st. Minutely to examine the poor applying to him for support, and to arrange an interim provision for those in need thereof; for which purpose, he shall be furnished with requisite advances from the poor fund of the parish to defray running expenses. (§§ 16, 17, 44, 45.)

2d. To inform the district physician when any of the poor require his assistance in case of illness (§ 19, 20); and see that the physician's directions are duly followed.

3d. To publish from the pulpit the names of the persons appointed members of the committee, and admonish the congregation to support them in their functions (§ 27); and likewise make known from the pulpit when the committee holds a meeting. (§ 30.)

4th. To keep the records of the committee, for which purpose he shall be provided with a protocol, at the expense of the parish, authorized by the high bailiff (amtmand.) (§ 32.)

5th. At the end of every year to lay before the committee a detailed plan for the provision of the poor for the ensuing year, agreeably to a Schedule sent by the Poor Directory for the bailiwick; containing a list of all persons entitled to support; his opinion as to what ought to be allowed every individual; and in what manner the same ought to be assessed on the parishioners; and, finally, a list of those that have applied for support, but who were not considered as entitled thereto. (§ 34.)

6th. To publish from the pulpit the plan for the provision of the poor, and cause the same to be sent to the overseers of the parish, to be by them made known to the rest of the parishioners. (§ 36, 38.)

7th. To keep account of the receipts and disbursements of the poor fund, and reply to the remarks and observations made regarding the same.

The District Judge.

The District Judge, being a member of committees in all the parishes under his jurisdiction, is to meet in the same, as often as his other official duties permit; and, when he is prevented, he shall appoint one of the overseers to meet for him.

The Landholder, to be a member of the committee, is chosen by the high bailiff, and some other respectable landholders.

The

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The rest of the members, being three or four of the parishioners, are to be chosen by the parson, the police-master, and principal landholder, and, after three years service, by all the members of the committee. It is their duty to impart to the rest of the members all elucidations required; to assist the parson and police-master in executing the resolutions of the committee; to collect and deliver to the parson all voluntary contributions, &c.

The committee, as a body, has to decide the provision for each poor person; and how, and how much each individual parishioner has to contribute towards this provision.

According to the general regulations, (§ 12,) the members of the first class shall be provided with,

- (a) Food.
- (b) The necessary clothes.
- (c) Lodgings and fuel.
- (d) Medical assistance in case of illness.

Concerning the food no invariable rule is laid down; but it is left to the respective poor committees to decide *how* the parishioners are to deliver what is required, whether in bread or other victuals (which ought to be conveyed to those that are too old or weak to fetch the same themselves), or in grain or money, or otherwise providing for the poor in the manner most expedient.

By a letter from the Chancery of 24 November 1804, a resolution passed by the Poor Directory for the bailiwick of Soroë has been approved of, by which it is stipulated that the provision for the poor throughout the whole bailiwick is to be regulated in this way: that its members shall, in as far as they cannot be lodged and boarded in the houses of respectable inhabitants of the parish, and when circumstances do not require an exception from the rule, enjoy the support allowed them in bread, grits, flour and other victuals, according to the local situation of the place; as also in clothes, fuel, lodging and other necessities, which are to be delivered in kind by the inhabitants of the parish, or purchased by the committee for account of the poor's fund; whereas the support in money is to be limited to a mere trifle: and it is supposed that this mode of providing is most in harmony with the intentions of the legislature. As to lodgings and fuel, it is in general stipulated that the same shall be procured for the poor belonging to the first class, by lodging them in convenient houses.

In respect to poor children, it is enjoined (§ 13) that the parish committee shall lodge them in some house or other, in order to be reared and educated under the inspection of the committee, until they can go into service or be otherwise provided for; and this inspection of the committee shall continue until the children are confirmed. They shall frequent the school from their sixth or seventh year, and be instructed gratis, and be provided with the necessary books and writing materials (§ 41, 42, 43.) The maximum of the term for supporting children must be their eighteenth year.

Concerning the poor belonging to the 3d class, it is enjoined (§ 14.) that they shall so far receive aid as to insure them a supply of the first wants of nature, without which life cannot be supported, and recourse must be had to begging; but it must be made a matter of necessity for them to work for their maintenance, as much as they can. Pains must be taken to procure the labour suitable to their strength, and, in as far as possible, at the common price; and it is only when this will not suffice that they are to receive support, which is not to be given in money, but in food, clothes, fuel, &c.

The committees are in duty bound to provide lodging for the poor who are in want of the same, either by building houses for them, or, when this cannot be done, by quartering them with the parishioners, till other measures can be adopted.

As to the sick and infirm of all the three classes, it is enjoined, that the parson shall, when a poor person requires medical aid and attendance, give him a note to the district physician, which he is himself to go with and deliver, if he is able to walk so far, but if not, he shall be conveyed thither, that the physician may be able to examine his situation, and give his opinion in writing to the parson. If the sick person is not in a situation to be conveyed to the physician, the parson shall send a messenger, at the cost of the poor fund, to the physician with a letter, describing as correctly as possible the state of the sick person. Should the physician then find that his personal presence is necessary, he must let the parson know the time when it will be convenient for him to attend the said person, and conveyance back and forward shall be furnished to him, in rotation, by such of the parishioners as keep horses and carriages employed for farm use. The physician is to receive a remuneration from the poor fund of three marks per visit. The parson, or, if he is prevented, the member of the committee living nearest the sick person shall see that the prescriptions of the physician are duly observed, and that the sick person is properly attended to. If any person should be reduced to indigence in consequence of long illness, the committee shall support him until his circumstances are recovered again. If a sick person belongs to another district, he shall not be removed until such can be done without injuring his health.

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The Landholder.
The other Members.

Poor belonging to the 1st Class.

2d Class.

3d Class.

Lodging for the poor.

Medical assistance and attendance in case of illness.

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Sick servants.
Interment of the
poor.
Punishment in case
of disobedience or
misbehaviour.
Ways and means.

The committee shall likewise provide for sick servants, in so far as their master or mistress are unable or unwilling to do so.

A poor person, dying without relations, able and willing to defray the expenses of interment, shall be buried at the expense of the poor fund; which shall be entitled to receive reimbursement from the effects of the deceased in as far as they will go. If the effects fetch a sum above the amount expended, the surplus shall fall to the poor fund, unless the heirs indemnify it for what has been expended on the deceased. (§ 23, 24.)

The committees are authorized to punish the poor in case of disobedience or misbehaviour, either by a public reprimand or by imprisonment; but not without previously consulting the master of police.

In respect to the second principal duty of the parish committees, to determine who shall contribute to the expense of the poor, and in what proportion each individual is bound to do so: § 35 contains the general rule, that it being first ascertained how much each poor person is to receive, in what the same consists, and when and how it is to be distributed, the committee shall then decide what and how much each parishioner has to contribute according to his hartkorn,* and his other means, from whatever sources derived. The proprietors of country seats or villas are also to contribute for the time they may reside at them. It has since been enacted that servants also contribute; of which more hereafter. As soon as the committee have drawn up a plan, it is to be sanctioned by the High Bailiff or Poor Directory for the bailiwick, and published by the parson in the manner aforesaid. If any of the parishioners should find occasion to complain of being overcharged, they shall be at liberty to do so, by representing the case to the bailiff; but till he has decided they shall comply with the plan. In order to encourage the parishioners to give voluntarily more than the law has enacted, the parson and other members of the committee shall publish the amount of what each is willing to contribute.

Although the general rule is that the poor shall receive aid in kind, still there may be certain cases where pecuniary relief cannot be avoided, and the committee must frequently have occasion for pecuniary means. For this purpose it is enacted, that every parish shall have its poor chest, the income of which shall consist in—

1. The yearly contributions in money, either voluntary, or as fixed by the committee.
2. The revenue of a poor-box, circulating in the church on certain holidays.
3. Voluntary donations, on selling real property. (§ 44. 46.)

The court officers shall not record conveyances of real property in the books of registry, without a certificate from the respective parsons, that this gratuity has been paid both by the seller and purchaser.

4. A contribution for each male servant in the parish, originally two marks yearly, and for each female servant, originally 20 skillings yearly, but now in some parishes more than doubled.

Meetings of the
Committees.

The committee shall have four meetings during each year, for the purpose of deliberating on the support of the poor, and determining what contributions may be necessary for that object; and due notice shall be given from the pulpits of the times of their meetings. At these meetings the individuals receiving parish support are bound to appear when called; and in the one which takes place in the beginning of December, a plan for the maintenance of the poor during the ensuing year shall be produced by the parson, and deliberated on by the committee, to be afterwards sanctioned by the high bailiff, or poor directory for the bailiwick. If a parish is situated in more than one bailiwick, the plan and accounts must be sent to each, in so far as they may relate to them.

The Poor Direc-
tory.

The Poor Directory for the bailiwick consists of the bailiff, the collector of the King's taxes, the dean, and two respectable and considerable landholders, appointed by the Chancellor. The bishop of the diocese has also a seat in the directory, when his other functions permit him to meet. (§ 3.) To this directory are to be sent complaints against the Poor Committee, either in respect to the contributions imposed or to other matters. The directory has also to examine, revise, decide and give acquittance to all accounts relating to the poor establishment, (§ 26. 29. 39. 61.) and shall yearly report to the Chancery the condition of the same, in all the districts of the bailiwick, and in dubious cases shall require a resolution from this department of Government (§ 4.)

General Poor Chest.

The collector of the King's taxes shall take care of the general poor-chest for the bailiwick, and render account to the directory of the receipts and disbursements (§ 47, 50). The intention of this chest is to defray such expenses as do not relate to a single parish only, and

* A ton of hartkorn carries in Zealand, Funen, and the better parts of Jutland, from six to twenty acres of land, according to the quality of the soil.

and in extraordinary cases to give relief to a particular parish (§ 9, 10, 49). The revenues of this chest consist in—

1. A contribution, called Herreds casse penge, to be collected by the overseers of the parishes.
2. Fines awarded by sentences of the courts of justice, or by the reconciling courts.
3. One quarter per cent. on all private property (moveables) sold in the country at public auction.
4. A small contribution from every servant in the bailiwick.

The Poor Directory assembles twice a year, but the high bailiff may call together the members oftener, if business requires, and he is authorized to despatch such business as cannot be delayed; but he shall at the next meeting inform the directory of what he may have done.

The poor having thus been provided for, begging is prohibited, and declared to be liable to punishment. In the general regulations, (§ 62,) begging is thus defined: all persons walking about, asking and receiving alms, in consequence of words and gestures, or by exhibiting infirmity or decrepitude, shall be considered as beggars; and (§ 63) permits all and every one to detain such persons, and deliver them to the nearest parish overseer, who is to take down the deposition of the person thus detained, and that of the detainer, and other circumstances, and thereafter carry the former to the police-master, together with the said depositions, for further investigation. If it is deemed necessary the committee shall be permitted to engage one or two persons, *ad interim*, for discovering and apprehending beggars. They shall receive wages, and two marks per mile out of the poor box.

In adjudging punishment for begging, it is to be taken into consideration whether the mendicant was in need of support or not. In the first case he shall, the first time, be imprisoned fourteen days, the second time four weeks, and the third time work for a year in the house of correction. For every time the offence is committed, the punishment to be doubled (§ 64). But if the mendicant is able to work, and thus not entitled to support from the parish, he shall the first time be imprisoned four weeks, the second time eight weeks, and the third time work for two years in the house of correction, which last punishment is to be doubled for every time the offence is committed. When the term of punishment is expired, the beggar is to be sent to his home under inspection, and his travelling expenses by land in every parish through which he passes to be paid by the poor-chest of the bailiwick in which the parish lies; but his conveyance by water to be paid by the parish bound to receive him. Sick beggars and poor people not belonging to the parish, shall not be sent away before they are able to undertake the journey, and the parish in which they are, shall provide them with medical assistance, &c., and bury them if they die. If children are found begging with the consent of their parents, the latter shall be punished as if they had begged themselves; but if they beg without the consent of the parents, the children shall be warned and put under surveyance, and if they continue to beg they shall be punished with flogging.

A master of a vessel or ferryman, carrying a poor person not provided with a passport from the magistracy, shall at his own expense carry such poor person back to the place from which he came.

Any person lodging a poor person for more than one night, without giving in a report to the overseer of the parish, shall pay a fine of three marks for every night.

An overseer of a parish who, without permission of the police master, releases a beggar under arrest, shall pay a fine of four rigsbank dollars. But persons employed for taking up beggars, if they release one from detention without a proper warrant, shall be imprisoned for eight days on bread and water.

Any person neglecting to furnish carriage conveyance to poor people or beggars, when ordered to do so according to their rotation, shall pay a fine of one rigsbank dollar, besides the expenses.

All fines stipulated in the general regulations shall fall to the poor-box of the bailiwick; and all cases concerning transgressions shall be treated as matters of police.

In order to give an idea of the magnitude of the contributions and supplies in two parishes, forming a parsonage, with a population of about 1,400 souls, the following extract is made from the plan of support for 1833,

CONTRIBUTION.

Bread	- -	3,530 lbs.	Rye	- -	29 barrels.
Grits	- -	55 bushels, Danish.	Barley	- -	27 $\frac{1}{2}$ barrels.
Flour	- -	77 bushels.	Money	- -	367 rigsbank dollars.

In general the contribution in money only amounts to the half of the above sum; but in consequence of an underbalance arising chiefly from an epidemical disease a couple of years ago, it was doubled for this year. Of this contribution a single peasant (farmer) bears, bread, 103 lbs.; grits, 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ bushels; flour, 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ bushels, or the value thereof in grain; money.

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two rigsbank dollars and 32 skillings, besides extraordinary contributions out of property and yearly income, independent of his agriculture.

Members of the first class - - - - 28

Receiving each yearly from 208 to 416 lbs. of bread
— 2 „ 7 bushels grits
— 3 „ 8 ditto - flour
— 2 „ 5 rigsbank dollars in money;

And some of the members besides, 1 barrel of rye and
1 barrel of barley.

Members of the second class - - - - 10

Receiving each yearly from 1 to 3 barrels of rye
— 1 „ 3 ditto - of barley
— 6 „ 10 rigsbank dollars in money.

Members of the third class - - - - 6

Receiving each yearly about 1 barrel of rye
— 1 ditto - barley, and
— 2 rigsbank dollars,

independent of extraordinary and occasional support to them and others.

The contributions and supplies may be and are probably less in other parsonages, this one being rather burdensome from local circumstances.

(B.) for the Metropolis, the Cities and Towns.

Is nearly regulated on the same principles, but with this remarkable difference that the contributions are generally levied and distributed in money, instead of in kind: cooked victuals are however sometimes allowed the members of hospitals and poor-houses as well as to some other persons. In the metropolis and in several other cities and towns there are considerable workhouses, where the poor able to work are constrained to labour, according to ability.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS occasioned by the QUERY:

“THE practical workings and effects of the actual system upon the comfort, character, and condition of the inhabitants?”

Benevolent as the Danish poor system will appear from what is above stated, it is generally objected to it that the too great facility of gaining admittance, particularly to the third class, encourages sloth and indolence, especially in the country where the means are wanted to establish workhouses, the only sure way of controlling the activity of those supported. It is however supposed that the funds accumulated in the general poor chests for each bailiwick, and which in some of them are considerable, will in course of time be partly employed for erecting workhouses.

It is further objected to the present system, that it already begins to fall too heavy on the contributors, and that in course of time, with the constant increase of population, it will go on to press still more severely on them, inasmuch as their number and means do not by any means increase in a ratio equal to the augmentation of the number wanting support.

Denmark having no considerable colonies has no opportunity of getting rid of a part of her surplus population by encouraging emigration, which when available would certainly seem to be the best method of providing for those persons who are unable to find the means of subsistence in their own country, and who at the same time are able to work, and to bear the hardships of a long voyage and change of climate.

N. B.—The reader is respectfully requested to observe that by the term Directory is meant the central, or general poor committee for the whole bailiwick, to which the parish committees are subordinate.

Inclosure, No. 3.

LETTER to Peter Browne, Esq. &c. &c.

My dear Sir,

Frederikskilde, 10th September 1833.

THE Report on the Danish poor system requested by you was sent to Mr. G. Fenwick before I had the pleasure of receiving your esteemed letter of the 6th instant. To the additional queries therein contained, I now subjoin the following answers:

Question

Question 1. The effects produced by the present Poor Law system as contrasted with the effects when you had no such in operation?—*Answer.* Before the introduction of the present Poor Law system, the distress was much greater, and begging of the most rapacious and importunate kind was quite common in the country. This was not only a heavy burthen on the peasantry, but was in other respects the cause of intolerable annoyance to them; for the beggars when their demands were not satisfied had recourse to insolence and threats, nay even to acts of criminal vengeance. This is no longer the case, and *in so far*, therefore, the present system has been beneficial.

Q. 2. What feelings are generated by it in the hearts of those who confer as well as receive the poor-rate, whether it has dried up the fountain of private benevolence?—*A.* The contributions are generally yielded with good-will, but received with coolness and indifference, for it is no amiable trait in the character of our common people that they are never satisfied, but whenever they receive any thing always expect more. Although the contributions, when compared with the means of the contributors, are in many places heavy, yet private charity is very common. Begging, notwithstanding the severe prohibitions against it, is still carried on, particularly in scanty years. The beggar rarely leaves the peasant's door without receiving his morsel of bread or something better, and the peasantry are uniformly averse from lending their assistance to arrest or detain beggars. During the epidemic of 1831, private benevolence was very extensively shown to the numerous sufferers, whose necessities greatly exceeded the relieving powers of the poor committees. It may here be observed, that the general poor chests for the bailiwicks did not in general grant the aid which was reasonably expected, and which the strictest interpretation of the law would have sanctioned.

Q. 3. Whether it tends to the increase or decrease of poverty; whether it is considered to be a tax on industry, or a premium on indolence; what effect it produces on the feeling of independence of character?—*A.* It is a fact that poverty now appears in less striking features than it did before the introduction of the Poor Law system. This may, however, proceed from causes with which that system has no connexion; for example, from the increased wealth of the country in general, from improvements in agriculture, from the large additions made to the quantity of arable land which have been in a ratio greatly exceeding that of the increased population. If the clergyman, who is and will always be the leading member of the poor committee, was able to combine with his other heavy duties, a faithful observance of the rules prescribed for him in the management of the poor, I am of opinion that the system would neither be a tax on industry nor a premium on indolence. But it rarely happens that the clergyman can bestow the requisite attention on the discharge of this part of his duty, and therefore it is not to be denied that the present Poor Law (not from any defect inherent in the system, but merely from faulty management) does occasionally act as a tax on industry and a premium on idleness. In connexion with this part of the subject it may be remarked, that many of the clergy are young and inexperienced, wanting the local and personal knowledge so essential for the proper administration of the system. Others, again, are old and weak. The frequent change of clergymen is also attended with injurious effects.

Q. 4. Whether it has weakened or strengthened the natural ties between the higher and lower orders, &c.?—*A.* The actual system, wherever it has been ably and duly managed, has undoubtedly strengthened the said ties, as the Danish nation in general has a high sense of the benevolent intentions of Government, and willingly meets the same without murmur or discontent. But it is a common fault in this country that the duties imposed on its public servants are greater than they can satisfactorily perform, and to this general remark, the administrators of the Poor Law form no exception. Hence the system, as I have already hinted in my answer to No. 3, is in *many* places very indifferently conducted, and where this is the case, the effect has been to weaken in a very great degree the natural ties between the higher and lower orders.

Peter Browne, Esq.
&c. &c.

I am, dear Sir, &c.
(signed) N. N.

Inclosure, No. 4.

POOR LAWS OF DENMARK.

Count Holstein's Statement and Opinion of the System of Danish Poor Laws.

By an ordinance of the 5th of July 1803, the support of the poor was made obligatory in the provinces of Denmark, and by which each parish is obliged to support such destitute persons as have had a dwelling there for three years, unless such persons had lived in another parish for three years at a later period, and by which a right to be supported there had been subsequently acquired; in case, however, that a poor person has not dwelt for three years in any particular parish, then the parish in which he was born is bound to his support. Children until 18 years of age have a similar right wherever their father had possessed or acquired it. The support of the poor, however, is limited strictly to such things as are absolutely necessary for the support of life, and are supplied only in the degree to make up what the pauper is himself unable to earn or procure for his existence.

The cost of medical attendance and medicines are defrayed by the parish. The care of the poor in each parish devolves upon a commission, consisting of the clergyman, who is

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the president, the principal landed proprietor, the police master, and some peasants. In the month of December of each year, this commission is obliged to exhibit a plan setting forth who the poor of the parish are who will need parish relief in the course of the following year, and the quantity and nature of the support which each pauper may require, and how much each person in the parish is to contribute towards carrying the plan into execution. This plan or proposal for the support of the poor for the coming year must be made public in the parish, and if any one finds cause of complaint, he is to complain to the high bailiff of the province, who will judge of and decide upon its merits. The execution of the project devolves on the clergyman, together with a few peasants, who are agents for the poor. There must be, however, four meetings of the Commissioners in the course of each year, when an *exposée* must be made of all extraordinary receipts and disbursements; the clergyman has the power of calling extraordinary meetings in case of any extraordinary emergency. The strict rule is, that the poor shall receive *provisions*, not money; the provisions afforded are bread, butter, bacon, cheese, wood and turf. Free lodging is likewise given.

The poor are divided into three classes; first, such as can earn nothing, and therefore must be supported in toto; second, children; and third, those who require partial assistance. Besides to such, aid is afforded to those who are suffering under sickness, or in consequence of accidents, also sometimes small loans are advanced for a short time. All the property of a person deriving assistance from the parish is noted down, and when he dies it becomes the property of the poor funds. The yearly account for the support of the poor from the several parishes composing the bailiwick, is sent at the expiration of each year to the high bailiff and a court of direction or provincial commission, consisting of the high bailiff, the commissioners of taxes, the dean and two landed proprietors, who have the revision of and decision upon the correctness and propriety of the accounts and statements.

Besides the parish poor fund, there is a provincial poor fund, which embraces the poor of all the parishes composing the bailiwick; it is destined to meet the deficiencies when any of the parishes falls short of the means necessary for the support of the poor belonging to them, also affording means to relieve such distress as may be occasioned by extraordinary occurrences or accidents. From this fund is likewise supplied the means of supporting at different institutions those who are mad, blind, deaf and dumb, &c.; also poor-houses or houses of industry are built or purchased from its funds. All beggary is interdicted, and it is the duty of the police to seize all beggars and vagrants, and to send them back to the parish on which they have a legal claim for support. In case they are foreigners they are conveyed beyond the boundary of the country. Wherever, and under whatever circumstances a poor man falls sick, he must be supported by the parish where it occurs, but his own parish is responsible for the cost attendant on his recovery, or for his burial should he die. Poor persons who are disposed to work but cannot find it, the parish poor commission is bound to supply it.

ABSTRACT of Count *Holstein's* Opinion on the Danish Poor Laws.

ALTHOUGH it is undoubted that the very first duty which religion enjoins is to support and comfort the poor, it still is a question which involves considerable doubt, whether such provision should be made obligatory by law; and although no Government should be indifferent as to the discharge of religious duties, still it is disastrous when a Government will meddle in legislation, where those subject to it have no need of their interference.

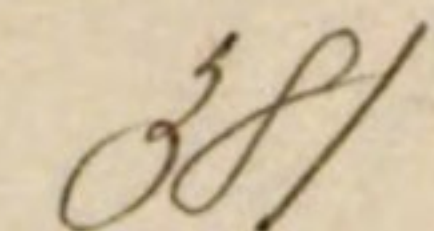
An obligatory Poor Law, as ours, involves the following serious disadvantages:

1st. The dread of poverty is diminished, and he who is half-poor works less instead of more, so that he speedily becomes a complete pauper. Those who are young and capable of labour are less economical, always having the poor rate in view, as a resource against want; likewise marriages are contracted with much less forethought, or consideration as to consequences.

2d. The morality of the poor man suffers, for he looks upon his provision as a right, for which he, therefore, need not be thankful; and, 3d, the morality of the rich man suffers, for the natural moral relation between him and the poor man has become completely severed; there is no place left for the exercise of his benevolence; being obliged to give, he does it with reluctance, and thus is the highest principle of charitable action, Christian love, exposed to great danger of destruction.

4th. As the clergyman of the parish is the president of the Poor Committee, he becomes involved in transactions peculiarly unsuited to his sacred calling, sometimes even compelled to resort to the extremity of distraint to compel his own parishioners to pay the allotted proportions, and thus does the moral influence of him, who should be a picture of the God of love, become every day less and less powerful.

It appears to me, that in this country an obligatory Poor Law might have been avoided had the Government encouraged the establishment of voluntary benevolent societies in the parishes (where the clergyman should always have a voice), the especial business of which should have been to look after the poor, who might have easily been supported by the voluntary contributions of their respective communities; always, however, with the understanding, that in cases of extraordinary distress or difficulty, such societies could look to the Government to lend a helping hand. However, the obligatory system has now been at work too long to escape from it without considerable difficulty.



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Pastor Gruntrigg's OPINION on *Danish* POOR LAWS.

Honoured Sir,

WE have been much lauded in Germany for our system of Poor Laws ; but so, one might say, " we have our reward." From Englishmen, at least, we never can expect praise, when they learn, by our own confession, that the very thing for which we have been lauded is precisely what in England a sorrowful experience has shown to be a nuisance that ought peremptorily to be got rid of. As a good patriot therefore, I could wish that our poor system had never been mentioned in England ; but since we must in this matter also confess our weakness, I can only take the opportunity of your having asked my opinion to assure you, that I am far from being the only one who sees clearly that we stand much in need of a better example from our very experienced and ingenious kinsmen of England than the poor tax.

You may easily suppose that a man whose calling and delight it is to preach the Gospel to the poor, does not grudge them the crumbs that may fall from the rich man's table. But although we, who but in vain have attempted to make a figure in fabrics and manufactures, are not so ill off in regard to the poor as the "*great proficient in every art*," still we must confess that our attempt to put in practice the impossibility of setting every thing to rights in this world has, on our small scale, had the same unfortunate result as it had on the large scale over the water. Men are very apt to imagine, particularly in our days, that it is an easy matter to manage every thing in this world better than God Almighty himself ; but constant experience shows them, when they make the trial, that as a result of all their labour, they only spoil what is good and make worse what is bad ; and most especially is this the case when they attempt to distribute the gifts of fortune better than Providence has done, for instead of thereby making *many well off* at the expense of the rich, they only make a greater number and a worse *set of paupers* ; so that riches are only rendered more invidiously conspicuous, and more an object of hate, and quite incompetent to relieve the general distress. If people persist in remaining blind to this important truth, they will certainly one day or other see a general distribution of riches ; but it will only be when the poor have become so numerous and so reprobate that nothing will longer suffice for them, and it will only be to see riches again amassed and abused in a manner worse than before. *Every compulsory law*, therefore, for the support of the poor, is a great blunder which must always be attended with unfavourable, and possibly in the course of time, with most ruinous effects ; inasmuch as it undermines the right of property, and fosters that worst enemy of civil society, which undoubtedly is the propensity to live a life of indolence at our neighbour's expense. All the fine sentiment which on such occasions is generally adduced, suffices not to fill one hungry belly ; still less will it be able to support the state when by its own exertions it shall have reduced to beggary all its industrious, well-minded, smaller citizens who are its true pillars, and shall have filled the country with lazy miscreants who will not even condescend to beg, but who demand support as a right, and who are likely to be of opinion that if at any time they must employ their hands for any other purpose than cramming their bellies and stealing, the most profitable use they can put them to is to murder the few remaining rich.

I know very well that the question has been put, whether it does not follow as a matter of necessity that a Christian state supports its own poor ? Now, whether people are aware of it or not, they are in this case only using an empty play of words as an argument in a serious matter ; for though I am very well aware that in a *pure Christian state*, that is to say, in a state composed *exclusively of real Christians*, there would be no beggars, yet neither would there be in such a state any sluggards, spendthrifts, usurers or the like ; and as in our present states we have but too many of all such, it would be the greatest folly to apply to them, merely because they have the *appellation* of Christian, what could only be applied to a state such as none of ours is, and such as no power or wisdom can make them to be.

But is it not a matter of the utmost importance to the state that pauperism should not increase to such an extent that the country becomes overrun with beggars, and the temptation to have recourse to unlawful means of livelihood becomes almost invincible ?

Yes, to be sure. But when common sense teaches the maxim and experience confirms it, that *compulsory* laws for the maintenance of the poor only serve to increase their number, and to hasten a development of things which the state has so much reason to dread, is it not clear as day, that we must not choose as our protection against danger that which not only increases it when present, but necessarily invites its approach.

The greatest legislator the sun ever shone upon, I mean Moses, has in this respect as well as in so many others, given us an example worthy of all imitation, if we would only learn to understand and apply it rightly. In the law, for example, he paid all possible attention to the interest of the poor, but he enacted *no punishment* for the rich, who notwithstanding should suffer them to beg and starve ; that is to say, he made the support of the poor a *church law*, for the observance of which men were not answerable to their temporal magistrate, but only to God and their conscience. This example has also in former times, as we know, been imitated generally in places where Christianity was introduced, and in none more than England and Denmark, as the numerous hospitals and other charitable institutions

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institutions sufficiently testify. Now, however insufficient the ancient system may appear, particularly at a time when the influence of Christianity both on rich and poor is at the lowest ebb, there will at all events never be any other good counsel against the spreading of pauperism and its frightful effects, than that the State exerts itself by the help of *its own means* to find work for the unemployed, to give education to helpless children, and to procure asylums for cripples, old and sick; leaving the rest to private beneficence and to Christianity, whose influence in this respect it is evidently good policy to look upon as invaluable, and to give it as free play as possible. Such private and Christian beneficence will no doubt be also in many ways abused, but the State is not on that account hated, nor can the worthless build with insolent defiance on what they know depends on the free will of the giver. On the other hand, experience shows that neither Christian benevolence will be exhausted, nor the natural feelings blunted by the abuse which worthless individuals may make thereof; but that both these evils take place to a frightful extent, where the support of the poor is made a burden on the district, so that even parents and children, in a way formerly unheard of, withdraw from each other the help which they could, and under other circumstances would, nay must yield to the tie of consanguinity.

I am therefore certain that the greatest improvement we could make on our poor system, would be to abrogate entirely all our high-praised ordinance relating to it, and so let the matter find its own level; for the first advance to the *better* is to arrest all progression to the *worse*, and in our little country, which is chiefly inhabited by agriculturists, situated on small portions of land, it would by no means exceed the ability of the State to effect what is necessary to secure work to such of the unemployed as wished it; while on the other hand, it is quite clear that we have no right to send any one to the House of Correction, merely because he is poor, and may *perhaps* steal to-morrow; we must first wait till he has actually stolen.

It is not to be denied that the problem is much more intricate, and of much more difficult solution, where the landed properties are large, and the manufactories numerous; but in such countries the resources are also more abundant. In such a country colonization would undoubtedly be one of the most effectual means of arresting the progress to ruin. It being well understood, however, that it is to be colonization and not *transportation*, as if poverty were a crime; and moreover that the expenses of the same be not, in whole or in part, laid upon the already overburdened districts, which themselves were in want of support, but are supplied from voluntary subscriptions, or from the funds of the State. There can besides be no doubt, that in every country the only way to induce the rich to make a real sacrifice for the poor is to ask it once for all, so that they have the prospect of thereby buying themselves free from daily importunity and impending danger; in all other cases they will manage to shove the burden on the half poor, who by that means become wholly so.

Peter Browne, Esq.

Mr. Thaloman's OPINION ON A REPORT ON POOR LAW SYSTEM of Denmark.

I HAVE the honour to reply to your highly-esteemed letter, in which you request from me a view of the system of the Poor Laws in Denmark.

My reply shall be as concise as possible; but, if you wish for a more detailed statement, I shall be happy to give it to you; as I am well acquainted with the subject, particularly in as far as regards the country districts, where it has occupied my personal attention during a period of 15 years.

I.

The King, who is absolute, can make any law he pleases for the good of the country.

Founded on this principle, the first Ordinance for the management of the poor appeared in the year 1798.

The dues, out of which by degrees a poor fund has been amassed, were for the bailiwicks,

- | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--------------------|
| 1. Each farm | - | - | - | - | - | - | 4 | skillings, yearly. |
| Each half ditto | - | - | - | - | - | - | 2 | do. |
| Each farm servant | - | - | - | - | - | - | 2 | do. |

2. *Uncertain*, 1½ per cent. on the amount of all auctions. All these dues are paid into the treasuries of the bailiwicks.

During the first 20 years, the disbursements of the poor fund were not great. But immediately on the lapse of that period, there was all at once to be seen the effects of the *parcelling* system introduced and operating in full vigour in the period between 1782 and 1806, and subsequently continuing.

The estates of the nobility, and the larger properties belonging to the farming class, where formerly only one family lived, are now perhaps split among from 50 to 100 families. On such diminished properties, it was often only the first purchasers that could have a livelihood; for such purchasers generally commenced with capitals so small, that though they might be sufficient for themselves, there was not nearly enough for their children.

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II

Management of the Poor in the Country.

One or more parishes, according to the pleasure of the high bailiff, make a *Poor District*. In each district there are Commissioners, consisting of,—

1. The parson.
2. The parish officer.
3. Two or three farmers.
4. The police-master.
- 5 & 6. The high bailiff and dignified clergy, viz. the bishops and provosts.

1. The first four make out (every quarter) an accurate list of the poor in the district.
2. These Commissioners draw up a scheme of how much each inhabitant of the parish is to pay in proportion to his fortune.

When once this poor-rate has received the sanction of higher authority, the sums fixed in it are (in case of refusal to pay) enforced by legal means.

That is to say, the effects of the person in default are first appraised and then sold at public auction.

Whoever has resided three years in a district is entitled to apply for parish relief.

When the commission recognises any one as entitled to parish relief, he receives, according to circumstances,

1. Free lodging and fuel.
2. Clothing and food.
3. School instruction for his children, and medical aid when he or his family may be sick.

On the other hand, the poor person is obliged to labour for the benefit of the parish, as far as his strength will allow. When he will not work, he is punished with confinement on bread and water.

The Towns

have their own poor administration, which is supported by the wealthier part of the community in the same way as in the country, partly by voluntary contributions, and partly by annual fixed poor-rates.

In the towns, the commissaries, consisting of the burgomaster and several citizens, fix what each individual has to pay in proportion to his fortune.

Hitherto these institutions have had a salutary and beneficial effect on the nation, inasmuch as many thousand individuals have been prevented from strolling about as beggars, and many thousand children have received a good education, and have grown up to be useful and orderly citizens. Neither as yet have any remarkable symptoms of dissatisfaction appeared among the wealthier classes. But we cannot be without some apprehension for the future, since the poor-rates have been augmented to such a degree that it would be very difficult to collect larger contributions than those now paid. And as sufficient attention has not been paid to this circumstance, that the farmers are continually building small cottages, in which poor people establish themselves, since the Government have been unwilling to throw any restraint on marriages between poor persons; there seems reason to fear, that in the lapse of another period of 20 years, the poor in many districts will to such a degree have multiplied their numbers, that the present system will yield no adequate means for their support.

In the towns much embarrassment is already felt, the poor having increased in them to a much greater extent than in the country.

A new census will be commenced on the 18th February. When the results are made known, we shall then have it in our power to say exactly how many poor persons there are in the whole country.

All the taxes of a considerable merchant of Dram in Norway, who owns eight trading vessels actually employed, amounted during last year to not more than the school and poor rates of one large farm in the heath district which you visited last year.

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LETTER from *Peter Browne*, Esq. to the Right hon. Viscount *Palmerston*, G. C. B. &c. &c. &c.

My Lord,

Copenhagen, 5th April 1834.

I FORWARD several documents relating to the Poor Laws of this country, consisting of Mr. Macgregor's valuable communications, a Report from the Danish Chancery, and a statement of the principal charitable institutions of Denmark, drawn up by a French diplomatic agent at Copenhagen, in the year 1823.

One point I shall merely remark, which is, that all persons acknowledge that landed property has increased in value in this country, that the population has been very nearly stationary for the last few years, and yet that the poor rate is rather increasing: an acknowledgment which necessarily involves the fact, that notwithstanding an increase of means to pay the poor rate from an increased demand for labour, in consequence of more capital and industry being now than previously employed in the cultivation of land, still the charge for the poor is increasing, and that the increase of poverty increases with the increase of industry and its consequent wealth.

Surely this at once shows that the system is working banefully. I myself know that the agriculturist has no harder creditor than the claimant on the poor rate; that the moral relation between rich and poor has been injured by the system; that private charity has in a great measure ceased to flow; and that every day the outcry against the system, from first to last, becomes louder and louder.

From Mr. Macgregor's Report we gather, that as often as the "authorities' attention is withdrawn by affairs of higher importance" (which must always be the case) "serious inconvenience results;" that under such and such circumstances, which exist, and which must not only continue to exist, but must increase, "the country must gradually sink under the pressure of an insupportable burden, and finish by becoming a vast receptacle of paupers;" that "the feeling of reluctance to have recourse to parochial relief has been gradually diminished in this country since the introduction of Poor Laws. The poor have accustomed themselves more and more to consider the poor rates in the light of a fund, from which they are legally entitled to draw relief in all cases of distress," and under other circumstances, unavoidable and irremediable as it strikes me, "the natural consequence will be, that the lower classes throw themselves on the poor rates, and that pauperism gradually will overrun the country." If the advocates of the Poor Laws are compelled to allow all this, I leave it to your Lordship to judge, whether the disease professed to be cured, if left to itself, can be productive of greater evils than those inseparable from the attempt to remove it.

I have now to apologize to your Lordship for the time I have taken in bringing my Report to a close, and to collect the information bearing upon it. I have done my best, and must now look to your Lordship's kindness to forgive any defects which may appear in the information I have supplied, or my attempts to throw light upon it.

I have the honour to be, &c.

Peter Browne.

REPORT* upon the DANISH POOR LAWS, their Administration and Operation.

Francis C. Macgregor, Esq. to Sir *George Shee*, Bart. &c.

Sir,

Elsinore, February 23d, 1834.

IN compliance with your Circular of the 30th November, I have the honour of submitting to you, for the information of the Poor Law Commissioners, the following Report upon the Poor Laws, the condition of the poor, and the legal and charitable provision made for their support in the Kingdom of Denmark, to serve as an illustration of the answers to the questions contained in the annexed Paper.

The Danish Poor Laws acknowledge it as a principle, that the country is under the obligation to afford relief to its poor, while at the same time they require a return in labour from those that are able to work. These laws are embodied in the following Regulations, namely:

1. Regulation for the relief of the Poor in the City of Copenhagen and its suburbs, dated 10th April 1799;
2. Regulation for the relief of the Poor in the Town Districts, dated 5th July 1803;
3. Regulations for the relief of the Poor in the agricultural districts, of the same date;

which laws have been revised and amended by different Royal ordinances published at various periods.

I shall confine myself, in my Report, to the two latter regulations, and refer you, with regard to the former, to the Report of Mr. Browne, His Majesty's Chargé d'Affaires at Copenhagen, who, from his station and greater means of obtaining information, is better enabled also to convey an adequate idea of the working of the system than I am. In the first instance I shall treat of the administration of the Poor Laws in general, and of the persons appointed to distribute that relief.

Each *market town*, or *kiöbstæd*, (of which there are sixty-five in Denmark) constitutes a separate Poor District, in which are also included those inhabitants of the adjacent country who belong to the parish of that town. *In the country* each parish forms a Poor District.¹

The

SECTION I.

§ 1.

Division of the
country into Poor
Districts.

* Abbreviations used in the References to the Laws and Ordinances quoted in this Report.

Reg. T. means Regulation for the Townships; Reg. R., Regulation for the Rural Districts; Ord, means Ordinance; Res., Resolution; Plac., Placat; Pat., Patent; Resc., Rescript; Let. Chanc., Letter of the Chancery; Circ. Chanc., Circular of the Chancery.

¹ Reg. T. and Reg. R. § 1.

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The Poor Laws are administered in the *market towns* by a Board of Commissioners, consisting of the curate, of one of the magistrates (if any), of the provost (byefoged) in his quality of policeman, and of two or more of the most respectable inhabitants of the place.

§ 2.
Board of Commissioners in each parish.

In the *country* this is done in each district by a similar board, of which the curate, the policeman, besides one of the principal landholders, and three to four respectable inhabitants are members, which latter are nominated for a term of three years.²

The Commissioners in the *town districts* are subordinate to the bailiff (amtmand) of the division, and to the bishop of the diocese, who, as directors, appeal in doubtful cases to the Chancery at Copenhagen.³ In the *country* all poor districts in a bailiwick belong to and are under a common Board of Directors, consisting of the bailiff, the collector of the king's taxes (amtsforvalter), all the higher clergy of the diocese, and two substantial landowners, who are proposed by the amtmand, and nominated by the Chancery, for a term of three years.

§ 3.
Are subordinate to a Board of Directors.

To this Board of Directors for the administration of the Poor Laws in the bailiwick (who also appeal to the Chancery) the bishop has access whenever his clerical duties permit him to be present.⁴

It particularly devolves upon the curates, to whom the care of the poor is immediately confided, each of them in his parish, to use their best endeavours to provide for the wants of the necessitous, in conformity with the existing regulations.⁵

§ 4.
The immediate care of the poor devolves upon the Curate.

On a pauper applying for relief the curate has to take his deposition (if in a market town, in the presence of an overseer), in which document ought to be recorded the applicant's name, age and state of health; how long he has resided in the parish, and where; whether he has already been relieved on a former occasion; the nature of his distress, and its causes; whether he can earn any thing and procure work; whether he receives any relief from relations, friends, or by any other means; to what extent he requires relief, and of what nature.⁶

§ 5.
Curate's investigation of claims made for parish relief.

The curate has to communicate the result of his examination to the other members of the Board, stating at the same time to what extent he has found it necessary to relieve the immediate wants of the pauper. This is to be done at the next meeting, which is held, in order that the Board may determine upon the nature and extent of the permanent relief to be granted to the pauper.⁷

§ 6.
Curate has to consult Commissioners who have to award permanent relief.

In the *town parishes* every householder (with the exception of noblemen and civil or military officers) is bound to perform the duty of an overseer. They are elected by the Commissioners, and must accept, unless they can allege well-founded reasons for declining the office, the term of which is for three years.⁸

§ 7.
Overseers to be elected in the town parishes.

The same regulations apply to the *rural parishes*.⁹ Where a townsman, although his objections have been found insufficient, still refuses to perform the duties imposed upon him, he loses his civil rights and privileges.¹⁰

These duties are chiefly confined to their interference and advice in all cases of relief. Not being parties to the administration of the poor fund, they have no responsibility in that respect.¹¹ Where they show apathy or negligence, a fine may be imposed upon them by the bailiff of the division, upon a representation of the Commissioners to the Board of Directors.¹²

§ 8.
Duties of Overseers.

The principal duties incumbent upon overseers are the following:—

1. To confer with the Board of Commissioners, or any of its members, on all subjects relating to the management of the Poor Laws in their district, and to give them the advice or the information they may require on the subject.
2. To assist the Commissioners in executing the resolutions voted at their meetings.
3. To communicate to them any disorder, obstacle or opposition which may occur in the ordinary course of proceedings.
4. To collect and deliver over to the Commissioners the charitable donations or other contributions towards the poor fund, receivable without the intervention of the magistracy.
5. To contribute to the best of their power, that the object of the Legislature, the effectual relief of the poor, may in every respect be accomplished.¹³

In the market towns the Commissioners are to meet once a month, or so often as occasions may require; but in the *country* it may be done quarterly, viz. early in December, March, June and September.

§ 9.
Ordinary meetings of the Commissioners.

The meeting is to be announced on the Sunday preceding, from the pulpit, by the curate, who has at the same time to summons the poor that may stand in need of relief to appear and apply for the same on the day and at the place appointed by the Commissioners.¹⁴

At

² Reg. T. and Reg. R. § 2.

³ Reg. T. § 2.

⁴ Reg. R. § 3. 4.

⁵ Reg. T. § 11. Reg. R. § 15.

⁶ Reg. T. § 12. Reg. R. § 16.

⁷ Reg. T. § 13. Reg. R. § 17.

⁸ Reg. T. §§ 21. 22. 25.

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⁹ Reg. R. §§ 25. 26. 29.

¹⁰ Laws 3-3-2. & 3. 4. 10.

¹¹ Chan. Circ. 22. Septb. 1804.

¹² Reg. T. § 25. Reg. R. § 29.

¹³ Reg. T. § 24. Reg. R. § 28.

¹⁴ Reg. T. § 26. Reg. R. § 30.

§ 10.
Quarterly Meetings.

At the meetings which are held quarterly, an estimate is to be made of the provision required for the support of the poor in the following quarter; and every person receiving parish relief must appear at such meeting, if summoned by the commissioners.¹⁵

§ 11.
Protocol to be held.

A protocol of the proceedings of the meeting is to be held, in the *market towns* by one of the parish clerks, and in the *country* by the curate, and it is to be signed by all the members present at the close of such meeting.¹⁶

§ 12.
Proceedings at the
Quarterly meetings.

The proceedings at the quarterly meetings will embrace the following objects:—

1. The Commissioners have to ascertain if the parochial fund, from some particular cause, has been subject to any extraordinary expense during the preceding quarter.

2. They have to receive the charitable contributions that have been collected, the amount of which is to be entered in the protocol, the same as the sums that have been advanced or paid out of the parish fund.

3. They have to examine, if all the resolutions concerning the relief of the poor that were passed in the preceding meeting have been carried into effect.

4. They have to revise the list of paupers who are on the parish, in order to ascertain their good or bad conduct; whether any amongst them have died or left the district; or whether the circumstances of any, from contingent causes, have improved to such a degree that less or no relief will be requisite in future.

5. They have to ascertain whether there are any new applicants for relief, or whether the circumstances of those already inscribed have become so embarrassed, and their prospects of gaining a livelihood so distant, that further and greater relief will be absolutely necessary.

6. They have to determine upon the extent of relief to be granted for the next quarter, in proportion to the increase or decrease of paupers during the last quarter, the particulars of which are to be noted in the protocol.¹⁷

§ 13.
Estimate to be made
of the funds
required for the
service of the
following year.

At the meeting to be held at the commencement of December, the curate (or the overseers, as the case may be) has to lay before the Board of Commissioners an estimate of the various sums which are likely to be required for the support of the poor in the ensuing year; to which are to be added the following particulars:—

1. An exact list of all the paupers supposed to require parochial relief, with an accurate account of the nature and extent of their wants, of their present circumstances, and of their moral conduct.

2. His (or their) opinion of the extent of relief to be granted to each individual pauper.

3. The ordinary funds of the parish having been found insufficient to cover the whole expense, the curate is to state his opinion to what extent the deficiency ought to be levied by assessment upon the householders of the parish.

4. An account of the various persons who have applied for relief, but whose claims have been rejected.¹⁸

§ 14.
Discussion on the
estimate and the
assessment of poor-
rates.

The said estimate, to be drawn up according to a uniform plan adopted by the Board of Directors, is to be examined by the Commissioners, whose observations are to be briefly stated in the protocol, after which resolutions are to be passed by plurality of votes with regard to the nature and extent of relief to be granted to the poor in the ensuing year, how and in what manner this is to be effected; and what rate is to be assessed on each householder.¹⁹

§ 15.
How to proceed
where votes are
equal.

Where it so happens that the votes on both sides of the question are equal, the case is to be referred, in the town parishes, to the decision of the directors, and in the agricultural districts to the bailiff or amtmann, for the ultimate decision of the directors of the bailiwick.²⁰

§ 16.
Public notice to be
given of the esti-
mate and the
assessment.

As soon as the estimate above alluded to has been agreed upon in all its details, it is to be announced on the Sunday following from the pulpit by the curate, who will render a short account of the labour of the Commissioners in the preceding year, and at the same time make an appeal to the benevolent feelings of the community to lend their aid in supplying the poor with what may be requisite for their support according to the estimate and assessment made by the Commissioners of the district for the next year.²¹

In the town parishes a duplicate of the estimates is to be transmitted to each of the overseers, who have to communicate the same to the householders in their respective districts. In the agricultural parishes the curate circulates a copy of it through the medium of the proper parish officers.

That document is particularly to exhibit the amount which the members of the Board of Commissioners have assessed upon themselves, that their example may give an impulse to the charity of the rest of the community.²²

§ 17.
Persons aggrieved
by assessment, to
appeal to the
Directors.

Any person considering himself aggrieved by the assessment, may appeal to the Board of Directors; but until their decision is received, he must abide by the award of the Commissioners.²³

Poor

¹⁵ Reg. T. § 27. Reg. R. § 31.

¹⁶ Reg. T. § 28. Reg. R. § 32.

¹⁷ Reg. Town. § 29. Reg. R. § 33.

¹⁸ Reg. T. § 30. Reg. R. § 34.

¹⁹ Reg. T. § 31. Reg. R. § 35.

²⁰ Reg. T. § 32. Reg. R. § 36.

²¹ Reg. T. § 34. Reg. R. § 38.

²² Reg. T. § 34. Reg. R. § 38.

²³ Reg. T. § 35. Reg. R. § 39.

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Poor rates may also be levied on extraordinary emergencies.²⁴

The Commissioners will take the earliest opportunity of submitting a report on the estimate and its result to the Board of Directors, who, approving of the plan adopted, are to preserve a copy of the same in their archives.²⁵

The correspondence is managed by the curate of the parish, as the principal and acting member of the Board. His letters under the seal of the Board and marked "On Poor Concerns," are, under certain restrictions, exempt from the payment of postage.²⁶

Having treated of the persons authorized to distribute relief, I have now to point out the various duties they have to perform towards those that are destitute, and entitled to relief under the Poor Laws.

No person, not having applied for relief, shall be removed from a district, under the pretence of the probability of his becoming a burthen to the parish hereafter.²⁷

The existing laws and ordinances do not prohibit the poor contracting marriages, and the officers acting under the Poor Laws cannot therefore prevent them.²⁸ On the other hand, all those persons who are in the receipt of parish relief are not allowed to marry, unless by permission granted on special grounds by the Commissioners.²⁹

All persons are to be considered as destitute and entitled to relief, who are unable, with their own labour, to earn the means of subsistence, and thus, without the help of others, would be deprived of the absolute necessities of life.³⁰

The provisional relief which a pauper may be found to require, is to be administered to him promptly, and at the place where he applies for the same, although he may not have a settlement there. He must not leave it, nor be obliged to leave it, until it has been decided by the proper authorities in what district he is to receive permanent parochial relief.³¹

The poor to whom parochial relief may be awarded, are divided into three classes. To the *first class* belong the aged and the sick, and all those who from bodily or mental infirmity, are wholly or partially debarred from earning the means of subsistence. In the *second class* are included orphans, foundlings and deserted children, as well as those, the health, resources or morals of whose parents are of a description which would render it improper to confide the education of children to their care. The *third class* comprises families or single persons, who from constitutional weakness, a numerous offspring, the approach of old age or similar causes, are unable to earn a sufficiency for the support of themselves or children.³²

Paupers of the first class who are destitute of other support, are to be supplied by the proper parish officers:

(a) With food (or in market towns where the necessary establishment for that purpose are wanting, with money in lieu thereof); and to which, in the agricultural districts, the inhabitants have to contribute according to the orders issued by the Commissioners, either in bread, flour, pease, groats, malt, bacon, butter or cheese, or in corn, or in money, or by rations, or in any other manner, which, from local circumstances, may be deemed most expedient:³³

(b) With the necessary articles of clothing:

(c) With lodging and fuel, either by placing them in establishments belonging to the parish, or in private dwellings:

(d) With medical attendance, either at their own dwellings or in places owned or rented by the parish.³⁴

The children belonging to the second class are to be placed with a private family, to be there brought up and educated at the expense of the parish, until they can be apprenticed or provided for in any other manner.

The Commissioners are carefully to watch over the treatment and education of the children by their foster parents and that such of them as have been put out to service are properly brought up and instructed until they are confirmed.³⁵

The paupers of the third class are to be so relieved, that they may not want the absolute necessities of life; but avoiding mendicity on the one hand, they must at the same time be compelled to work to the best of their abilities for their maintenance. To render the relief of paupers of this description more effectual, care must be taken, that, if possible, work be procured for them at the usual rate of wages; and where the amount does not prove sufficient for their support they may be otherwise assisted, but in general not with money but with articles of food and clothing, to be supplied them at the expense of the parish.³⁶

Where

§ 18.
Extraordinary rates may be levied.

§ 19.
Estimate and assessment must be sanctioned by the Directors.

§ 20.
Correspondence and exemption from Postage.

SECTION II.
Of the duties of the parish officers towards the poor.

§ 21.
No person to be removed from a district for being in decayed circumstances.

§ 22.
No poor person prevented from marrying, unless receiving parochial relief.

§ 23.
Who is to be considered as destitute.

§ 24.
Pauper applying for provisional relief must be relieved immediately at the place where he is.

§ 25.
Paupers to be divided into three classes.

§ 26.
How paupers of the first class are to be subsisted.

§ 27.
How paupers of the second class are to be subsisted.

§ 28.
How paupers of the third class are to be subsisted.

²⁴ Letter Chanc. 7 Mch. 1807. § 35. 77. 86.

²⁵ Reg. T. § 36. Reg. R. § 40.

²⁶ Circ. Chanc. 21 Mch. 1804.

²⁷ Plac. 14 Decr. 1810.

²⁸ Circ. Chan. 3 Janry. 1807.

²⁹ Ord. 30 April 1824. § 3.

³⁰ Reg. T. § 3. Reg. R. § 5.

P. L. (F.)

³¹ Plac. 14. Decb. 1810. §. 2. 3. and Pat. 23 Decb. 1808. § 9.

³² Reg. T. § 7. Reg. R. § 11.

³³ Letter Chan. 24. Nov. 1804.

³⁴ Reg. T. § 8. Reg. R. § 12.

³⁵ Reg. T. § 9. Reg. R. § 13.

³⁶ Reg. T. § 10. Reg. R. § 14.

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§ 29.
How paupers are to
be relieved in case
of sickness.

Where a pauper, in case of sickness, applies for medical advice, or medicine for himself or family, the curate is to deliver to him a written order to the physician or surgeon of the district, which the pauper is to deliver himself, if the nature of his illness allow him; but if not, he is to be conveyed thither, that the physician may examine the nature of his disorder, and prescribe the remedies and the diet he may deem necessary.³⁷ Where the patient is affected to such a degree that he is unable either to go or be conveyed, a messenger shall be despatched to the physician by the curate, with a note, describing as accurately as possible the patient's case. Should the physician deem his personal attendance necessary, a conveyance is to be furnished to him at the expense of the parish.³⁸ It behoves the curate and the overseers to visit the pauper during his illness, assisting him with their advice in all what may tend to promote his recovery.

In cases of mental derangement, where restraint should be necessary, application must be made to the magistrates.³⁹

Physicians are not entitled to any fee for attendance and the cure of a pauper, unless they have to travel, in which case they may claim a certain rate per day, proportionate to the length of the journey, which, together with the expense of medicine, is defrayed, in ordinary cases, by the parish; but in syphilitic or contagious disorders in the rural districts, from the general charity fund of the bailiwick.⁴⁰

§ 30.
Pauper to receive
temporary relief
after sickness.

A pauper, whose means of gaining his livelihood have been abridged by reason of sickness, is to be relieved out of the poor rates, until he is again enabled to provide for himself.⁴¹

§ 31.
Burial of a pauper.

Where any one of the paupers of a district dies without having relations, who could, or would provide for his burial, the charges are to be defrayed out of the poor rates, in so far as the effects left by the deceased may not prove sufficient.⁴² However, the services of all persons required in the burial shall be performed gratuitously.⁴³

§ 32.
Extraordinary or
temporary relief
may be granted.

It is provided by various Ordinances, that extraordinary relief may be granted in all cases of emergency, where an individual is in momentary distress and has applied in vain to private charity for assistance, and the Commissioners have discretionary power to assist him with a loan or otherwise out of the poor-rates, on his giving security for the amount.⁴⁴

The causes of his momentary distress being removed, his effects may be distrained in satisfaction of the debt, but care is to be taken that he be not deprived of the most indispensable materials, furnishing the means of hereafter supporting himself by his own industry. However, every one who is able-bodied must support himself without becoming chargeable to the parish.

In cases where families are left houseless, the Commissioners are authorized to procure them a habitation, by becoming security for the rent, and where such habitation is not to be obtained for them, they may be quartered upon the householders in rotation, until a dwelling can be found in some other place.

Should the rent not be paid by the parties when due, such persons must be considered as paupers, and be removed to that district where they may be found to have a settlement. The house-rent thus disbursed, must in this case be looked upon as temporary relief, and be borne by the parish that advanced it. Where parish officers refuse to obey these injunctions, they may be compelled by a fine, to be levied daily until they comply.⁴⁵

§ 33.
Authority of officers
acting under the
Poor Laws over
paupers in the
parochial establish-
ments.

All persons entrusted with the immediate superintendence of paupers placed in the different workhouses, and in other public establishments for the poor, possess the same authority over them in point of discipline, as the Danish laws confer upon a master over his domestics.⁴⁶ This is further illustrated by the (§ 157) of the Regulations for the city of Copenhagen of the 1st July 1799, where it is enacted, that it is lawful for the several Commissioners, where earnest remonstrances have proved without effect, to dictate and inflict certain punishments upon the paupers for such offences as are contrary to public order and good morals.⁴⁷ In cases of contumacy and insolence towards their superiors, of inebriety, ill treatment of children by their parents, and *vice versa*, of wilful waste of the raw material to be manufactured, of embezzlement of goods or working tools, and of similar public and domestic offences and disorders, the Commissioners are authorized not only publicly to reprimand those offenders that have attained the lawful age, but also to punish them by incarceration,⁴⁸ it having been proved to the satisfaction of the Chancery, that a proper place exists in the establishments suitable for a prison. The intervention of the police-master of the place is however at all times required where punishment is dictated.⁴⁹ Children under the age of 15, are punished according to the regulations for the establishments of public instruction.⁵⁰

§ 34.
Regulations for the
suppression of
mendicity.

The term of beggar is applied by the Danish law to all those who, either on the high road or in the streets, in dwellings or houses, by words or gestures, or by the exposure of bodily

³⁷ Reg. T. § 15. Reg. R. 19.

³⁸ Reg. T. § 16. Reg. R. § 20.

³⁹ Reg. T. § 17. Reg. R. § 21.

⁴⁰ Ord. 8 January 1830. Ord. 17 April 1782. §§ 4. 9.

⁴¹ Reg. T. § 18. Reg. R. § 22.

⁴² Reg. T. § 19. Reg. R. § 23.

⁴³ Ord. 24 Sept. 1708. cap. 1. § 21. and cap. 2. § 23.

⁴⁴ Pat. 23 December 1808. § 4.

⁴⁵ Chanc. Cir. 24 Sept. 1805.

⁴⁶ Law. 6-5-5. and Ord. 25 Mch. 1791. § 14.

⁴⁷ Plac. 14 December 1810. § 21.

⁴⁸ Resc. 11 June 1817. § 6. Plac. 21 Dec. 1825. §§ 5. 7.

⁴⁹ Plac. 1810. § 23.

⁵⁰ Plac. 19 December 1832.

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bodily defects or deformities, are asking alms or receive the same.⁵¹ Every person who is found begging in a township, or on the high road, may be seized by any of the inhabitants and delivered over to the proper parish officers to be consigned to the policeman. Parents or foster-parents who have induced their children to beg, or have not prevented them from doing so, are to be considered as having begged themselves.⁵²

Different Ordinances even make those persons amenable to the law who, by giving alms to notorious beggars, frustrate the beneficial effects of the provisions made by the Legislature for the suppression of mendicity.⁵³

In the market towns, all persons belonging to the working classes are obliged to enter into fixed service, unless they have some ostensible means of subsistence, which must be proved to the satisfaction of the magistrates, if required.⁵⁴

In the agricultural districts, every person belonging to the class of peasants, who is not a proprietor or occupier of land, a tacksman (*boelsmand*), or cottager⁵⁵ (*huusmand*), or subsists upon some trade or profession,⁵⁶ is to seek fixed service, unless he be married and permanently employed as a day-labourer. However, this is in nowise to apply to those persons (be they foreigners or natives) who, being provided with passports from the proper authorities of the place whence they proceed, are seeking agricultural employment as day-labourers.

It is equally lawful for those, who during the summer are employed in fishery or navigation, to earn their bread as day-labourers in winter, or at any other season when they may be at home.⁵⁷

Where a single person of either sex belonging to the labouring class is not able to obtain a place, he (or she) shall within two months before the regular term when regular servants are changed (*Skiftetid*) apply to the parish beadle, who on the Sunday following at church meeting, is publicly to offer the services of his client, and inquire amongst the community if any person is in want of a servant, and will receive him (or her) as such. Should the said person not get a place within a fortnight, a similar inquiry is to be made in the neighbouring parish.

All those that have not followed the line of conduct pointed out in the preceding regulation, and are without steady employment, shall be considered as vagrants, and punished accordingly.⁵⁸

The curates have to communicate to the bailiff or amtmænd within a month after the fitting-time, under a penalty, a list of all the persons in his parish that have been left without employment.⁵⁹

It is also provided, that where parents, without sufficient reason, keep more grown up children at home than they absolutely require for their service, it shall be considered indicative, either of their being in comparatively good circumstances, or that their income has been improved by the additional labour of their children, and their poor and school-rates are to be raised in proportion.⁶⁰

The law has provided, that in each district there is to be established a poor-house, in which paupers who are on the parish may be boarded and lodged, (a mode of supporting them, which is more and more generally adopted) and where persons who are houseless may find shelter and temporary relief. As those paupers which are able to work ought to be employed, in order that they may pay off with their labour the debt they have incurred with the public, a workhouse is to be combined with each poorhouse, where raw materials may be worked up by the inmates for account of the parish. In districts where the number of poor is very considerable, houses of industry are to be erected, to which, if circumstances permit, an establishment is to be added, where beggars, vagrants and similar persons may be kept to hard labour.⁶¹

Combined with the poorhouses, there is to be (at least in the townships) an hospital, or according to local circumstances, a certain number of rooms in such poorhouses, to be allotted to the sick. By an order of the 6th June 1806, the Chancery is authorized, according to the particular exigencies of each bailiwick, independently of the hospitals already existing, to sanction the establishment of one or two, and in particular places, of three hospitals in each of the seventeen bailiwicks in Denmark.⁶²

However, that salutary measure has hitherto only been executed in few places.

I shall now proceed to the provisions that have been made by the Danish laws with regard to the *settlement of paupers*, a subject of constant litigation between the different parishes, and which therefore deserves a minute investigation.

That district in which a pauper has been permanently resident for the last three years, (without in the meantime having been supported by any other parish) is under the legal obligation of affording relief to him and his family, when called upon.⁶³

The

§ 35.
Regulations for the
suppression of
vagrancy.

§ 36.
Poor-houses and
Workhouses.

§ 37.
Establishments for
the sick poor.

SECTION III.
Of the settlement
of paupers.

§ 38.
General principles
with regard to
settlement.

⁵¹ Reg. T. § 45. Reg. R. § 62.

⁵² Reg. T. § 50. Reg. R. § 67.

⁵³ Ord. 24 Sept. 1708. Plac. 15 Decbr. 1739.
and Reg. 2 December 1741. cap. 6. § 1.

⁵⁴ Law. 3. 19. 77.

⁵⁵ Law. 2-19. 5.

⁵⁶ Ord. 3 April 1816.

⁵⁷ Law. 3. 19. 6.

P. L. (F.)

⁵⁸ Ord. 25. Mch. 1791. § 2. 3.

⁵⁹ Idem. § 4. Ord. 24 July, § 4.

⁶⁰ Circ. Chanc. 26 January 1828.

⁶¹ Resc. 11 June 1817. Plac. 21 Decbr. 1825.

⁶² Res. 6. June 1806.

⁶³ Plac. 20 Febr. 1817. Pat. 23 Decbr. 1808.
§§ 5. 6. 14.

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§ 39.

Settlement of Idiots.

The wife and children of a pauper are entitled to relief in the district where he has a settlement, the same as his widow, in so far as she does not remove to another place, whereas bastards are chargeable to the parish to which the mother originally belonged.⁶⁴

Idiots being deficient in understanding, and therefore unable to choose their place of abode, they cannot, by triennial residence in a parish, acquire a settlement. The law for that reason considers them in the light of children, who are to be supported by that parish to whom they originally belong as such.⁶⁵

§ 40.

Settlement of soldiers.

A soldier while in the service *has* not, but he *may* acquire the right of settlement by three years residence in a parish, after having been discharged.⁶⁶

§ 41.

Where the husband and his family reside in different places.

As it has already been observed, it is the district where the husband has a settlement which is bound also to support his family.

Where the family lives in another parish than that where the husband has resided for three years, he does not thereby acquire a right to be relieved in the former district.

In conformity with this rule, the Chancery decided in the case of a day-labourer who had been settled in a district for many years, that he was entitled to relief there, although his wife and children had for upwards of three years been living in another parish.⁶⁷

§ 42.

In case of separation or divorce between married people.

Where a married man is unable to contribute towards the maintenance of his separated wife and children, that duty devolves upon the parish where he has a settlement.⁶⁸

Where marriage is entirely dissolved, the wife is considered in the light of a widow.

The children that were born during matrimony are to be relieved by the father's parish, and the person who afterwards marries the mother thereby tacitly subscribes to share in the obligation which the law has imposed upon *her*, of supporting her illegitimate children, if she have any.⁶⁹

The same rule is applicable where a widower and a widow from different parishes join in matrimony, both parties having children. Lastly, a husband is obliged to maintain the children begotten in adultery by his wife during wedlock, if the parties notwithstanding continue to live in the matrimonial state.

§ 43.

Settlement of children in general.

During matrimony, and where a separation has taken place, it is incumbent upon the parish where the husband is settled to maintain the children (be they step-children, or begotten by both parties); but where the marriage is dissolved it devolves, in all ordinary cases, upon the mother.

However, in cases of legal divorce it will greatly depend upon the agreement made between the parties at the time, whether the father or the mother are to bring up all or only part of the children, and in general that agreement decides what parish is to bear the burthen on the parents becoming paupers.

The children retain their settlement in their relative parishes until they can support themselves by entering into service or otherwise, and it is immaterial whether they live with their parents or with other persons.

However, they are not in any case entitled to farther support as *children*, on having attained their eighteenth year.⁷⁰

Where the child of a pauper has been received and supported by foster parents, who, from having afterwards been reduced to pauperism themselves, or from not having made any provision for the same on their death, have left it destitute, such child shall be reinstated into all the rights belonging to the settlement of its parents.⁷¹

§ 44.

Settlement of bastards in particular.

The Ordinance of the 14th December 1810, (§ 13,) enacts, that illegitimate children shall follow their mother, and being found destitute, they are to be supported, even after the mother's death, by that parish where she had a settlement, but that such obligation shall cease on their having attained their eighteenth year. A circular from the Chancery, dated 24th February 1816, further explains, that after the rule of *partus sequitur ventrem*, bastard children ought to be supported by the parish to whom the mother belongs, when she is unable to provide for them, being herself a pauper.

§ 45.

Settlement of widows.

A widow, as every other self-subsistent person, can gain a settlement in a parish by three years' permanent residence. Until she have acquired such right in another district, she retains a claim to support in that parish in which her husband was settled.⁷²

Her children follow her into her district, where they are to be brought up until they can maintain themselves.⁷³

§ 46.

In how far the liability to afford relief rests on the birth-place of a pauper.

In cases where the first rule, quoted (§ 38,) cannot be applied, the duty of supporting a pauper devolves upon the parish where he was born.⁷⁴

With regard to bastard children, it is held, that where neither the mother's birth-place nor her place of settlement can be ascertained, the district where the child was born is liable to defray the expense of his support.⁷⁵

Where

⁶⁴ Plac. 14 Decr. 1810. § 10. 11. 13. Pat. 23 Decr. 1808. §§ 18. 19. 20.

⁶⁵ Circ. Chanc. 13 Nov. 1821. Plac. 19 Nov. 1828.

⁶⁶ Ord. 4 May 1802.

⁶⁷ Chanc. Lett. 22 Oct. 1816.

⁶⁸ Lett. Chanc. 1 February 1825.

⁶⁹ Let. Chanc. 14 Oct. 1817, and 4 February 1828.

⁷⁰ Plac. 1810. § 11. Let. Chanc. 21 Augt. 1821.

⁷¹ Plac. 14 December 1810. § 12.

⁷² Plac. 1810. § 10.

⁷³ Idem. § 47.

⁷⁴ Reg. T. §§ 4. 6. Reg. R. §§ 6. 8. Pat. 23 Dec. 1808. § 7. Plac. 20 Feb. 1817.

⁷⁵ Let. Chanc. 8 April 1807. Circ. Chanc. 24 September 1825.

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Where the regulations from (§ 38-46) are not applicable, the obligation of affording relief devolves upon the district where the first application is made. In consequence thereof, a beggar, or a vagrant known to be a native of Denmark, without it being possible for the parish officers to ascertain his birth-place, or where he may have permanently resided for the three last years, or at least for the last twelve months, must be relieved by the parish in which he has been apprehended; but the amount so disbursed is to be refunded by the bailiwick.⁷⁶

Where, however, the last fact has been ascertained, he is to be consigned to that parish where he has been resident for the last twelve months.⁷⁷

Where it cannot be made out, which of two bailiwicks is a pauper's place of birth or settlement, there both shall defray the expense from their respective funds; but the parish in which the pauper abides at the time shall make the disbursement.

A foreign beggar, who has been in Denmark for a number of years, is to be supported in the parish where he has been seized, if he has not had a fixed abode in any other place for three years.⁷⁸

It has been established as a general rule with regard to foreigners, that three years residence in Denmark constitute a claim to relief, if they should thereafter become paupers.

Where an applicant who has claims to relief in a district, has relations or friends in another, who would contribute to his subsistence if he were to repair thither, it shall be lawful to the Commissioners to grant permission to such person to receive in a foreign district that pecuniary allowance, which would have been dispensed to him if he had remained in his own.⁷⁹

§ 47.
Pauper may sometimes receive relief without residing in the parish.

The Danish law has established the principle, that every individual receiving relief of any kind under the Poor Laws, is bound, either with his property or his labour, to refund the amount so disbursed for him, or any part thereof, and authority has therefore been given to the Poor Law Commissioners, "to require all those whom it may concern, to work to the best of their ability, until all they owe has been paid off."

SECTION IV.
Of the right of the Poor Law Administration to claim reimbursement of their expenses for the support of paupers.

That right can for the present only be exercised in a few places, either because the work-houses and houses of industry which are thereby pre-supposed to exist, do not exist in sufficient number, or because those that actually are in existence are very deficient in proper size, internal arrangement and good management.

I shall first dwell upon the measures that are taken by the Poor Laws against the paupers themselves, with regard to their effects or any property of which they may come possessed, and then quote the several cases where the parish is entitled under these laws, to claim reimbursement of the whole, or part of its expenses from other parties.

On relief being awarded to a pauper, the Commissioners of the district have forthwith to take an inventory of, and to appraise his effects, which are only to be delivered over to him for his use, after having been marked with the stamp of the board.⁸⁰

§ 48.
Proceedings with regard to the effects of Paupers.

Any person receiving goods or effects so marked, either by way of purchase or in pledge, shall be liable to the restitution of the property, to the payment of its value, and besides to a fine.⁸¹

In case of a pauper who has been in the receipt of parish relief, the Poor Law Commissioners have a legal right to claim the effects left by the deceased; but where the produce of the sale exceeds the amount disbursed, the surplus only devolves to the parish in so far as the lawful heirs *cannot* or *will* not reimburse the sums expended in his subsistence.⁸²

§ 49.
Effects of paupers deceased devolve to the parish.

For the relief afforded to a pauper or his family, the parish may, even without the consent of the parties, claim and recover those demands which they may have upon another person.⁸³

The same right is retained by the parish upon the pauper, if he should happen to acquire property at a later period, as well as it extends to his effects at his demise, though he should not have received relief at the time of his death.⁸⁴

The law has in several instances imposed upon *other* parties than the parish, the duty to contribute, wholly or in part, to the support of a certain class of destitute persons, and on their neglecting to do so, they may be legally compelled to reimburse those expenses to which the parish has been subjected in the first instance. The principal cases of this nature are the following.

§ 50.
Relief is sometimes to be administered, or the expense of it refunded by other parties than the parish.

Although relatives cannot be legally compelled to support those of their families that are destitute,⁸⁵ yet there are a few exceptions from the general rule. It is for instance provided by Law 1-19-7, that a lunatic or maniac shall be delivered over to his relatives, who are bound to take charge of him, but *cannot* or *will* not, they provide for him, he is to be confined by an order from the Poor Commissioners in some private place until arrangements have been made for his reception in the nearest asylum.⁸⁶

§ 51.
Lunatics to be maintained by their nearest relatives.

The expenses incurred there for his maintenance and cure, are recoverable from the parents

⁷⁶ Ord. 1810. § 6. Plac. 28 December 1827.

⁷⁷ Idem. § 1.

⁷⁸ Lett. Chanc. 27 May and 14 October 1820.

⁷⁹ Reg. T. § 14. Reg. R. § 18.

⁸⁰ Plac. 14 December 1810. § 25.

⁸¹ Idem.

P. L. (F.)

⁸² Reg. T. § 20. Reg. R. § 24.

⁸³ Pat. 23 December 1808. § 32.

⁸⁴ Idem. § 33.

⁸⁵ Circ. Chanc. 22 October 1805.

⁸⁶ Circ. Chanc. 23 March 1793.

parents or from the children of lunatics,⁸⁷ either wholly or in part, according to circumstances.⁸⁸

Also deaf and dumb children.

§ 52.

Husband to maintain his deserted or separated wife and children.

The same regulations are applicable with regard to the maintenance of the deaf and dumb,⁸⁹ and in both instances the support of such persons devolves upon the parish, whenever their nearest relatives cannot afford to defray the expense.

According to the principles laid down in the Ordinance of the 16th November 1813 (§ 11), it is incumbent upon the husband to support his separated (or deserted) wife and her children, in so far as he is able, and it is therefore lawful for the magistrates to stipulate the amount of the contribution which persons so situated, as well as the putative fathers of bastards, are annually to pay towards the support of such wives and such children respectively.

Father of bastards to contribute towards their maintenance.

§ 53.

Persons refusing to contribute may be compelled to work for the benefit of the parish.

However, the putative father of a bastard child, even if he have the means, cannot be held to bring it up entirely at his own expense, a part of the obligation resting upon the mother, who is represented by the parish in all cases where she is reduced to pauperism.⁹⁰

An Ordinance of the 13th August 1814 expressly enacts, that wherever a person, circumstanced as above stated, absolutely refuses either to refund or to pay by instalments the debt he has so contracted with the parish, he shall be forced to pay it off by working for the benefit of the same, and not be allowed to leave the parish; but that if he do so notwithstanding, he is to be punished by imprisonment in the house of correction. The Commissioners are further authorized to stipulate the amount such individual is to pay off per week, in proportion to his capability to work, to the actual rate of wages and other concurring circumstances, and that where such person either refuses to work, or is idle or negligent during the working hours, he is to be imprisoned on bread and water until he reform his conduct. These proceedings may also be resorted to where the father of a bastard child (the mother of which is on the parish) cannot pay the weekly allowance towards its maintenance, which has been stipulated by the magistrates.⁹¹ It must, however, be remarked, that this mode of enforcing payment is hardly applicable but in the few parishes in which there are both workhouses and houses of correction.

§ 54.

In what cases masters are to pay for the cure of their servants.

In all ordinary cases, the master is obliged to support his servant during sickness, and so long until the latter, for some lawful reason or other, leaves his service. However, the expenses immediately connected with his cure are to be borne by the menial himself, or if he have no means, by the parish in which he is entitled to relief.⁹²

But where it can be sufficiently proved that a servant has received a bodily hurt or injury on the service of his master, the latter, so far as he is able, shall refund to the parish the expenses disbursed by the same for the cure of the patient.

§ 55.

By whom labouring mechanics are to be relieved in case of sickness.

In conformity to an Ordinance of the 14th December 1810 (§ 14), amended by another of the 29th January 1828, labouring mechanics in distress are to be relieved in the same manner as other casual paupers; but in cases of sickness, occurring in places where there exists a guild or corporation of the craft or trade to which he belongs, the funds of the same shall be made available under certain restrictions and to a certain extent, to defray the expenses of his cure.⁹³

That district which has been found liable to support a pauper, who afterwards leaves it, shall be bound, on his being sent back, to indemnify the parish where he has received temporary relief for the expenses thereby incurred, in so far as they do not exceed 1 s. 1½ d. sterling per week for food, and 9 s. sterling in the whole for clothing; cases of sickness however excepted.⁹⁴

Remark.—Between Denmark and Sleswick Holstein there exists a convention of reciprocity with regard to the expenses of casual relief as well as of removal of the paupers, vagrants and beggars, belonging to each of the two counties, which, although under one King, form distinct Governments.

§ 56.

How paupers are to be removed to their settlements.

Where a pauper happens to fall sick at the time when he is about to be removed from the parish where he has received temporary relief, his removal shall be delayed until it can be effected without injury to his health.⁹⁵

Otherwise the pauper or vagrant (the parish where he has a settlement having been ascertained) shall be sent thither through the medium of the magistrates, either by land or by water. If by land, he will be forwarded (either on foot or by carriage, according to circumstances) from one district to the other until he arrive in the parish where he is to receive permanent relief.

Foreigners who have not resided for three years in a district are to be sent out of the kingdom, in so far as their health allow it.⁹⁶

The removal of paupers or vagrants to their homes by *water*, and their subsistence during the passage, is to take place at the expense of the parish which is to provide for their support.

The

⁸⁷ Circ. 15 October 1816.

⁸⁸ Res. 19 November 1828.

⁸⁹ Reg. 17 April 1807. § 11.

⁹⁰ Circ. Chanc. 8 January 1814.

⁹¹ Circ. Chan. 4 October 1814.

⁹² Plac. 14 Dec. 1810. § 18 Pat. 23 Dec. 1808. §§ 22. 23.

⁹³ Plac. 16. 29 January 1828.

⁹⁴ Plac. 14 Dec. 1810. §§ 5. 7. Pat. 1808. §§ 11. 12.

⁹⁵ Plac. 14 Dec. 1810. §§ 2-4. Pat. 1808. § 8. 9. 13.

⁹⁶ Pat. 1808. § 15.

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The expense of their removal by *land*, on the contrary, is to be defrayed in each district through which they pass from the poor fund of each bailiwick.⁹⁷

Parish officers refusing to receive and forward persons so sent are to pay a fine of 1 s. 3 d. sterling, besides costs.⁹⁸

A master or boatman landing from his vessel, a pauper not provided with a vagrant pass from the proper magistrates, shall, at his own expense, carry such person back whence he came.

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SECTION V.
Of the parochial fund and the contributions to same.

The *Parochial Fund* and the nature of the contributions to the same will form the subject of the 5th Section of my Report. It is not only made obligatory upon the house and landholders to contribute to that fund, but also upon servants and labouring mechanics, in short upon all persons, without distinction of religion, who are not on the parish themselves, and whose circumstances are such that they can afford to pay the contribution in proportion to their incomes, without thereby depriving themselves of the necessities of life.

The only exception are the military, and persons receiving pay from the military fund, who are only liable to contribute in so far as they have private means.⁹⁹

The Receipts of the Parochial Fund are derived from various sources, which may be classed under the following heads, viz.

§ 57.
Receipts of the parochial fund.

1°. An annual contribution in money, either voluntary or levied, upon the inhabitants, according to the assessment of the Board of Commissioners in each parish, and in proportion to the amount annually required for the relief of the poor.

This contribution is recovered in four quarterly instalments, each of which is payable in advance. The Commissioners have to transmit a list of those persons that are in arrears to the bailiff of the division, who may levy the amount by distress.

2°. A contribution assessed upon the produce of the ground tax in the townships;

3°. One quarter per cent. of the proceeds of goods and effects sold by public auction in the townships;

4°. Fines and penalties adjudged to the parochial fund by the Courts of Justice and the Commissioners of Arbitration in the townships;

5°. Produce of collections in churches and hospitals on certain occasions; of the sale of the effects of paupers deceased; of the sale of stray cattle having no owner; voluntary donations on the purchase or sale of houses and lands; contingencies;

6°. Interest on capital, and rent of lands or houses bequeathed to, or otherwise acquired by the poor administration.

Per contra, the Expenditure and Disbursements of the Parochial Fund are the following:

§ 58.
Expenditure of the parochial fund.

1°. Expenses incurred by the permanent relief to the poor who have a settlement in the parish;

2°. Provisional relief to paupers belonging to other parishes, the amount of which is afterwards refunded by the latter;

3°. Disbursements for the cure of persons labouring under a syphilitic disorder, as also the expenses for persons included in § 50 to 54, part of which are repaid;

4°. Disbursements for raw materials to be worked up in the workhouses;

5°. Expenses for the deaf and dumb born of indigent parents, and who are sent to the public institutions;

6°. Stationery, messengers, wages to beadles and other subalterns, besides contingent expenses.

In the townships one of the members of the commission is elected treasurer by plurality of votes; in the rural districts it devolves upon the member who is the principal landowner.

§ 59.
Who is to act as Treasurer.

The treasurer has to advance the sums required for the service by the curate or the overseers, who have to account to him for the amount.¹⁰⁰

In the townships the accounts concerning the administration of the parochial fund are made up by the treasurer, who is also accountant, and they are attested by the other members of the board. The balance sheet and the accounts must be transmitted to the Board of Directors before the end of March every year, under a penalty.

§ 60.
How accounts in the townships are to be made up, audited and passed.

They are audited by the auditor of the high-bailiwick, and on being found correct, they are allowed by the Board of Directors, who are authorized to give a discharge to the Commissioners.¹⁰¹

In the rural districts the Board of Commissioners render an account to the directors of the bailiwick. The balance sheet and the accounts, which are made up by the curate, and closed on the 31st December of each year, are attested by the Board of Commissioners, and transmitted to the provost or head-clergyman of the division before the 1st of February following.

§ 61.
How accounts are to be rendered in the rural parishes.

After having been revised by the clergyman they are forwarded to the directors of the bailiwick, who proceeds with them in the manner already pointed out in the preceding paragraph.¹⁰²

Having

⁹⁷ Plac. 1810. § 9.

⁹⁸ Reg. T. § 55. Reg. R. § 72.

⁹⁹ Circ. Chanc. 26 May 1810.

¹⁰⁰ Reg. T. § 41. Reg. R. § 45.

¹⁰¹ Circ. Chanc. 4/7 April 1807. 6 January 1829.

¹⁰² Reg. R. §§ 52. 53. 55.

SECTION VI.

Of the Board of Directors for the bailiwick, and of the separate poor fund of the same.

§ 62.

Half yearly meetings of the Board of Directors.

Having rendered a general account of the management of the Poor Laws, and in particular of the duties devolving upon the Commissioners established in each district, I have now once more to revert to the Board of Directors as the organ of communication with the Government in all matters concerning the poor.

The meetings of the Board of Directors for the bailiwick (refer to § 3) are to be held at the residence of the bailiff or amtmann twice a year, namely, in April and October, and where, from an accumulation of business, it is impossible to dispatch it on one day, the meetings are to be continued the following days, and until all pending affairs are brought to a conclusion.¹⁰³

The bailiff is authorized to call meetings at any other time when it should be requisite.¹⁰⁴

The several members of the board have in all cases to attend such meetings gratuitously, but they are entitled to a conveyance free of expense under an order to that effect from the bailiff.

§ 63.

Bailiff may dispatch business in the name of the Board.

The business which occurs during the time intervening between the half-yearly meetings, is to be dispatched by the bailiff alone, in the name of the board, and he has to decide in all cases which do not admit of delay, rendering an account of his proceedings to the board at their next meeting.¹⁰⁵

He is also to be careful that the requisite documents in support of claims are furnished in time, in order that all cases to be submitted to the board may be ready for their decision.¹⁰⁶

§ 64.

Proceedings of the Board of Directors.

At these meetings all objects concerning the management of the Poor Laws generally are to come under consideration of the board, but particularly the complaints that have been made.

Moreover the balance sheets and accounts referring to the poor-fund of the bailiwick and to the parochial fund are there to be revised, and a discharge to be given to the parties when found correct.¹⁰⁷

The board has also to submit an annual Report to the Chancery on the poor-law concerns of each of the parishes in the bailiwick.

§ 65.

Treasurer and accountant of the poor fund.

The collector of the King's taxes in the division is treasurer to the separate poor-fund of the bailiwick, of which he renders an account to the board. With him are also deposited the bonds and other public securities belonging to the fund.

He receives the annual balances from the several parochial funds of the division in so far as they may not be required as advances towards the service of the following year.¹⁰⁸

His annual accounts are laid before, and revised by, the Board of Directors, who give him a discharge when found correct.

§ 66.

Receipts of the separate poor fund of the bailiwick.

The receipts of the separate poor fund of the bailiwick consist chiefly, 1°. In a proportion of certain dues levied in each of its jurisdictions; 2°. In fines and penalties adjudged to the fund by the tribunals and the commissions of arbitration in the agricultural districts; 3°. In $\frac{1}{4}\%$ of all goods and effects sold by public auction in the country; 4°. In the interest on capital belonging to the fund.

§ 67.

Expenditure of the same.

This fund has been established for the following purposes: 1°. Of contributing to the support of paupers who, although not properly belonging to the poor of the district in which they have become distressed, must still be relieved; 2°. Of assisting the parochial fund in extraordinary cases; 3°. Of defraying all expenses of a general nature that ought to be assessed upon the several parish funds within the jurisdiction of the bailiwick.

SECTION VII.

Of the operation of the present system of poor laws and of the effects of the same upon the condition of the poor.

§ 68.

On what principles managed by the parish officers.

It must be allowed that the Danish Poor Laws are dictated by a humane and benevolent spirit; they protect from want the aged and the infirm; they relieve the sick and provide for the education of helpless children. The condition of the poor (I particularly allude here to the two first classes) has been materially improved through their agency; a great deal of misery has either been prevented or removed, and their operation has been most beneficial on different occasions, when great numbers of working people were suddenly thrown out of employ from the circumstances of the times. But it is not the theory of the law; it is its practice which ought to form the standard of its worth: however, as it would lead too far to enter into all the details concerning its operation, I confine myself to stating that the Poor Commissioners, more or less, agree upon the following general principles: 1°, That they ought not, in the first instance, to shrink from a thorough investigation into the merits of the several claims which come before them; 2°, That a distinction must be drawn between the persons reduced by misfortunes beyond their control, and those applicants whose distresses arise from temporary causes, and are either the result of improvidence, or of indolent and dissolute habits; 3°, That firmness in stemming the tide of pauperism is an imperious duty they owe to the public, although often difficult and even painful to perform; 4°, That on dispensing relief, it should be given in *kind* wherever circumstances permit, and not in *money*; 5°, That no more must be granted to able-bodied paupers than what is absolutely necessary to sustain life; and 6°, That the able-bodied be made to work on all occasions where it can be done.

It

¹⁰³ Reg. R. § 57.¹⁰⁴ Idem. § 58.¹⁰⁵ Idem. § 59.¹⁰⁶ Reg. R. § 60.¹⁰⁷ § 61.¹⁰⁸ Idem. § 47. Circ. Chanc. 24 Feb. 1821.

It is hardly imaginable that in an administration, the branches of which are so numerous and so widely spread, the various agents that are employed should all of them strictly act upon one uniform system; and although complaints have from time to time been made in several places of an increase of paupers and poor rates, yet I have every reason to believe, that on the whole the management of the poor in this country is conducted as well as the complicated and imperfect machinery which is employed possibly admits of. It appears that waste and extravagance are carefully avoided, and that the sums annually contributed by the rate payers, although perhaps not at all times applied with judgment and impartiality, are at least mostly expended with economy. However, be the management of the Poor Laws good or bad, yet the system itself seems to have answered an important object, that of checking the rapid growth of pauperism. I admit, that paupers have increased in Denmark these last thirty years, in the same proportion with the increase of population (*pari passu*); but I am far from believing that the proportion which they bear to the whole population is *much* greater now than it was in 1803, namely, 1=32, although some of the townships, from particular circumstances, may form an exception. I have diligently perused all the different reports that have been published for the last five years upon the present state of the rural economy of the country, and they all concur in stating that there is a slight improvement in the value of land; that idle people are seldom found; and that there is sufficient work in which to employ the labouring population.

But the imperfections, inseparable from all human institutions, also affect the system of the Danish Poor Laws; and I shall endeavour to point out the most conspicuous, in so far as I have been able to ascertain them from practical men, whose opinion I judged it necessary to consult on so important a subject. § 69.
Defects of the system.

1°. It is considered very injurious that the managing officer in the larger parishes is not permanently appointed for the purpose, nor a person who is paid for his services, as it cannot be reasonably expected, that a man having his own affairs to attend to, should devote either sufficient attention, or a great portion of his valuable time to the performance of an unpleasant duty, without receiving any remuneration for his trouble. Gratuitous services cannot be relied upon, and seldom stand the test of time.

2°. Serious inconvenience is also stated to arise from the want of a sufficient number of spacious and well-regulated workhouses. It would therefore be highly recommendable that incorporated workhouses or district houses of industry were formed in the principal towns at convenient distances, where the surrounding rural parishes, on contributing to the maintenance of the establishment, could send their able-bodied paupers to be set to work. It has been remarked, that in districts where a workhouse is established, the number of paupers is comparatively small, no doubt owing to their objection to its discipline, where they have the least chance of being otherwise employed. A workhouse is also an excellent touchstone in the hands of the parish officers, by which to distinguish real and comparative distress.

3°. Another want which is most sensibly felt in this country is, that of an adequate number of establishments, where those paupers which prove to be dissolute, refractory, turbulent or habitual drunkards, may be confined and subjected to hard labour. The only two establishments of that description I know of, but which are no wise sufficient, are at Odense, in the Island of Funen, and at Flensburgh, in the Dutchy of Sleswick.

4°. The law of settlement, as it at present stands, is equally objectionable, it giving rise to frequent disputes between the parishes, thus causing much vexation and delay, and besides great expense by the removal of paupers.

Moreover it must confine the labourer to the narrow limits of his own district, preventing him from seeking work in another parish when he cannot obtain it in his own.

Birth, according to the Danish laws, confers only a settlement where a legal claim by residence cannot be made out; but in how far it would be advisable to resort to any change of system, remains still to be decided.

5°. The greatest desideratum however is, that the administration of the Poor Laws be entrusted, as to their general superintendence, to a Central Board of Commissioners, composed of active and experienced men, well acquainted with the different branches of industry, as also with the character of the class of people they have to deal with, and whose affairs they have to manage. Such an independent authority does not exist. The Danish Chancery, who have the superintendence at present, cannot fulfil the object, so long as their attention is constantly withdrawn by affairs of higher importance with which they are already overburthened. Hence a great delay arises in the dispatch of business, a very serious inconvenience in urgent matters.

It frequently happens besides, that the spirit of the laws is misinterpreted, and their favourable operation frustrated by the parish officers themselves, in all cases where a sufficient distinction is not made between *absolute* and *relative* want. It can only be obligatory upon the public to relieve the person that is *absolutely* destitute; I mean to say, him who is driven by necessity to subscribe to the terms stipulated by the law of making a return in labour. Where the parish officers on the contrary deviate from that principle by interfering in cases of *relative* want, that is to say, by assisting those whose situation is tolerable; where they take it upon themselves to fulfil a duty towards the poor without binding them by an obligation in return; there all charitable feelings must become blunted in the individual; there the country must gradually sink under the pressure of an insupportable burden, and finish by becoming a vast receptacle of paupers.

§ 70.
Effects of the receipt or the expectation of relief on the labouring population.

The feeling of reluctance to have recourse to parochial relief has been gradually diminishing in this country since the introduction of Poor Laws; the poor having accustomed themselves more and more to consider the poor rates in the light of a fund from which they are legally entitled to draw relief in all cases of distress.

Any facility therefore given on the part of the parish in dispensing it, immediately increases the number of applicants, and of course ultimately the number of paupers, which latter would still be more considerable if one-half of the labouring population were not engaged as farm servants. Pauperism is therefore chiefly confined (especially in the country) to the class of day-labourers, both mechanic and agricultural, who, when aged and decrepit, or burdened with large families, throw themselves upon parish relief whenever they are distressed from sickness or from some other casualty. But happily the allowance-system, which is productive of so much mischief, is not acted upon here to the same enormous extent as in England, and as the able-bodied can expect nothing beyond the *absolute* necessities of life, they have no inducement for remaining idle, and they return to work the moment they are able, and have the chance of obtaining any. Relief, therefore, or the expectation of it, has hitherto not been found to produce any sensible effect upon the *industry* of labourers generally, neither upon their *frugality*, although it is more than probable, that any relaxation in the management of the system would stimulate them to spend all their earnings in present enjoyment, and render them still more improvident than they already are. Nor are the Poor Laws instrumental in promoting early marriages amongst the peasants; but it being their custom to form engagements at a very early period of life, this, in the absence of all moral restraint in the intercourse between the two sexes, leads to another serious evil, *Bastardy*, which has so much increased of late years, that out of *ten* children, *one* is illegitimate. It is a well-known fact, that the ties of love and mutual affection between parents and children are generally found relaxed, not only in families of paupers who are on the parish, but also in those of beggars and vagrants, which perhaps is owing more to a neglected education, and to the state of continual dependence and misery in which they live, than to any immediate influence of the Poor Laws as they are managed here.

§ 71.
The situation of an independent working labourer preferable to that of a pauper.

It is a principle generally adopted in this country, that a person supported by the public purse, ought not to fare so well as the independent working labourer, and where that principle is not strictly upheld, the natural consequence will be, that the lower classes throw themselves upon the poor-rates, and that pauperism gradually overruns the country.

A pauper in this kingdom lives in a state of degradation and dependence; he only receives what is absolutely necessary for his subsistence, and must often have recourse to fraud and imposition to obtain that, what is reluctantly given.

The working labourer on the other hand enjoys a certain degree of freedom and independence, although his means may be small, and that sometimes he may even be subject to great privations.

He may perhaps sit down with his family to a scanty meal, but at least he partakes of it with the gratifying feeling of having earned it.

From the above considerations, the condition of such a labourer, even one of the lowest class, seems to be preferable to the condition of a person subsisting upon alms and public charity.

Hitherto pauperism has not taken deep root in this country; but should it ever so happen that the labouring population readily submit to all the restrictions imposed upon them by the parish officers, and that this is found not to be owing to any transitory causes, such as a single year of distress or sickness, *then*, in my humble opinion, the time is arrived and no other remedy left to correct the evil than for the Government to promote emigration.

I have the honour to be, &c.

Sir George Shee, Bart.,
&c. &c. &c.

Francis C. Macgregor.

REPLIES to the QUERIES of the Poor Law Commissioners, by
Francis C. Macgregor, Esq. Consul.

I.—VAGRANTS.

Question 1. To what extent and under what form does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?—*Answer.* Begging in the streets and on the highways is interdicted, and the offenders are punished according to law. Still mendicity prevails to a certain degree in the towns, but to a greater extent in the country, where it is more difficult to suppress it. [Refer to my Report, *suprà*, § 34.]

Q. 2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country, seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded and under what regulations?—*A.* The expenses attending the removal of paupers, beggars and vagrants to their homes or over the frontier, are to be defrayed in each district through which they pass, from the general poor fund of the Division, and the parish officer refusing to receive and forward

forward persons so sent by the proper authorities, is to pay a fine and costs. Agricultural labourers may travel all over the country in search of work, when provided with the proper certificates. [See my Report, §§ 35. 56.]

II.—DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

Q. 1. To what extent and under what regulations are they, or any part of their families, billeted or quartered on householders?—A. The system of billeting or quartering is not generally resorted to in this country, but where circumstances require, lodgings are procured for the paupers at the expense of the parish. In cases of emergency they may however be quartered on householders in rotation. [See Report, § 33.]

Q. 2. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—A. This is done in many instances, but it depends entirely upon the local arrangements made for the subsistence of the poor in each parish.

Q. 3. To what extent and under what regulations are there district houses of industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families, and supplying them with food, clothes, &c., and in which they are set to work?—There are no district houses or incorporated workhouses, where paupers belonging to different parishes can be sent. The workhouses and houses of industry established in some of the principal town parishes are only open to the paupers of each of them respectively. [Refer to my Report, § 36.]

Q. 4. To what extent and under what regulations do any religious institutions give assistance to the destitute, by receiving them as inmates, or by giving them alms?—A. There are no *religious* institutions, properly speaking, but many institutions, as well as legacies left for certain charitable purposes, and which are managed by trustees under the will of the founders. Bequests to a considerable amount have besides been made from time to time for the general support of the poor, which property is administered under the Poor Laws.

Q. 5. To what extent, and under what regulations, is work provided at their own dwellings for those who have trades, but do not procure work for themselves?—It is left to the discretion of the Poor Commissioners to act as circumstances may require and in the manner best adapted to the local arrangements of each parish.

Q. 6. To what extent and under what regulations is work provided for such persons in agriculture or on public works?—A. The law has made it incumbent upon the Commissioners to procure employment for a pauper willing and able to work, but who cannot obtain any; however it is often evaded, and the labourer, in lieu of receiving employment, is thrown upon the parish for relief. Paupers are never employed upon the roads.

Q. 7. To what extent and under what regulations are fuel, clothing or money distributed to such persons or their families; at all times of the year, or during any particular seasons?—A. Supplies of fuel, clothing and money are granted under the Poor Laws, and distributed the whole year round, to all paupers legally entitled to relief; the extent of which is left to the discretion of the Commissioners according to the circumstances of each individual case. However, relief in *money* is not so frequently given as relief in *kind*, especially in the rural parishes, where the contributions in a great measure consist in grain and articles of provision.

Q. 8. To what extent and under what regulations are they relieved by their children being taken into schools, and fed, clothed and educated or apprenticed?—A. The children of the poor are provided with food and clothing, where their parents cannot afford the same. They receive instruction at the expense of the parish, upon whose inhabitants a certain rate is assessed to defray the charge of a schoolmaster and his establishment. Their parents, or foster parents, are bound under a penalty to send them regularly to school, which they must attend until the age of 14–15, when they are confirmed, and apprenticed to some trade, or put out to service.

Q. 9. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are the relatives of the destitute compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking charge of part of their families?—A. The Danish laws do not in general make it incumbent upon relatives to support those of their families that are destitute, except in the cases of *lunatics* and the *deaf and dumb*, where the liability to support them extends upon the parents or upon the children, when they can afford it. Parents are only legally obliged to maintain their children until their eighteenth year when they have the means. [Refer to my Report, § 51.]

Q. 10. To what extent and under what regulations are they assisted by loans?—A. The Commissioners have a discretionary power to grant loans or to make advances in cases of momentary distress: under what restrictions will appear from the § 32 of my Report.

III.—IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

Q. 1. To what extent and under what regulations are there alms-houses or other institutions for the reception of those who, through age, are incapable of earning their subsistence?—A. Where persons of this description are not entitled to admittance in one of the institutions alluded to in the Answer to Query 4, Section II., they are subsisted in the alms

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or poor-house of that parish where they have a legal settlement. Establishments of this nature are now existing in many of the parishes, and are becoming more and more general.

Q. 2. To what extent and under what regulations is relief in food, fuel, clothing or money afforded them at their homes?—A. Is only resorted to in parishes, where no appropriate houses for the poor exist, or if they do exist, where circumstances prevent their admittance in the same.

Q. 3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—A. The same.

Q. 4. To what extent and under what regulations are they quartered or billeted on the householders?—A. The billet or ticket system is not customary; but where such paupers cannot be accommodated in poor-houses, a lodging or a habitation is procured for them at the expense of the parish.

Q. 5. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking part of their families. [See Answer to Query 9, Section II.]

IV.—SICK.

Q. 1. To what extent and under what regulations are there district institutions for the reception of the sick?—A. In each bailiwick there is a district institution for the reception of the sick poor; and most of the parishes have infirmaries, where they are supplied with medical advice and medicine at the expense of the parish. In each of the medical districts either a physician or a surgeon is stationed for the purpose of attending the poor, and in the larger towns there is at least one apothecary.

Q. 2. To what extent and under what regulations are surgical and medical relief afforded to the poor at their own homes?—A. They receive medical advice and medicine at their homes in places in which there is either no institution for the sick, or where circumstances prevent their being sent to, or received in, the same, where they exist.

Q. 3. To what extent and under what regulations are there institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick?—A. To the best of my knowledge, there are no institutions of that kind, except soup societies which have been formed in the principal towns, but which supply the poor of the place generally.

Q. 4. To what extent and under what regulations is assistance given to lying-in women at their homes, or in public establishments?—A. There are three lying-in hospitals in the Danish dominions, namely, at *Copenhagen*, *Kiel* and *Altona*, where poor women are attended gratuitously, and where at the same time persons are instructed in midwifery. In the other places lying-in women, being destitute, are generally attended by the midwife of the district at their homes, at the expense of the parish, and are treated like other sick persons.

Q. 5. To what extent and under what regulations are there any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick?—There are none of which I am aware.

V.—CHILDREN.

Illegitimate.

Q. 1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall; wholly upon the mothers, or wholly upon the fathers; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations?—A. The support of bastards devolves in the first instance upon the mothers; however, the putative father is obliged, when called upon, to contribute to the maintenance of the child until it is ten years of age, but no longer. The amount of the allowance, for which an order is given by the bailiff of the district, depends upon the circumstances of the father, and the minimum would be about 1*l.* per annum. Where the mother has become a pauper, the bastard must be supported by the parish to which she belongs; but the parish has a claim upon the father for his share of the expense. [Refer to my Report, §§ 44. 52.]

Q. 2. To what extent and under what regulations are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards?—A. The law, as it now stands, does not compel either of them to contribute to the maintenance of bastards. [Refer to my Report, § 51.]

Q. 3. To what extent and under what regulations are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?—A. Illegitimate children become chargeable upon the parish in all cases where the father and mother are unable to support them. Bastardy is of frequent occurrence in this country.

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	ORPHANS.	FOUNDLINGS.	DESERTED CHILDREN, whose Parents are known.
Q. 4. To what extent and under what regulations are they taken into establishments for their reception?	-- A. Are placed, according to existing circumstances, either in some public institution or with foster parents, to be brought up and educated for account of the parish.	-- The same. The number of these children is comparatively small.	-- The same. It is of rare occurrence in this country that parents desert their children.
Q. 5. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?	-- A. Never. The Government, however, give great encouragement to those of the peasantry who foster children belonging to any of the townships. A peasant, for instance, whose own son has been drawn for the military service, may replace him by his foster son, the latter being fit.		
Q. 6. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?	A. They are frequently so, but this is entirely left to the discretion of the Commissioners.		
Q. 7. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?	A. The law does not require their relatives to support them. There are orphan houses at Copenhagen, Sleswick, Kiel, Altona, and in different other places.		

VI.—CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

	CRIPPLES.	DEAF AND DUMB.	BLIND.
Q. 1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception? 2. Or, are they billeted or quartered on householders? 3. Or boarded with individuals?	-- Cripples, being destitute, are supported by the parish in which they have a legal settlement. There are some establishments in which crippled and maimed persons are received.	-- There are two establishments; one at Copenhagen, founded in 1807 for 90 children, and another at Sleswick in 1809 for 75 children. Where the parents cannot afford the expense of their education and maintenance, it is defrayed by the parish where they have a legal settlement.	-- The only institution for the blind is at Copenhagen, and was founded in 1811. Children sent there must be supported by their parents if they have the means, otherwise they must be supported by the parish to which they belong.
	Destitute persons of this description are generally supported in the parish to which they belong, in a manner best suiting the local arrangements of each particular place.		
Q. 4. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?	-- A. The parents of a cripple are not obliged to support him after his 18th year. If at that period he is unable to support himself, he is entitled to relief in the parish where his parents are settled.	See Answer to Query 9, Sect. II.	-- There is no law compelling the parents say relatives of a destitute blind to maintain him.

IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

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	IDIOTS.	LUNATICS.
Q. 1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception?	-- A. There is no particular establishment for their reception; but the parish must provide for them, where their parents cannot afford it.	-- There are different establishments for lunatics. The principal are at <i>Bistrupgaard</i> near <i>Roeskilde</i> , and another in <i>Sleswick</i> . Lunatics from all parts of the kingdom are admitted; but the parties sending them must defray the expense of their maintenance. The hospitals and poor-houses in many places, have particular rooms adapted for the reception of lunatics. They are not quartered upon householders, but boarded and lodged according to circumstances, the same as other paupers.
Q. 2. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?	—	
Q. 3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?	A. The same as other paupers.	
Q. 4. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?	-- A. Idiots having attained the age of puberty, and not being able to maintain themselves, must be relieved by the parish, the law not generally compelling parents to support their children after their 18th year. See my Report, § 39.	-- A lunatic must be supported either by his parents or by his children; and where they cannot afford the expense or any part of the same, it must be defrayed by his parish. See my Report, § 51.

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

- 1st. On the industry of the labourers?—See my Report, § 70.
 2d. On their frugality?—See my Report, § 70.
 3d. On the age at which they marry?—See my Report, § 70.
 4th. On the mutual dependence and affection of parent, children, and other relatives?—See my Report, § 70.
 5th. What, on the whole, is the condition of the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, as compared with the condition of the person subsisting on alms or public charity. Is the condition of the latter, as to food and freedom from labour more or less eligible?—(See p. 261 & 335 of the Poor Law "Extracts.")—See my Report, § 71.

LABOURERS, &c.

Q. 1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month, or the year, with and without provisions, in summer and in winter?—A. Where no provisions are given, a labourer in this neighbourhood may earn from 9d. to 10d. per day in summer, and 6d. to 7d. in winter. Receiving food, in summer 6d. to 7d., and in winter 4d. to 5d. per day. In the interior of the country the rate of wages is one-third less. For further particulars with regard to the rates of wages of different descriptions of labourers, see the Statement marked Annex (C.)

Q. 2. Is piece-work general?—A. Piece-work is by no means general; but an able labourer may earn from one-third to one-half more than the highest summer wages above quoted.

Q. 3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—A. I am unable to answer this question with any degree of accuracy, it being hardly possible to ascertain the average earnings of persons who are not permanently employed. I am, however, induced to believe, that in this part of the country from 12l. to 15l. would be a fair computation of what a labourer, on an average, may expect to earn in the course of the year.

Q. 4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?—A. I refer to the Statement in the Annex, marked (C.)

Q. 5. Is there any, and what employment for women and children?—A. In summer, women can always find employment in harvest, in making turf where it abounds, in digging up potatoes and in weeding; in winter chiefly in knitting and spinning. Children can hardly earn any thing, their parents being legally obliged to send them to school three days in the week.

Q. 6. What can women, and children under 16, earn per week, in summer, in winter and

and harvest, and how employed?—A. An industrious woman in summer may earn about 2s. 6d. to 3s. per week, and during harvest time a little more, without food. These earnings must however be limited to only four months of the year; the remaining eight months she will not be able to earn more than 1s. 6d. to 2s. per week. From the reasons already stated in the preceding answer, children must be expected to contribute but little to the common stock, and the produce of their joint labour may probably not exceed 7d. per week on an average.

Q. 7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8 and 5 years, respectively, (the eldest a boy), expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?—A. From the answers to the preceding questions it would appear, that the joint labour of a woman and three children would produce on an average 6l. annually.

Q. 8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children, and if so, on what food?—A. With prudence and economy, which however are no characteristics of the peasantry of this country, I doubt not, it might be done. Their principal food consists of rye-bread, groats, potatoes, coffee, butter, cheese and milk, in which articles a family consisting of man, wife and three children would expend about 15l. per annum in this neighbourhood. In other parts of the country they fare worse. Food is cheap.

Q. 9. Could it lay by any thing, and how much?—A. From what has come under my own observation, and from the information I have derived from persons living amongst the peasantry, I must opine, that a family cannot lay by any thing.

Q. 10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?—A. Perhaps an acre of land, taking a general average; but the quantity varies according to the class to which a labourer belongs. There are, 1°. Cottagers, "*Huusmænd*," with land, of which about five acres are annexed to their habitations; and 2°. Cottagers without land, or having only a small garden. The former however are the most numerous. Adding to these the labourers in fixed service, the total forms nearly one-third of the population.

Q. 11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations?—A. The owners of labourers' habitations are the nobility and other landed proprietors. The Crown also owns large tracts of land.

Q. 12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale?—A. For a habitation without land, the rent is generally 12 days' labour, and with a small garden about 1l. per acre. The price on sale of the former would be from 5l. to 6l., and of the latter about 10l.

Q. 13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—A. The habitations with land, of which there is at least one upon every small farm, and a great number upon the large estates, are inalienable, nor can the proprietor take them into his own hands. The rent is generally paid in labour, and would not exceed 2l. to 2l. 10s. in money. No land let to labourers.

Q. 14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?—A. The present population is computed at 1,250,000, and the average mortality of the last five years, as per Table marked Annex (B.) amounts to 34,710, the proportion would therefore be 1 = 36, but considering that the mortality was uncommonly great during 1829, 30 & 31, the right proportion would be 1 = 40.

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Q. 15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?—A. According to Table (A.) the proportion is 1 = 34.

Q. 16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?—A. According to Table (A.) the proportion is 1 = 123.

Q. 17. The average number of children to a marriage?—A. According to Table marked Annex (A.) the proportion is 3,675 = 1.

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Q. 18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?—A. According to Table (A.) the proportion is 9,661 = 1.

Q. 19. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year?—A. I am unable to reply to this question, the Danish Mortality Lists not stating the particulars.

Q. 20. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 10th year?—A. According to Table (B.) the proportion is 1 = 3,581.

Q. 21. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 18th year?—A. The Danish mortality lists do not state the particulars.

Q. 22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—A. No statistical details on the subject have been published in Denmark, so far as I know. For men I should take the age of 28, when their liability to military service expires, and for women 22.

Q. 23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—A. According to the civil law of Denmark, marriages cannot be prevented on account of the poverty of the parties; but all such persons as are in the receipt of parochial relief are not to be married, unless the Poor Commissioners allow it on special grounds. There are many circumstances by which marriages may be delayed, but over which the law has no control. [See my Report, § 22.]

Q. 24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried; 2d, the married, save?—A. The labouring classes, particularly in this neighbourhood, are sensual and improvident. But if any of them save, I am induced to think, they would only be able to do so while they are single. Once married, and especially begetting many children, saving is out of the question. This applies both to mechanical and agricultural labourers. However, the farmers on a small scale (I allude to those who are industrious and economical) may lay by in times when the corn prices are high.

Q. 25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—A. They may invest their savings in

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savings' banks, which are combined with the banks of deposit (Laane-Casser) that are established in the principal places of Denmark, but particularly in Sleswick-Holstein, which has a very considerable share in the total of the deposits, which are estimated at from 800,000*l.* to a million sterling, and of which sum Copenhagen owns about one-fourth. It must however be observed, that great part of the money deposited belongs not to the *lower* but to the *middle* classes.

Francis C. Macgregor, Consul.

Annex (A.)

A TABLE, showing the Average Number of MARRIAGES and BIRTHS in the Kingdom of Denmark (the Duchies of Schleswick and Holstein excepted) during the Five Years from 1828 to 1832; compiled from the Annual Returns published by Authority.

YEARS.	Number of Marriages.	BIRTHS.			Amongst which,				REMARKS.
		Male.	Female.	Total.	Illegitimate.		Still-born.		
					Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	
1828	9,708	19,978	18,864	38,842	1,723	1,692	886	694	
1829	10,073	19,520	18,288	37,808	1,673	1,492	852	667	
1830	10,371	19,134	18,070	37,204	1,714	1,580	842	692	
1831	9,785	19,360	18,261	37,621	1,778	1,765	911	714	
1832	10,781	17,736	17,211	34,947	1,730	1,603	843	642	
Total of Five Years }	50,718	95,728	90,694	186,422	8,618	8,132	4,334	3,409	
Average of a Year - }	10,144	19,146	18,139	37,284	1,724	1,626	867	682	

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Francis C. Macgregor, Consul.

Annex (B.)

A TABLE, showing the Average Number of DEATHS, including Still-born Children, in the Kingdom of Denmark (the Duchies of Schleswick and Holstein excepted) during the Five Years from 1828 to 1832; compiled from the Annual Returns published by Authority.

YEARS.	Total of Deaths of both Sexes.	M A L E.										Total of Male Deaths.
		To 10 Years.	From 10 to 20.	20 to 30.	30 to 40.	40 to 50.	50 to 60.	60 to 70.	70 to 80.	80 to 90.	90 to 100 and upwards.	
1828	30,990	6,003	664	843	852	1,198	1,569	1,919	1,865	928	101	15,942
1829	37,107	7,012	812	1,020	998	1,378	1,955	2,296	2,340	1,088	118	19,017
1830	33,083	6,022	766	958	995	1,284	1,652	2,200	2,120	1,002	117	17,116
1831	38,519	6,511	767	975	1,245	1,667	2,364	2,873	2,454	1,068	77	20,001
1832	33,853	6,525	755	1,067	1,118	1,359	1,854	2,005	1,767	774	57	17,281
Total of 5 Years }	173,552	32,073	3,764	4,863	5,208	6,886	9,394	11,293	10,546	4,860	470	89,357
Average No. of 1 Year }	34,710	6,415	753	973	1,042	1,377	1,879	2,259	2,109	972	94	17,871

YEARS.	F E M A L E.										Total of Female Deaths.
	To 10 Years.	From 10 to 20.	20 to 30.	30 to 40.	40 to 50.	50 to 60.	60 to 70.	70 to 80.	80 to 90.	90 to 100 and upwards.	
1828	5,140	691	855	999	988	1,229	1,791	2,060	1,122	173	15,048
1829	6,070	776	1,021	1,142	1,275	1,441	2,262	2,508	1,380	215	18,090
1830	5,174	809	874	1,054	1,054	1,354	2,019	2,265	1,193	171	15,967
1831	5,588	738	1,067	1,221	1,323	1,814	2,588	2,688	1,351	140	18,518
1832	5,759	724	955	1,241	1,243	1,554	1,999	1,976	1,021	100	16,572
Total of 5 Years }	27,731	3,738	4,772	5,657	5,883	7,392	10,659	11,497	6,067	799	84,195
Average No. of 1 Year }	5,546	748	954	1,131	1,177	1,478	2,132	2,299	1,213	160	16,839

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Annex (C.)

STATEMENT of the RATES of WAGES paid to the under-mentioned descriptions of Workmen in the Kingdom of Denmark in 1832 and 1833.

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DESCRIPTION of WORKMEN.	If with or without Food.	For what Period.	Piece Work.	Rates in Sterling.	REMARKS.
I. IN MANUFACTORIES.					
Spinners - - -	Without	- -	per string of 880 yards	s. d. s. d. 1/2	-- According to the number of threads in the chain.
Weavers - - -	ditto	- -	per string of from 1,600 to 3,200 yards	2 1/4 a' 4 1/2	
Cutters - - -	ditto	per week	- - -	11/3 a' 11/6	-- According to the fineness of the ar- ticle.
Dressers - - -	ditto	ditto	- - -	6/9 a' 7/	
Labourers, male - -	ditto	ditto	- - -	4/6 a' 6/9	
Ditto, female - -	ditto	ditto	- - -	4/6 a' 5/	
Children above 14 -	ditto	ditto	- - -	3/6 a' 4/	
Ditto, under 14 -	ditto	ditto	- - -	1/9 a' 2/3	
Weavers, cotton - -	ditto	- -	per yard -	1/3 1/2 a' 10	
Workmen in an Oilmill	ditto	- -	per 4 bushels seed crashed	1/9 a' 2/	
Ditto in a Papermill	ditto	per week	- - -	11/3 a' 11/6	
Ditto in a Canvas Manufactory - -	ditto	ditto	- - -	9/ a' 10/	
Ropemakers - - -	ditto	per day	- - -	1/9 a' 2/3	
II. ARTISANS and MECHANICS.					
Blacksmiths - - -	With	per week	- - -	4/6 a' 5/6	} Lodge with their masters.
Bookbinders - - -	ditto	ditto	- - -	4/6 a' 5/	
Bricklayers, Joiners, and Carpenters - -	} Without	per day	- - -	2/3	} Of which their masters retain 1/5.
Dyers - - -	With	per week	- - -	4/6 a' 5/	
Painters and Printers -	ditto	ditto	- - -	4/6 a' 6/9	} Lodge with their masters.
Shipwrights - - -	Without	per hour	- - -	1/2 1/4 a' 1/2 1/2	
Shoemakers - - -	ditto	per week	- - -	11/ a' 11/3	
Tailors - - -	ditto	ditto	- - -	11/ a' 11/6	
Whitesmiths - - -	With	ditto	- - -	4/6 a' 6/	
III. FARM SERVANTS.					
Servants, male - -	With	per year	- - -	4 l. a' 5 l.	} Lodge with their masters.
Ditto, female - -	ditto	ditto	- - -	3 l. 10 s. a' 15/	
Ditto, boys - - -	ditto	ditto	- - -	2 l. 10 s. a' 15/	
IV. DAY LABOURERS.					
(a) In the towns -	Without	per day	- - -	1/ a' 1/6	} -- According to the seasons, and with food 1/2 less.
(b) Agricultural, male	ditto	ditto	- - -	6 d. a' 10 d.	
(c) Ditto, female -	ditto	ditto	- - -	5 d. a' 7 d.	

REMARKS.

The labourers in manufactories are generally paid according to agreement for a certain quantity of work done, and are seldom hired by the week. They have to find their own board and lodging. A spinner's weekly earnings amount to from 6s. to 7s.; that of a weaver, cutter or dresser to from 7s. to 12s. A woman for cleaning wool is allowed 1/2 d. per pound. According to a legal enactment, young children employed in factories must attend school at least three hours per day.

Several crafts and trades in the towns enjoy exclusive privileges, and form corporations to prevent the intrusion of foreign workmen, who must pay certain dues to such corporation on being allowed to work. With a few exceptions they all find their own board and lodging. Apprentices not receiving wages are generally found by their masters.

With regard to agricultural labourers, I refer to the particulars contained in the annexed Observations on the Agricultural Population of Denmark.

The wages quoted in the preceding Tables are the highest and the lowest that were given within the last two years.

The Danish money has been reduced into sterling at the rate of 4s. 6d. sterling per specie of two Rixbank dollars.

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OBSERVATIONS relative to the STATE of the AGRICULTURAL POPULATION of *Denmark*.

THE agricultural population of Denmark, including the Dutchies of Sleswick and Holstein, form about two-thirds of the whole population of the kingdom, which latter in the years 1801-3 amounted to 1,530,195, and is now, with the addition of that of Lanenburgh, computed at near 2,000,000, being an increase of about twenty-six per cent.

The agricultural population of the kingdom may be divided into the proprietors of large estates, including their factors and the farmers on a large scale; into the very numerous class of "gaardmænd," who are either small proprietors or tenants, and comprise the "boelsmænd," who own part of a copyhold, and into that of "huusmænd," or cotters, who hold from one to five acres of land. Then follow the farm servants and day labourers without land, who constitute about one-half of the agricultural population, the whole of which, according to an official statement, consisted in the years 1801-3 of the following numbers:

In *Denmark*:—Population 926,110.

Landed proprietors and farmers	-	-	-	-	415,610	} Total 672,410
Farm servants	-	-	-	-	123,147	
Day labourers (agricultural)	-	-	-	-	133,653	

In *Sleswick Holstein*:—Population 604,085.

Landed proprietors and farmers	-	-	-	-	196,017	} Total 365,862
Farm servants	-	-	-	-	58,397	
Day labourers (agricultural)	-	-	-	-	111,448	

The soil is owned by the Crown, the nobility, the small landed proprietors, and by different public institutions. Towards the close of the reign of Frederick V. the landed property of the Crown was so considerable that in 1763 it was computed to amount to one-sixth of all the arable land; but the greater part was soon after divided into farms of a convenient size, and disposed of by public sale. The far greater part of the land, however, was in possession of the nobility, whose estates were also in many instances divided into small allotments, whenever the sale of them was judged necessary or expedient. Previous to the above-mentioned period there were but few landowners amongst the peasantry, but their number afterwards increased, partly in consequence of the measure just alluded to, which allowed them to become purchasers, and partly owing to a great proportion of land having been let out to the tenantry on long lease (arvefæste.) The peasantry had hitherto been serfs to the lords of the soil, but in 1786 they were not only emancipated from feudal bondage, but the relations between the landlord and tenant were regulated upon principles of justice and equity, and the respective rights and duties of both parties were more clearly defined. According to these regulations, the houses and lands of the tenantry, the stock and implements of husbandry on the farm, belong to the landlord. As a consideration for the property which is given in lease to the tenant for the joint lives of himself and his wife, he has to pay, according to the tenor of the contract (fæstebrev), a certain annual rent, partly in money and partly in produce, which tribute is known under the denomination of "Landgilde." He is moreover bound to perform certain services on the manor called "hoverie," or soccage he has to keep the house and inventory of his farm in good order, and to defray all public taxes, for the due payment of which however the landlord is held responsible. The "hoverie" had been for ages a great hardship upon the peasantry, and in the year 1786 it became a particular object of the solicitude of the Government to place it upon a more equitable footing; with that view every thing was done at the time to induce the landowners and the peasantry to enter into a voluntary agreement with regard to the extent of the service to be rendered, and a commission was expressly empowered for the purpose of fixing the amount on those estates, where no arrangement for that purpose had been entered into. That important question was finally settled by two Ordinances issued in 1791 and 1799, containing all the laws and regulations with respect to soccage, which are still in force, but which seem to require a revisal.

The peasantry of Sleswick Holstein were equally bound to the soil, but for want of proper laws protecting them from the arbitrary proceedings of their landlords, the state of bondage to which they were doomed was still rendered more oppressive. This however was done away with, partly in consequence of the impulse given by the Government in emancipating the peasantry previous to the sale of the Crown lands, and partly by a spontaneous renunciation of their rights on the part of some of the most enlightened men amongst the nobility. By an Ordinance of the 19th December 1804, bondage in the Danish dominions was finally and for ever abolished.

The system of dividing and parcelling out large estates into small farms and allotments has been very commonly resorted to in Denmark for the last half century, and it is to that measure that the increase of population is mainly ascribed. But although it has been condemned by some of the writers upon the national economy of Denmark as having too much promoted improvident marriages, and ultimately produced pauperism amongst the agricultural classes, yet on the other hand it cannot be denied but that it has greatly contributed to the improvement of husbandry, and to bringing a larger quantity of land under cultivation. It must be left to after times to decide in how far the country has been benefited by it or not; but what regards the present, I am induced to believe, from what I have seen and read, that on the whole the condition of the small proprietors in Denmark is, comparatively speaking, a happy one; and it would still be more so if it were not for various causes which prevent their prospering to such a degree as might under other circumstances be expected. The most

most prominent of these impediments are the taxes on the land, which are too high in proportion to the value of the produce of the soil, and the restrictive commercial policy of Denmark, by which the great mass of her population are disregarded, in order to protect a few manufactories, which, notwithstanding the encouragement given, have not made the least progress since the peace.

A very numerous class of husbandmen in *Denmark* are the "huusmænd," or cotters, who partly have a few acres, and partly *no* land attached to their habitations, and most of whom are tenants. At all times when the division of an estate took place, care was taken to reserve certain allotments of land for those of the cotters who were not provided with any. In many places whole farms were distributed amongst them, or lands were assigned them on the boundaries of the farmers' allotments, or they received waste or wood-lands. There is now on each of the large estates a certain number of cottages, and on each small farm at least one; the lands belonging to which, the proprietor is not allowed to alienate or to take into his own hands.

In the Dutchies of Sleswick and Holstein the husbandmen are either proprietors or tenants on long lease (erlpächter), or peasants called "Bonden" and "Hufner," according to the different tenures by which they hold their lands; or they are cottagers or "Kætner," which latter, in consideration for a certain rent or service, hold a small house or cottage with a garden or a few acres of land.

The male and female labourers on the farms in *Denmark* are generally hired by the year, and live under the farmer's roof, who also boards them. Day labourers are chiefly employed during harvest time, and on other emergencies. They must find their own provisions; but on being supplied by the farmer, he retains one-half of their wages. The Danes are great eaters, and they eat at all times of the day. The following quantities of food are usually allowed to male farm servants per month:—Bread, 60 lb.; potatoes, half a bushel; groats, half a bushel; butter, 4 lb.; bacon, 10 lb.; meat, 4 lb.; salted herrings, 30; salt fish, 2 lb.; beer, 60 quarts; milk, ad libitum. The Danish peasants make five meals a day in summer. Early in the morning they have, 1°, breakfast, consisting sometimes of coffee, but generally of warm milk and bread; 2°, at 9 o'clock follows bread and butter and a dram; 3°, at 12 o'clock, dinner, the introduction to which consists of spoon-meat, such as milk porridge, beer soup, curds, with warm milk or beer, or of fish, boiled groats, cheese, greens or dried pease; after which follows fresh or dried fish, bacon or meat, with potatoes or other vegetables, or boiled or poached eggs, or pancakes; 4°, at 5 o'clock, bread and butter, and a dram or two, especially in harvest time; 5°, supper after sunset, sour groats, curds, with milk or buttermilk. In winter, when they get up later, they have one breakfast, and consequently they only make four meals a day. The poorer families seldom boil their kale upon meat, but upon a piece of hog's lard or bacon. In most of the cottages a sheep or lamb is killed before the winter. The more substantial peasants kill a pig, a cow or an ox, and they dispose of what they do not require themselves to their neighbours. They also kill a certain number of their geese and ducks, salting them down for the winter, and using the feathers for their beds. This mode of living applies chiefly to peasants in districts of a middling soil, but where it is richer they have more of bacon, meat and fish, in lieu of other dishes; also is the beer they drink of greater strength. Fish is almost their diurnal food in the villages adjacent to the sea, and they often use dried fish instead of bread, especially in times where the rye crops have failed, when their rye bread is often found mixed with barley. Amongst the poorer cottagers who have no land, it would sometimes happen that they must content themselves with a crust of dry bread, and milk and water in lieu of beer; but such cases are not of frequent occurrence, at least all the reports on the agricultural state of the country which have been published these latter years concur in stating that the generality of peasants is well off, and that there is plenty of employment in the country for all labourers that choose to work.

I shall conclude these observations by stating the annual expenditure of a labourer with a wife and three children in this neighbourhood, the several items reduced into sterling:

	£.	s.	d.		£.	s.	d.
House rent and taxes - - - -	10	-	-	Milk, 8 quarts per week, at $\frac{1}{2}$ d.	17	4	-
Turf for fuel - - - -	12	-	-	Soap, candles and groceries - -	18	-	-
Rye for bread, $3\frac{1}{2}$ quarters, at 13s. 6d.	2	6	6	Clothing, brandy and lottery tickets	3	2	-
Barley for bread and groats, $4\frac{1}{2}$ quarters,				School rate 5 d., books 2 s. 2 d.	-	-	7
at 10 s. 6 d. - - - -	2	7	3	Religious teaching - - - -	3	4	-
Meat and bacon, 30 stone, at 1 s. 9 d.	2	12	6				
Potatoes, 12 quarters, at 2 s. 3 d.	1	7	-				
Coffee $\frac{1}{2}$ lb., sugar $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. per week	2	2	-				
Butter 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ firkin, cheese 120 lb.	2	6	-				
					£. 19	6	6

This is nearly what the amount of their joint labour would produce, provided they be employed during an average number of days in the year. At a certain distance from the large towns the items of coffee, sugar and brandy must in a great measure be omitted, by which the whole expenditure would be reduced to about 15 l. sterling per annum.

Elsinore, March 1, 1834.

Francis C. Macgregor, Consul.

The WORKHOUSE at Slagelse.

EXTRACT of a LETTER from the Rev. John Bastholm, Rector at Slagelse in Zealand.

IN this workhouse a pauper receives a loaf of rye-bread of 7 lb. weekly, a quart of common beer daily, (no cheese nor butter is allowed, because the labourer existing on his own industry ought to live somewhat better than a pauper supported by the parish); he further

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receives half a quart of warm soup with potatoes every day for dinner, and $\frac{1}{4}$ lb. pork or beef three times a week. The dinner costs $1\frac{1}{8}d.$ daily; and the beer varies according to the ruling prices.

A pauper's complete maintenance during the year costs $4l. 1s.$ on an average, every thing included. The economy of the workhouse is superintended by the overseer, as a contractor would endeavour to enrich himself at the expense of the poor.

In a workhouse the chief object of the overseer must be to keep the paupers continually employed. In this establishment, the one is employed in mending clothes, and the other in repairing shoes or in any other work that may tend to their common benefit, besides which, a manufacture of woollens (only of the coarsest kind however) serves as a steady occupation. It is constantly carried on, but at present with less zeal and activity than in former times, which can only be attributed to certain accidental circumstances. It has sometimes yielded considerable profits, but it is sufficient if it can only be carried on without loss, because the principal object is to employ the paupers, and to impose the obligation upon them to make them work for what they receive. The manufacture exists for the sake of the poor, but these latter are not kept for the sake of the manufacture, and the moment a pauper can maintain himself by his own labour for a shorter or longer period, he is immediately discharged from the establishment. The strict principles that were formerly upheld have been somewhat deviated from during these latter years, but the pernicious effects already begin to manifest themselves, and it is therefore intended to return to the former system. I have been yielding where opposition was in vain, as time and experience are the best teachers.

The DISTRICT WORKHOUSE at Odense.

From a Report of Mr. *Thomas Charles Grut*, British Vice-Consul at Odense,
in the Island of Funen.

IN the district workhouse for forced labour in this town, beggars and vagrants condemned by the common courts of police of the province, or other idle, drunken and disorderly persons receiving support from their respective parishes, and condemned by the overseers of the poor of such parishes, with the concurrence of the police master, may be confined. The period of confinement of those persons sentenced by the common courts of the province is prolonged according to the more or less frequent occurrence of the causes of complaint, and can be extended to several years, whereas the confinement by the decision of the overseers cannot be extended beyond four weeks. In case however the causes of complaint should be of a nature to qualify them to be brought before the common courts of police, these courts have the power of prolonging the period of confinement according to circumstances. The work of the persons confined in this establishment consists in spinning wool, cow hair, flax and hemp, and on entering the same, the master or keeper has to decide what kind and what quantity of work each individual, male or female, is capable of doing every day. Idleness, disorderly conduct and other vicious habits are punished according to the decision of the superintendent of the institution, either by solitary confinement or by the application of a certain number of lashes, however not exceeding ten, with a rope's end. The prisoners' allowance consists in 2 lb. rye bread, 1 pot or quart of porridge for dinner, and half a quart of beer daily, worth altogether $2\frac{1}{2}d.$ sterling. The average amount or value of each individual's daily work does not exceed $1\frac{1}{4}d.$ for each working day, and deducting the holidays, it does hardly amount to $1\frac{1}{8}d.$ On dismissal from the establishment, each person is conveyed to the parish to which he belongs.

For the maintenance of this workhouse the whole province contributes annually $75l.$ for fuel, clothing, wages, &c., besides $20l.$ per annum for a certain number of years to the overseers of the poor at Odense, in consideration of the expense of the building, which the town erected in 1807. According to the original plan, it was only intended for the town of Odense, but since the year 1825 it has been made the workhouse, or rather an establishment for forced labour of the whole province. With the exception of the above-mentioned contributions, the whole expense of maintaining the establishment is borne by the town. Prayers are read to the prisoners every morning by a layman appointed for the purpose.

The PARISH WORKHOUSE at Odense.

From a Report of Mr. *Thomas Charles Grut*, British Vice-Consul at Odense,
in the Island of Funen.

THERE are at present in the workhouse for the poor in this town (containing 8,000 inhabitants) about 100 individuals, of whom a part have only lodgings, and another part only an allowance of 6 lb. of bread, or from $2d.$ to $4d.$ sterling per week. What each individual may require more than this for his support is left entirely by him to provide by his own exertion. Such inmates of the workhouse as may apply for it can obtain work in spinning and winding flax and hemp, for which they are paid according to a rate fixed by the overseers. The institution gives lodging to the old and infirm, who, under the denomination of Boarding Inmates, are entirely supported by the parish, but must, in return for the support they receive, spin or do any other kind of work adapted to their capacities. They are provided with the most necessary articles of clothing, and are allowed daily, 1 lb. bread, 1 quart of porridge for dinner (consisting alternately of soup with meat and vegetables, potatoes, &c. or of pease soup and pork, of barley gruel or of cabbage broth, and the like), and half a quart of beer, all which, according to the present prices, may be worth on an average $2\frac{1}{2}d.$ sterling per diem.

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REPORT on *Danish* POOR LAW, supplied by the *Danish* Government, in consequence of a request of Mr. *Browne* to that effect, made by him in pursuance of Instructions sent to him by Viscount *Palmerston*, in Mr. *Backhouse's* Circular Despatch of August 12th, 1833.—Enclosed with Mr. *Browne's* Despatch, No. 5.

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Copenhagen, 1834.

So early as the year 1683, we find in King Christian the Fifth's Danish Code (published in April that year), several regulations concerning the support of the poor, which object has also been treated of in subsequent ordinances.

But the poor system of Denmark has received its present organization, in as far as regards Copenhagen, from a regally sanctioned plan, published 1st of July 1799, modified, however, considerably in respect to its management by the Rescripts of 20th October 1815 and 21st November 1828, and, in as far as regards the other towns and the country districts, from two Regulations of 5th July 1803.

These fundamental laws have in several points been altered and explained by later laws, among which the most important are, Placard of 14th December 1810, (containing a number of additions to the Regulations for the country towns and country districts); Placard of 20th February 1817, Placard of 28th December 1827, Placard of 29th December 1829. Copies of the four above mentioned, and also of some other laws, are sent herewith, together with a catalogue of the whole.

Copenhagen has its own poor system quite distinct from that of the rest of the kingdom. In former times, the poor system of the metropolis was not consolidated, but there were poor funds for persons of military and of civil condition, for different religious sects, &c. But all are now consolidated under one common management, all being obliged to contribute to the general fund, and all having equal right of access, in case of necessity, to receive benefit from the general fund; excepting only those of the Mosaic persuasion, who support their own poor, without being exempted from contributing to the general poor-tax in the same way as the other inhabitants.

According to the plan of 1799, the poor system of Copenhagen was managed by a board of 24 directors, some of whom were named by the King, and were partly official persons, and partly other citizens and inhabitants. The 24 directors were divided among five sections, and performed their duties without remuneration. But, by the above-mentioned Rescripts of 20th October 1815 and 21st November 1828, the management is now intrusted to a board of directors named by the King and paid by the poor fund. To these belong, as directors *ex officio*, viz., in police cases, the master of police of Copenhagen; and in medical cases, the city physician. For the purpose of facilitating inspection, the city is divided into 12 wards, and these again into smaller districts, to each of which latter a poor overseer is appointed by the board.

The other towns have each their own poor system common to all the inhabitants of the town, and in general to such of the neighbouring country inhabitants as belong to the town church; but not the inhabitants of a parish which has its own church, though it may have the same parson in common with the town, or be annexed to it, as it is called. Such annex parishes follow the system prescribed for country districts. In some particular places that portion of the country inhabitants, who belong to the town church, have a distinct fund of their own separate from that of the town parish; which exception from the general rule has arisen from the circumstance of the said inhabitants being a sufficiently numerous body to form a separate poor district, and that the persons concerned found it more for their advantage to be disjoined from the town.

In towns (Copenhagen excepted) the poor system is managed by a commission, consisting of

The parson (or clergy, if the town consists of more than one parish).

One of the magistrates (supposing the town has a regular magistracy). In smaller towns the duties of the magistracy are discharged by the byefoged, who is a member of the commission in another capacity.

The byefoged, as master of police.

Two or more respectable men of each parish as overseers.

All the poor commissions of the towns of a bailiwick are under the control of two directors, viz. the high bailiff, as their temporal head, and the bishop.

In the country every parish, or if more than one parish are united under one clergyman, then the united parishes, form a poor district, and are under the management of a parish poor commission, consisting of

The parson.

The police master.

One of the chief landholders, and three or four of the most respectable parishioners, according to the greater or smaller extent of the parish.

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All the country parish districts of a bailiwick are subordinate to a board of directors, consisting of

The high bailiff.

The collector, or collectors of the King's taxes.

All the provosts (clergy) and

Two managers of King's estates, or other experienced agriculturists, who are appointed by the chancery, at the recommendation of the high bailiff.

The bishop also, in as far as his other duties may permit him, acts as director.

Cases which do not admit of delay may be dispatched by the high bailiff immediately, without waiting for the meeting of his colleagues; but at the first meeting he must report what he has done.

The whole poor system of the country is under the government college of chancery. To it are referred all complaints of mismanagement, either where the directors are unable to give a decision, or where the parties concerned are not satisfied with the decision given by them. By it are finally settled all disputes between parishes as to their respective obligations, when such cannot be settled by the board of directors to which they are mutually subject. Its approbation is required to all important alterations in the poor system.

Only such persons are considered entitled to public charity as are unable of themselves to procure their support, so that without help they must be partly or entirely in want of the first necessities of life. He who is thus entitled to public charity must receive it from that poor district where he has latest, of his own accord, spent a continuous period of three years or upwards, and during that time has supported himself without being a burden to the community. Or supposing he has not spent so long a continuous period in any particular district, he is then to be referred to his birth-place:

In particular cases, where the individual has not, by a continuous residence of three years, acquired a right of help from a particular district; or where his birth-place cannot be with certainty ascertained; or when it is not in Denmark; he is then to receive support from that district, in which during the last three years he has resided most, supposing, however, that such residence was not less than one year.

And supposing that no district can be assigned, which, according to this last rule, is obliged to support him, then the expenses for his support are to be made good by the whole bailiwick, if it was in a country district that he first became an object of public charity, or by the united poor chests of the towns, if he resided in a town at that period.

What has just been said does not apply to Copenhagen, which has no connexion with other towns, and therefore must itself bear the expense of aid to the individual, who having no parish district to which he can be referred, becomes an object of public charity during his residence there.

It is moreover enjoined as a general rule, that, when any one is in want of immediate help, he is to receive it without delay at the place where he makes application; and if found to belong to another district, that district is to refund all such aid thus given in advance, and the individual himself, if not hindered by sickness or other disability, is to be conveyed to his own district, there to receive support.

Wife or widow, becoming object of public charity, must receive support from the poor district from which the husband would have had a right to receive support; supposing, however, in the case of the widow, that she has not since, by residence, acquired a right of support in another district.

The parent's poor district is also that of their children, without regard to where the children may have been born, or may have resided; supposing, however, that they are still under the age at which they could find support for themselves, by going out to service or in any other way, and which is generally considered their 18th year.

Illegitimate children follow the mother, and, even after her death, are in case of necessity to receive from her parish the public charity they may be entitled to.

When servants, in case of sickness, need the help of public charity, they receive it from the poor fund of the district in which they serve without regard to their proper poor district.

The principle that a residence of three years gives a right, in case of necessity, to parish relief might seem calculated to give rise to cabals, where for example a parish dreaded the possibility of a particular individual becoming needy, it might wish to shove the eventual burden on other parishes, either, for instance, by ejecting such a person from the parish before the three years were out, or by enticing him before that period was elapsed to declare himself an object of charity, even although he might still be able to find support for himself. But hitherto in Denmark there have not been many symptoms of such cabals. The first of them, especially, could scarcely be put in practice in Denmark, for besides that it is forbidden to eject any one because he may perhaps in time become poor, and that a combination among the inhabitants of a parish, for the purpose of preventing such a one from having house or home there, would be considered as unlawful and void; it is enacted that the poor commission shall provide house-room for persons willing to pay for it, but not able to procure it; for which purpose, if other means fail, they are entitled to billet them on the parishioners in rotation. This last regulation, if it came to be frequently enforced, would no doubt be found to be not a little oppressive. But however we hear no complaints about it, and its existence has certainly contributed to prevent the combinations above alluded to, which otherwise might very possibly, in particular places, have been entered into by stealth, and might from the force of opinion have acquired a sanction, which the law denied them.

But

But the circumstance that the existence of such a regulation gives the power of defeating such cabals, prevents in a great measure the necessity of ever having recourse to it.

In Denmark we see no symptom of any wish to alter the principle which fixes three years as the period of residence required to confer a right to parish support, although an alteration has in this respect already taken place in the dutchies of Sleswick and Holstein. On the contrary, it would be considered a change for the worse to make the birth-place the rule, or to prolong the period of residence; for, by the former plan, the needy person would be much oftener than is now the case, thrown back on a place that had long been strange to him, and where he had neither friends nor connexions that could procure him private charity or employment, and thereby lessen his need of public help. And as to the second plan of prolonging the period of residence necessary to give parish right, this would, to a certain extent, be attended with the same consequences, and besides more frequently make it necessary to carry investigations back to remote periods, by which disputes about the helping-place would be increased and complicated, and the information on which the decision was to be founded rendered less worthy of reliance.

An alteration in this respect has however taken place in the dutchies of Sleswick and Holstein, so nearly connected with Denmark, where, since the year 1809, the time for acquiring a right by residence was also three years. That period, for example, was in the close of 1829 changed to 15 years, and the reason for this alteration was, that the above-mentioned cabals had there become prevalent to a great extent, partly in consequence of local peculiarities, and partly in consequence of maxims which had taken firm root during the previously existing legislation. And although, as already mentioned, no cause was seen for making a general alteration in Denmark, it was however enacted, as a measure of reciprocity, and forming an exception to the general rule, that individuals born in the said dutchies, or who had acquired a home-right there, could not afterwards acquire a parish support-right in any parish in Denmark without having there resided continuously for 15 years. And in like manner, on the other hand, no parish support-right acquired in Denmark can be lost by a shorter residence in a parish in the dutchies (than 15 years).

No one is allowed parish support before his situation is previously accurately inquired into, that thereby may be ascertained not only whether he is entitled to public support, but also to what extent, and in what manner this is to be furnished to him, and, further, what parish is to bear the charge of his support. Whoever wishes to receive help from the poor fund must apply, if in Copenhagen, to the proper poor overseer; if in a country town or country district, to the clergyman of his parish, who forthwith, by examining what is represented to him, or by any other way, procures the necessary information, particularly the name and age of the individual; how long he has resided on the spot; if he has formerly required or received, or if he still receives, charitable support; and in that case, how much, and whether public or private; the nature of his need, and the causes of the same; the state of his health and strength; how far he may be able to work for his support; what kind of work he understands, &c. &c. When the result of these inquiries is obtained, if it is in Copenhagen, it is determined by the board of directors, and if in the country, by the poor commission of the district, if the applicant can be received as entitled to parish support, and what steps are to be followed in consequence. And as the poor commissions of the country districts meet only once a quarter, and those of the market towns once a month, there is power given in the country parishes to the clergyman alone, and in the market towns to the clergyman and one poor overseer, to grant an interim help for assisting the immediate pressing want of the poor person, leaving the case to be tried at the next meeting of the poor commission, who will decide whether there seems necessity for admitting the poor person to regular support, or to any further help. And as the poor administration only receive those who cannot even procure for themselves the most indispensable necessities of life, consequently the nature of the assistance which they give is merely to see that the first necessities of life are secured. When the poor person is totally unable from his own strength to earn anything, he is received, as far as circumstances permit, into some public poor-house, or in some other way provided for by the poor administration with all that is absolutely necessary; viz. with food, as far as possible in kind, with the most necessary clothing, with lodging and fuel, and medical aid in case of sickness. On the other hand, if the needy person is in a condition to work, he must himself, according to his abilities, contribute to his support; and the public, in this case, only assist him by adding what, after the best employment of his strength, he is unable to obtain for the necessary support of life. If he cannot himself procure work, it is found for him by the poor administration, according to circumstances, either with private individuals, or for account of the poor administration. In some places the poor system is so arranged, that all who receive public charity are regularly admitted into a workhouse erected for the purpose, where they receive the necessary support, on condition of working for it as much as they are able. Under a prudent and careful administration such an arrangement has, among other advantages, this, that no one, who can otherwise support himself, will lightly throw himself on the poor commission, whose help he cannot obtain without submitting to a severe discipline.

Orphans, or children whose parents are in such a situation that the rearing and education of their children cannot be entrusted to them, are, at the charge of the poor fund, placed with foster parents until they can go out to service, or be otherwise provided for; and on such occasions the proper poor commission has to exercise a constant inspection, to see that those to whom the children are entrusted fulfil their duties. All children receiving public support are obliged from their sixth, or at all events their seventh year, regularly to attend school, where they receive instruction gratis, in the knowledge and accom-

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ishments considered necessary for the common people, among which, in addition to religious instruction, reading and writing are considered indispensable ingredients. By the school laws made subsequently to the organization of the present poor system, it is permitted to all who do not wish their children to receive a higher education to send them to the schools gratis; excepting in Copenhagen, where the parents, if not entirely indigent, must pay a trifling fee. And on the other hand, all who do not give proof that their children receive education elsewhere, are compelled to send them to the schools which have been erected at the expense of the towns, or of the country districts. According to the plan for the poor system of Copenhagen, it is provided, that either in the school buildings themselves or elsewhere, there shall be set apart rooms for children under five years of age, where one or more respectable elderly women may have the superintendence of them, so that the children may be prevented from running the streets, and that those parents who, from being obliged to go to daily labour, or from particular domestic occupations, are unable to attend their own children, may have a place where they can deposit them, with the certainty that they will be well attended to. Such instruction as is given the elder children is of course not given here, but they are merely occupied in receiving instruction in such knowledge, and such petty handiworks, as is suited to their age. By the later school law for Copenhagen, of the 29th July 1814, s. 41-43, similar schools of inspection are instituted for children under six years, without limiting them to such as are under the poor system, and with a more extended aim than that which the poor law had contemplated, inasmuch as in them an attempt is made to awaken reflection and the moral principle. Such schools have, therefore, the same object in view as the infant schools of England, which are now beginning to be imitated at Geneva, and concerning which Edward Diodati, in his work published in 1826, and entitled, "*Quelques reflexions sur les écoles d'enfants*," has given us some interesting communications. In the meantime, they have not had that success here which they seem to have met with in the foreign places just mentioned.

In regard to medical attendance it is to be remarked, that not only those who receive alms or other support from the poor administration, have, in sickness, a right to free medical aid and attendance at the charge of the poor system, but also such persons who, when in health, are able to maintain themselves and family without public charity, are yet, in other respects, so indigent, that when sickness attacks them they have not the means to pay for such medicines and attendance as the poor administration furnishes to the enrolled poor. And, moreover, the poor administration continues to give suitable support to such persons as are thrown back in their circumstances by sickness, until they are again able, without the help of public charity, to support themselves.

Individuals receiving support from the poor fund, as long as they continue to receive such support, are under the constant inspection of the poor overseer, who has to take care that the needy do not, to a greater extent, or for a longer period than necessary, remain a burden on the public; as also, that the help allowed them is given in a way answering to the intention. The poor administration also, when the poor are guilty of offences against that good order and morality, which those who receive public charity should observe, and when exhortation and reproof have proved unavailing, are authorized to inflict certain petty punishments specified in the law; but cases of this nature, requiring more considerable punishments, are referred to the usual tribunals. In Copenhagen and Odensee, there are houses of correction where refractory poor persons may be placed for a longer or shorter time, in which houses there are also places of solitary confinement for the purpose of increasing the punishment when the offence requires it; but this increased punishment cannot be employed for a longer period than 14 days at a time: and when the offender shows symptoms of bettering, the poor administration may curtail the period to which he may have been sentenced.

As every one that cannot support himself may, by applying to the poor administration and proving his need, receive the necessary help, all begging is consequently prohibited, and suitable punishments enacted for the same. In those places where there are houses of correction, such are also used as a means of punishing beggars, for a shorter or longer period fixed by sentence of court in conformity with the law; such period being for a first offence only short, but in cases of repeated offence proportionally longer.

When a poor person dies without relations able or willing to pay the expenses of his funeral, the same must be paid by the poor fund, and the expenses so incurred are to be made good from the effects of the deceased as far as they will go. If the effects, when sold, yield a greater sum than the expenses, the surplus belongs to the poor fund, if the relations of the deceased cannot or will not pay what the poor fund had spent on his support. It is enacted for Copenhagen, that when the deceased's effects yield a greater amount than what will fully reimburse the poor administration what is due to them, the surplus shall be divided among the heirs of the deceased, when such are either husband or wife, children or other lineal heirs, father and mother, brother and sister, in so far as they, or their children in their stead, are entitled by law to inherit along with the mother; but if no such near relations of the deceased are found, the poor fund inherits the surplus.

The amount of public charity spent on a poor person is to be ultimately furnished by the parish where the individual concerned, according to the rules above given, was entitled to receive support. Every poor district has therefore its own poor chests, to which belong sundry, either fixed or contingent revenues, and in so far as these revenues may be inadequate to meet the expenses, the deficiency is made up by a poor-tax charged on the inhabitants of the district. In the towns (excepting Copenhagen,) and in the country parishes, this contribution

contribution is equalized in proportion to the fortune and circumstances of each individual, according to the estimate formed by the poor commission. In Copenhagen, up to 1814, there was no occasion for making any such equalizing tax, because, besides a number of fixed sources of income, which the government had assigned for that purpose, a voluntary subscription, and many considerable legacies, and occasional considerable support from government, had fully supplied the poor fund. But its resources being greatly weakened by the consequences of the war, from 1807 to 1814, it was found necessary in the last-mentioned year to introduce a general poor-tax for the metropolis, which is imposed each year to an amount sufficient to cover the deficiency arising from the excess of the expenditure above the receipts of the preceding year. It is equalized over the inhabitants not in direct proportion to the supposed fortune of each; but, as basis for the apportionment, the ground tax has been followed, being a tax which is charged on the square contents of the area taken up by each dwelling-house and its appurtenances. It was appointed by ordinance of 1st October 1802, of which a copy is sent herewith. The plan followed is, that the simple amount of this tax (or its double, triple, &c. if necessary,) is charged to each house as its poor-rate. By assuming this basis, the intention is no doubt to distribute the tax in proportion to the supposed fortunes of each individual, since it may reasonably be supposed that the space occupied by a family, if it does not give any infallible criterion of its wealth, must nevertheless bear a certain proportion to its abilities to contribute to the support of its needy fellow citizens.

A direct apportionment according to the fortune of each individual is considered as both too difficult, and too uncertain.

At the time that a general poor-tax was introduced into this kingdom, the country was in a prosperous state, and the poor got support partly from the funds belonging to each poor district (with the help of contingent revenues allowed by law, such as fines, &c.), and partly from the charity of individuals. At the introduction of the new system, it was natural to direct one's attention to the possible injurious effects of a public arrangement, which made it a compulsory duty for each citizen to contribute (according to the judgment of authorities appointed for the purpose) all that the needy members of the state seemed to require: inasmuch as the sluggard, the spendthrift and the profligate might thereby find opportunity to support themselves at the expense of the industrious and frugal. But, on the other hand, we must recollect, that we do not get rid of these evils by leaving the needy to depend on the charity of their fellow citizens. On the contrary, he who would rather live at the cost of others, than support himself by his own industry and economy, will often find more encouragement to this from the irregular help he expects to obtain from his fellow citizens, without accurate scrutiny into the nature of his want or his behaviour, and without being compelled to work, than from the help given by a public authority, which narrowly investigates his want, has inspection over his conduct, and keeps him under a corresponding discipline. It was considered as good policy, besides, that the state, merely from motives of public safety, should secure to each individual the possibility of getting the first wants of nature supplied without having recourse to crime. But if this object was to be attained, then must the support of the poor be built on a more certain basis than the funds belonging to each place's poor chest, or occasional revenues assigned without any acknowledged proportion to what is really necessary for the support of the poor (including also the charity of private individuals), could afford. And as, moreover, begging (which, wherever the support of the poor is not secured by public arrangement, seems excusable on the ground of the insufficiency of the means for protecting the needy from want) is attended with so many inconveniences, and burdens for the inhabitants, and is besides such a fruitful source of moral corruption, it was considered advantageous, even for that part of the community which did not stand in need of help, that by means of a public establishment for charity such annoyances should be got rid of.

In reference to the circumstance that the provisionment of the poor in this country is not made a general state affair, nor supplied direct from the public treasury, but on the contrary is treated as a parish concern, managed by a local authority, and at the charge of individual parishes; it is to be observed, that in the existing laws this method has been and is still considered as the only genuine way in which a poor system can be managed. A judgment of the wants of individuals, or an inspection of their conduct, could by no means be intrusted to a general state authority, but can only be executed with any certainty by a local authority. But supposing the right to support to be adjudged by a local authority, and the support itself to be paid out of the public purse; in this case the local authority, and the community in nearest connexion with it, would find it their interest to deal out support with the greatest profusion, by which means the inconveniences inseparable from every system of public charity would be greatly increased. But when each parish has to take care of its own poor, the persons appointed to decide on petitions for support, have the greatest inducement to observe economy, and rigidly to attend to every thing that can diminish the public burden; both because, as members of the community, they cannot escape from paying their share, and because of the relation in which they stand to the other contributors, which would draw upon them the general ill-will of their fellow parishioners, if they followed a different line of conduct. It is very true that the method by parishes has also its inconveniences, partly this, that a particular portion of a country may, from accidental circumstances, be burdened with a much heavier poor-tax than other and wealthier portions; also that there arises a temptation to chicanery with a view to throwing the support of poor persons on other parishes, whereby occasion is perpetually given to

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quarrels which may be both difficult and tedious to decide. But these inconveniences are, however, of less importance than such as would take place, if the support of the poor were made a national affair. By means of fixed rules for the poor administration, and by a proper arrangement for obtaining information as to every one residing in a district, it will seldom happen that there will be any uncertainty, as to the poor district from which any individual is entitled to receive support; and the decision of any disputes that might arise as to this, can (as we see is really the case here) be managed in such a way, that no very great expense, and seldom any great delay need be occasioned. On the other hand, in particular cases, where a parish may be burdened with poor persons that do not properly belong to it, but who on account of accidental residence there, and because no other parish can be assigned, have got upon its poor funds; or where very extraordinary circumstances render it impossible for a parish to raise the necessary funds for the poor; in these cases such a parish may receive assistance either from the general public purse, or from other parishes. This has been already arranged for country districts, by the establishing of bailiwick poor chests, which have certain special revenues assigned them, (for example, the greater number of fines, a small due on the sale of fixed property, or auctions of moveables,) and whose duty it is to give assistance to the poor chests of particular parishes in cases similar to the above-mentioned. In what manner, under particular circumstances, the support of an individual poor person shall be furnished by the whole country or town parishes of a bailiwick, is already noticed at page 304.

In Copenhagen the management of the poor concerns is certainly less parochial than in other places, but the amount of the annual poor-tax is fixed also for the metropolis every year by a royal resolution; previous to the fixing of which the magistracy and the 32 town deputies have to give their report on the subject, which is afterwards, by the chancery, laid before his Majesty.

For the rest, the compulsory method of supporting the poor introduced into Denmark of late years, in conformity with the principles above explained, has uniformly elicited complaints, and anxiety about the continually progressive increase of the burden of a poor-tax. Experience shows, however, that the burden of the poor-tax has not, on the whole, been uniformly increasing. During the period in which such an anxiety most showed itself, the chancery repeatedly suggested to the poor directors the necessity of practising economy and exact scrutiny in the distribution of public charity; and these suggestions, together with their acquired experience, have contributed to this, that the parish authorities have more and more exerted themselves to combine the strictest economy with their attention to the wants of the poor.

If we reduce the poor-tax in Copenhagen to species dollars, according to the course of exchange in each year at the time it was regulated, it will be found to have amounted, in

					<i>Species Doll.</i>						<i>Species Doll.</i>	
1814	}	to about	-	-	-	33,600	1824	to about	-	-	-	47,600
1815			-	-	-	-	1825	-	—	-	-	44,900
1816	-	—	-	-	-	43,700	1826	-	—	-	-	43,100
1817	-	—	-	-	-	52,700	1827	-	—	-	-	42,400
1818	-	—	-	-	-	85,700	1828	-	—	-	-	85,000
1819	-	—	-	-	-	59,400	1829	-	—	-	-	83,200
1820	-	—	-	-	-	66,100	1830	-	—	-	-	83,200
1821	-	—	-	-	-	43,500	1831	-	—	-	-	82,800
1822	-	—	-	-	-	45,400	1832	-	—	-	-	82,100
1823	-	—	-	-	-	43,300	1833	-	—	-	-	85,300

Respecting these sums, however, it must be remarked that they have always formed only the supplement, which, in order to meet current expenses, it was found necessary to add to the other resources of the poor fund, so that a difference in these resources has necessarily affected the amount of the sums to be contributed. But the different proportion which has existed between silver money and the paper money of the country, in which last the poor-tax has for the most part been imposed, and the expenses contracted, has also had a very considerable influence on the differences which the preceding Table exhibits. In the first years of the above-mentioned, the exchange, being still much against paper money, occasioned that the amount of the tax in species dollars was less than it ought to be. In subsequent years, particularly in 1818, the rapidity with which the paper money exchange improved occasioned an increase of the silver amount of the poor-tax, the more so from this circumstance, that the managers of the poor fund, as already mentioned, have hitherto been always obliged to use the contributions of each succeeding year to cover the deficiency of the former year, and this had occasioned the contracting of debt in paper money. In the year 1821, and some succeeding years, it was the low price of grain, and of the other necessities of life, which occasioned the great diminution in the amount of the poor-tax, both from the number of the needy being diminished, and from their support costing less. No doubt the price of these articles rose again at the close of the year 1826; but as, according to what has been already remarked, this could have no influence on the regulation of the tax for 1826, it was therefore not increased in 1827. But as the poor fund had by this means contracted debt, it became so much the more necessary in the following years to fix the poor-tax higher, in order that, by degrees, the debt contracted for these past years might also be liquidated.

The number of those who have received support from the poor fund of the metropolis, including those who have only received medical aid, or other temporary assistance, has in

later

later years amounted to 6,800. This makes about one-seventeenth of the population, which amounts to upwards of 112,000. In proportion to this population the poor-tax of 1833 has amounted to about three-fourths of a species dollar per head.

In the country towns and country districts the poor-tax is, of course, more or less burdensome in proportion to the number of the poor, the general wealth of the inhabitants, the nature of the management, and the amount of resources which each place's poor fund may possess independent of the equalizing tax. Accordingly, in the country districts, the poor contributions, consisting partly in money and partly in articles of use, (when these last are brought into money, and the whole amount distributed over the hartkorn,) have, in the year 1832, shown a very different amount per hartkorn acre. (N. B. It is here to be remarked that, for the purpose of proportioning the taxes, the lands are estimated according to hartkorn acres in proportion to their value, so that, according to quality, there may go more or fewer acres of land to a hartkorn acre; and that, taking the average proportion, we may consider that a farm, estimated at two hartkorn acres, when there is not much debt on it, can yield a peasant family a frugal support.) In six bailiwicks the poor-tax in the said year has amounted to upwards of a rigsbank dollar, or half species dollar, per hartkorn acre. In four bailiwicks the tax has been under two-thirds of a rigsbank dollar, or one-third of a species dollar. In the remaining bailiwicks, on the other hand, the poor-tax has amounted to more than one-third, and less than one-half species dollar, per hartkorn acre, approaching in some bailiwicks nearer to the former amount, and in others to the latter.

For similar reasons, in the various country towns of Denmark, the poor-tax, when distributed equally over the whole of the inhabitants, has shown very different results. Thus, in some towns, it has amounted to one-half species dollar, in others under one-fourth species dollar per head; in some few it has been much less, viz. only one-sixth species dollar, and even lower.

There remains still to be mentioned, that bailiwick poor chests have been established for all the country poor districts of a bailiwick, having special revenues assigned to them; their object being chiefly, in as far as their means go, to assist individual parishes; when, for example, a parish, which is unable to bear any extraordinary burden, is accidentally charged with an expense, which may be very high in proportion to its circumstances, as, for instance, with the wardenship or cure of lunatics. These general bailiwick poor chests have also to pay to the deaf and dumb institution at Copenhagen for the board and attendance of all deaf and dumb patients belonging to the bailiwick*, in so far as their parents may not be able to make this payment; for it is considered unreasonable to burden with such expenses that particular parish to which such a patient might properly belong.

APPERCU sur les Principaux Etablissements de Bienfaisance en Dannemarc.

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INTRODUCTION.

L'aperçu que je désire donner ici, sur les principaux établissemens de bienfaisance du Dannemarc, m'a été dicté par l'intérêt qu'il est si naturel de prendre à l'humanité souffrante, sentiment qui mène à une observation suivie des moyens particuliers que chaque pays

* The permanent expenses of this institution, on the other hand, are borne by the State Treasury in the first instance, to be afterwards refunded by a general apportionment.

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pays emploie pour soulager les maux de ses citoyens. Mon séjour en Dannemarc m'a offert toutes les facilités possibles, pour visiter à loisir et observer avec soin les institutions destinées à secourir l'indigent, l'orphelin et l'infirme. Vivement pénétré des soins paternels prodigués dans ces établissemens, je n'ai pu résister au désir d'en tracer une légère esquisse. Ne connoissant pas à fond l'organisation intérieure d'autres contrées, je ne puis former de comparaisons entr'elles et le Dannemarc : l'idée, que je me suis faite, cependant du degré de perfection que des établissemens de bienfaisance peuvent atteindre, s'est trouvée assez réalisée dans ceux de ce pays : L'ordre, la propreté dans le régime domestique ; l'intégrité, la justice des administrateurs, sont les points principaux sur lesquels j'ai dirigé mon attention ; rarement ai-je éprouvé des impressions désagréables à cet égard : ce n'est point d'après une seule visite que j'ose énoncer ainsi mon opinion, un séjour de sept ans m'a offert bien des occasions de m'assurer, si la sensation agréable que j'avois éprouvée en parcourant pour la première fois ces asiles de piété ne s'effaceroit pas après un examen plus rigoureux. Je puis dire avec une véritable satisfaction que je n'ai été que rarement trompé dans mon attente. Il n'est point dit que tous les établissemens soient au même degré de prospérité ; mais les travaux assidus du gouvernement et des particuliers pour les y faire parvenir tous également sont éminemment utiles et dignes d'éloges. Il ne faut pas oublier non plus que le Dannemarc est un pays de peu d'étendue, et que des institutions qui ne seroient de nulle conséquence pour de grands empires sont fort importantes pour ce royaume. Cette contrée possède néanmoins un nombre si considérable d'hôpitaux, d'écoles et d'autres fondations bienfaisantes, que je n'ai pu citer ici que les principaux de crainte que cet écrit ne devint d'une étendue trop fatigante.

L'administration des pauvres, dont il est d'abord parlé dans cet aperçu, est sous certains rapports un modèle par les soins qu'elle donne aux indigens. Ils sont tous sous l'inspection immédiate des directeurs de cette administration, qui leur tendent une main secourable pour les tirer de la misère, et qui empêchent d'un autre côté, que l'oisiveté ne se glisse parmi les malheureux en les obligeant à des travaux qui ne dépassent pas leurs forces, et qui leur facilitent les moyens de gagner honnêtement leur vie. Plusieurs écoles, hôpitaux pour le pauvres, dépendent aussi des directeurs de l'administration. Il est facile de concevoir que les établissemens destinés à la plus basse classe du peuple ne peuvent présenter un tableau agréable à un œil délicat. Mais la persuasion de leur utilité réelle doit faire oublier l'aspect peu flatteur de leurs habitans. Les hôpitaux en Dannemarc méritent toute leur réputation. C'est de cette école que sortent tant d'excellens médecins, célèbres par leurs connoissances et leurs écrits. Ces établissemens sont dans un tel état de prospérité, que le peuple n'a point pour eux cette répugnance, que ces maisons lui inspirent dans d'autres pays, et qu'il n'est pas même rare de voir des personnes des classes plus relevées de la société s'y établir, lorsqu'elles n'ont pas la commodité de se faire soigner chez elles. Il en est de même de la maison d'accouchement.

Les principales sociétés particulières de bienfaisance datent avant la guerre si désastreuse pour le Dannemarc ; des pertes énormes ont mis des bornes forcées à la libéralité de bien des patriotes ; malgré cela, il est commun de voir des particuliers léguer des parts considérables de leur fortune pour le bien des pauvres.

Le gouvernement s'empresse d'encourager les réunions d'hommes sensibles aux maux de leurs semblables, et se félicite, que des associations quelquefois très nombreuses n'aient jamais pour but que des œuvres bienfaisantes. Le roi, la reine, et plusieurs membres de la famille royale participent personnellement à l'assistance donnée aux indigens. La reine surtout le considère comme un de ses premiers devoirs, et donne par là l'exemple le plus beau que ses sujets puissent suivre.

ADMINISTRATION GENERALE DES PAUVRES.

Le soin des pauvres a depuis long-tems occupé la législation Danoise. Le code de Chrétien V, publié en 1685, ordonna, qu'il fut fondé dans chaque ville un hôpital pour les malades et les infirmes ; plusieurs amendes y sont assignées au profit des pauvres ; on dit qu'il y avoit à cette époque dans chaque commune, des citoyens respectables qui se faisoient un devoir d'assister les ecclésiastiques dans la distribution des aumônes.

Il paroît que la loi relative à la fondation des hôpitaux ne fut pas observée très exactement, quoiqu'il en soit, il parut en 1708 une ordonnance remarquable, qui organisa les soins donnés aux pauvres dans les villes et dans la campagne. Il y est dit que dans chaque province le grand bailli et l'évêque seront directeurs de l'administration, et que les détails seront confiés aux magistrats, juges, pasteurs, et citoyens respectables de chaque ville et de chaque village. Quoique toutes les paroisses aient ainsi leur administration particulière, il y aura cependant des dépenses, qui seront faites par la direction, dans le chef lieu du bailliage.

Trois ans de résidence, non interrompue dans une commune, y donne droit à l'assistance. Les indigens, qui n'y ont pas séjourné pendant cet espace de tems, seront renvoyés dans le lieu où ils ont précédemment vécu, ou dans celui de leur naissance. Il est défendu de s'opposer à l'établissement d'un individu, sous prétexte qu'il pourroit tomber à charge à la commune. Ce renvoi ne peut avoir lieu que lorsqu'il est dans le cas de recevoir de l'assistance avant le terme fixé de trois ans. D'autres ordonnances indiquent les secours qui sont accordés dans ce cas, et la manière dont le remboursement doit s'opérer lorsqu'une commune a été obligée d'accorder des secours à un membre d'une autre.

La capitale n'a jamais été soumise à la direction des baillis et de l'évêque de Séelande ; elle a une direction particulière, qui exerceoit une certaine inspection sur les administrations dans

dans les bailliages de Séelande; mais je n'ai pu découvrir, jusqu'à quel point s'étendoit cette autorité. L'ordonnance susmentionnée, de 1708, est extrêmement sage; elle marque au juste les limites qu'il faut mettre aux secours distribués, et donne des règles pour distinguer l'indigence provenant du malheur, de la misère produite par le vice.

Cet ordre de choses subsista long-tems; mais la population ayant augmenté, et par conséquent le nombre des pauvres, des circonstances malheureuses empêchèrent l'accroissement proportionné des sommes destinées à leur assistance, et produisit en 1771 un changement dans l'administration, qui fut confiée à trois personnes d'une intégrité et d'un mérite reconnus. Ils avoient les mêmes pouvoirs que l'ancienne direction, mais ils furent restreints à la ville de Copenhague. Il sembloit que l'administration générale ne dut rien perdre en passant dans leurs mains, mais il n'en fut pas de même des détails, qui après avoir été concentrés en un seul point, furent alors divisés entre les différents districts de la ville, qui avoit une commission composée de pasteurs et d'autres dignitaires des districts. Ces commissions n'étoient en aucun rapport entr'elles. Chacune recevoit ses contributions, et en disposoit à son gré; ce mode d'administration subsista pendant 10 ans, durant lesquels l'établissement s'endetta considérablement, ce qui ne fut imputé ni à la direction, ni aux inspecteurs; mais au vice primitif de l'organisation qui n'avoit mis aucune union dans les opérations; aussi le changement arrivé en 1781, tomba uniquement sur les directeurs en chef qui furent supprimés, et l'administration générale fut confiée aux magistrats. Les commissions spéciales furent conservées avec la seule différence qu'on augmenta le nombre des inspecteurs des pauvres de chaque district. Il faut observer cependant que la maison des orphelins et celle de correction à Copenhague, qui étoient soumises à la direction de 1771, ne passèrent point en 1781 aux magistrats, mais furent soumises à des directions particulières.

Un rescrit fixa à 16,000 roubles la somme que les commissions des districts pouvoient attendre de la caisse générale, somme qui ne pouvoit être excédée que dans des cas extraordinaires et avec l'approbation du Roi.

Peu d'années après cette époque Hambourg forma un nouvel établissement pour les pauvres, exemple qui fut suivi à Copenhague. Des ordonnances très détaillées établirent une direction de 24 personnes composée d'employés de la ville et du gouvernement, réunis à des citoyens notables; ce corps avoit une autorité suprême, et étoit divisé en cinq comités d'assistance, d'instruction, d'industrie, de santé et de police. Les grands établissemens, tels que l'hôpital général, ceux de St. Jean et de Warton, étoient soumis à l'inspection d'un comité composé de cinq membres pris dans chacun des comités. Enfin leurs chefs formèrent une direction particulière pour les finances. Par la même ordonnance les établissemens de charité pour les invalides, les veuves et orphelins des militaires, et ceux des églises reformées et catholiques, furent tous réunis à cette direction. On créa 120 curateurs pour l'assister dans ses fonctions, sans qu'ils eussent cependant voix dans le comité général.

Quelque parfait que ce système parut être, dix-sept ans d'expérience en ont montré les nombreux inconvéniens. Il existoit dans les comités chargés des différentes branches, une désunion qui nuisoit à la marche générale; de plus, l'assemblée générale de la direction étoit rarement complète; le comité des finances et celui de l'assistance, se saisirent peu à peu de tout le maniement des affaires. Enfin, en 1815, on simplifia l'administration générale, qui fut de nouveau confiée à trois personnes, et l'ancienne direction ne subsista que pour être consultée dans des cas particuliers. Les directeurs s'adressent directement au Roi.

Les revenus annuels des sommes destinées aux pauvres se montoient à 3,600,000 roubles. Chaque établissement a ses revenus et ses comptes particuliers. Les malheurs des tems, la guerre et des vices d'administration augmentèrent le nombre des nécessiteux et par conséquent les dépenses; on contracta des dettes très considérables. Le Roi ordonna alors, que les revenus de la direction seroient augmentés par des taxes directes et indirectes sur la ville. Ses revenus indépendamment de cette nouvelle ressource proviennent encore d'une petite part dans la taxe foncière, et dans les droits d'un pour cent sur les appointemens des employés civils hors de Copenhague; du quart du produit des droits du port; d'une petite part de ceux du timbre sur les cartes à jouer; d'un quart pour cent de tous biens fonds situés sous la juridiction de la ville, qui se vendent sous main, on en vente publique; de toutes les marchandises qui se vendent de la même manière; de 5,000 roubles de la lotterie royale; d'une redevance sur les spectacles, de quelques amendes, enfin des dons gratuits, qui ne sont plus fort considérables.

La direction est assistée, comme je l'ai déjà dit, par des curateurs choisis dans la haute bourgeoisie qui veillent sans rétribution au soulagement des pauvres; leur nombre est de 64 autant qu'il y a maintenant de quartiers dans la ville. Leurs fonctions sont d'examiner la situation des pauvres qui s'adressent à eux, d'en faire le rapport à la direction, de surveiller ceux qui ont part à l'assistance, en général, de faire observer les arrêtés qui émanent de cette autorité.

Indépendamment des secours accordés, on fait des distributions de soupe et de pain dans les hôpitaux, les maisons de travail et les écoles de charité. Le nombre des enfans, dont la direction prenoit soin, s'étant monté, il y a quelques années jusqu'à 900, et les fonds ne pouvant suffire à leur entretien, on ne reçoit actuellement au nombre des pensionnaires que les orphelins de père ou de mère, ou ceux qui sont exposés par la mauvaise conduite de leurs parens. On fait deux fois par an des distributions de linge et d'habits aux autres enfans, et en donne plus particulièrement à ceux qui fréquentent les écoles publiques de charité. Comme il y a à Copenhague deux époques fixes dans l'année pour changer de logement, on fait alors des distributions d'argent, qui ne sont jamais assez considérables pour payer les loyers en entier, mais qui en acquittent cependant une grande partie.

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Un principe dont on ne s'écarte pas, c'est d'accorder l'assistance avec ménagement à moins que des circonstances extraordinaires ne nécessitent de plus grands dons. Les secours sont particulièrement accordés aux vieillards, aux infirmes, aux malades, ainsi qu'aux veuves et aux familles que le nombre de leurs enfans met hors d'état de subvenir à leurs besoins.

La direction exige aussi que chaque individu qu'elle assiste, travaille autant que son âge et ses forces le lui permettent; ceux qui ne trouvent point d'occupation, sont placés dans les hôpitaux et maisons de travail. Enfin l'assistance qu'on donne en ville n'est jamais suffisante pour en vivre uniquement, arrangement très sage, qui prévient l'oisiveté. Chaque district de la ville a un médecin, payé par la direction, qui soigne gratis les malades indigens. Les remèdes leur sont de même délivrés sans aucun payement.

Dans les duchés de Holstein et Schleswick, les villes d'Eckernförde, de Schleswick, d'Altona et de Kiel se distinguent par leur administration des pauvres établie sur le même pied que celle de Copenhague.

HOPITAUX DEPENDANS DE L'ADMINISTRATION DES PAUVRES:

1. *Hôpital Général.*

L'hôpital général de Copenhague fut fondé en 1768. Ses réglemens portent qu'il sera non seulement l'asile des malades, mais encore celui des vieillards et des infirmes. Des abus s'étant introduits dans cet établissement, on exclut ceux qui pouvoient encore gagner leur vie, et on remplaça les secours d'argent qu'on y avoit donné jusqu'alors par des distributions de denrées. On construisit ensuite divers bâtimens, afin de séparer les malades d'avec les infirmes. Cette séparation s'étendit même sur les personnes des deux sexes, qui n'eurent plus de communication ensemble. Le jardin, où ils prennent l'air, fut également divisé.

Les réglemens concernant l'ordre, la propreté et la nourriture des malades, ont aussi été perfectionnés, de sorte que, par ces diverses améliorations, l'hôpital est successivement parvenu au point de perfection où il se trouve maintenant. La situation à peu de distance du port, facilite l'usage des bains de mer. Il y a 384 lits pour les malades.

Toutes espèces de maladies y sont admises, ainsi que les blessures, pourvu qu'elles ne soient pas incurables. Les maladies honteuses sont traitées à l'hôpital général dans un local séparé. Le gouvernement a un soin extrême d'en arrêter la propagation, en soumettant les femmes privilégiées à des visites domiciliaires, et en les obligeant de se rendre à l'hôpital pour la moindre indisposition sous des peines sévères, si elles contreviennent à cet ordre. Cependant toutes les personnes attaquées de ce mal ne sont point réunies dans le même appartement, le malheur ayant des droits, qu'on ne confond point avec le libertinage.

Chaque appartement a une femme chargée de soigner les malades, une autre a la surintendance du linge et de la lessive.

Il y a une grande différence dans l'étendue des chambres; mais l'ordre et la propreté y règnent également; dans aucune le nombre des malades n'est assez considérable pour y corrompre l'air.

Il seroit à désirer que les bâtimens destinés aux invalides fussent dans le même état, mais leur nombre et le manque de moyens ne le permettent pas.

L'inspecteur et deux employés sont chargés de la surveillance; ils tiennent les livres, et rendent compte chaque semaine à la direction des affaires relatives à l'hôpital; c'est-à-dire, celles qui n'ont aucun rapport avec la médecine, confiée entièrement aux médecins et chirurgiens en chefs, qui ont sept aides ou candidats, dont quelques uns sans gage assistent au traitement des malades, pour se perfectionner dans leur art. On reçoit aussi à l'hôpital général des personnes, qui pour un prix modique s'y font soigner, particulièrement les domestiques et les apprentifs, dont les maîtres doivent payer l'entretien pendant leur maladie. Pour être reçu gratis dans cet hôpital il a fallu jusqu'ici l'attestat du médecin qui avoit soigné le malade et celui du médecin du quartier, pour certifier l'impossibilité où se trouvoit le malade de payer son entretien. Mais cet arrangement ayant entraîné beaucoup d'abus, l'administration générale chargea les médecins des quartiers de soigner gratis les pauvres de leur district, et si leur envoi à l'hôpital devenoit nécessaire de les munir de papiers, qui désignoient leur état et leur maladie.

Lorsque les médecins de l'hôpital sont persuadés qu'un mal est incurable, ils renvoient la personne qui en est attaquée à ses parens en lui donnant les secours nécessaires, ou la font transporter dans l'hôpital des incurables, où enfin on la reçoit dans la classe des invalides, dont le nombre se monte à près de 600; 180 hommes et 420 femmes y compris les infirmes, les vieillards, &c. Ceux qui abusent de la permission qu'ils ont de sortir le Dimanche, soit pour mendier ou pour s'enivrer, sont punis par la réclusion.

Chaque personne reçoit pour son diner du manger chaud à proportion de son appétit et une livre de pain. Leur linge est blanchi à l'hôpital, et ils reçoivent chaque semaine quelque argent de poche. Des donations particulières ont augmenté ces distributions, qui sont surtout adjugée à ceux qui se distinguent par leur bonne conduite. Deux vastes chambres chauffées en hiver sont destinées au travail; on file dans l'une le lin et dans l'autre la laine. Ceux qui travaillent reçoivent un salaire proportionné à l'ouvrage qu'ils font.

L'hôpital possède dans le Docteur Wendt, un homme distingué par ses connoissances et par l'intérêt particulier qu'il met à l'établissement qu'il dirige. Un père ne pourroit être plus

plus soigneux et plus patient avec ses enfans qu'il ne l'est avec ses malades. Très sévère pour tout ce qui regarde l'ordre et la propreté, il règne cependant dans ses paroles et ses actions une bonté qui ne se dément pas.

Les revenus de l'hôpital général se montent à près d'un million de roubles, somme qui s'augmentera sûrement par l'excellente administration des directeurs.

2. *Hôpital des Foux à Bistrupgaard près de Roskilde.*

L'hôpital des foux, jadis celui de St. Jean, étoit dans son origine très misérable. Plusieurs particuliers firent des donations pour améliorer son état; la plus considérable fut celle de Claude Rosset. Aussi son nom fut-il associé à celui de l'hôpital. Dans son origine on n'y traitoit que des maladies incurables. L'expédition des Anglois contre Copenhague en 1807 pensa ruiner cet établissement de fond en comble. L'hôpital se trouvant placé alors immédiatement sous le canon de la ville, il fallut solliciter auprès des Anglois la permission de le vider; mais ils n'eurent pas l'humanité d'accorder une trêve assez longue pour le faire avec ordre, et il est inoui, tout ce que les malheureux qui l'habitoient eurent à souffrir par cette précipitation. Peu d'instans après son évacuation, l'hôpital, qui venoit d'être récemment remonté à neuf en linge et en lits, fut pillé par les Anglois. Les bâtimens souffrirent beaucoup sans être détruits. Après que l'ennemi se fut retiré on ramena les malades; mais ils s'y trouvèrent privés de toutes les aisances qu'ils y avoient auparavant, et les malheurs du tems ne permirent pas de réparer sitôt les pertes essayées. L'ordonnance, qui fit étendre les fortifications de la ville, engagea la direction de l'hôpital à chercher sans délai un autre emplacement; elle fit alors l'acquisition d'une terre nommée Bistrupgaard, située près de Roskilde, de 800 arpens d'étendue. On en afferma 450, dont les revenus payés en denrées sont consommés par l'hôpital, plusieurs portions de terre distribuées aux employés forment une partie de leurs gages, et de plus petites portions sont destinées à l'entretien des ouvriers de la ferme; 80 arpens sont cultivés pour le compte de l'hôpital, et 90 sont destinés à la culture du lin, ayant les bâtimens et les machines nécessaires pour le préparer. On y forme des élèves qui puissent répandre en Dannemarc cette branche d'industrie trop négligée. Il est à regretter que cet établissement soit si loin de la capitale.

L'hôpital est divisé présentement en deux parties; l'une destinée aux foux incurables, l'autre aux invalides.

L'édifice qui renferme les foux, est situé aussi avantageusement qu'on peut le désirer, placé sur une hauteur; sa porte d'un côté sur la ville de Roskilde et son antique cathédrale, et de l'autre sur un golphe du Cattegat, qui s'étend jusque près de la hauteur où ses nombreuses sinuosités entre des collines couvertes de beaux bois de hêtres, offrent un point de vue aussi pittoresque qu'on peut l'attendre, dans un pays où l'on ne connoit point les grands tableaux qu'offrent la Suisse et l'Italie.

Un bâtiment à plusieurs étages est placé au centre. Sa plus grande chambre est destinée à ceux, dont la folie peut, sans danger, permettre la réunion. Les deux ailes de ce bâtiment sont destinées, l'une aux foux, qui demandent une rigide surveillance, et l'autre à l'infirmerie. Les larges fossés de l'ancien château forment une sureté suffisante pour ne pas craindre que les premiers s'échappent, et leur laisse la liberté de respirer l'air. Un jardin situé au pied de la colline sert de lieu de récréation. On évite soigneusement tous les noms qui pourroient rappeler aux foux leur malheureuse situation; ainsi le grand bâtiment s'appelle le château, et la chambre commune le sallon, et ainsi de suite. A l'extérieur des fossés se trouve l'ancienne ferme dont les nouveaux bâtimens qui y sont joints forment un quarré. D'un côté sont les logemens de l'intendant et du médecin, un autre côté est destiné aux cuisines, boulangerie, brasserie, et blanchisserie, ainsi qu'aux magasins nécessaires; une autre partie est occupée par les invalides, et près de là est l'église. Ceux qu'on reçoit de préférence, doivent malgré quelques défauts de corps ou d'esprit avoir assez de force et de facilité pour le travail; par exemple, des personnes attaquées d'épilepsie, des aveugles, des imbéciles, qui ne peuvent être rangés dans la classe des foux; et on complète le nombre par des vieillards et des infirmes. Il s'en suit de là que dans leur nombre il en est peu qui peuvent être employés aux travaux de la campagne ou de la maison, les autres sont occupés au tricotage, ou à quelque métier de tisserand; les aveugles sont employés à faire des paniers, et c'est un aveugle qui enseigne cet ouvrage aux autres. Les artisans âgés exercent leurs métiers selon leurs forces pour l'usage de la maison ou des autres établissemens soumis à l'institut des pauvres.

La situation à la campagne fait, que la nourriture est meilleure à Bistrupgaard qu'à l'hôpital général.

Une grande partie des foux y est d'ailleurs aux fraix, de leurs parens ou de la commune à laquelle ils appartiennent. Leur nombre est actuellement de 73, et celui des invalides et incurables de 274.

Malgré les fonds considérables que possède l'hôpital, ils ne pourroient suffire à son entretien, si l'institut général des pauvres n'y subvenoit. Les employés sont un intendant et son secrétaire, chargés de la tenue des comptes, de l'administration des terres, et de la surveillance de la maison, un médecin en chef et ses aides, et un pasteur. Parmi les serviteurs de la maison, il y a plusieurs gardes malades des deux sexes, dont le nombre augmente selon la quantité de malades. La manière de les traiter tous, sans exception, est entièrement paternelle.

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3. *Hôpital de Warton.*

L'hôpital de Warton occupe un rang distingué parmi les fondations pieuses de Copenhague. On ignore l'origine du nom qu'il porte, quelques personnes le font dériver du mot Allemand *wartrn*, parceque cet établissement étoit si recherché, qu'il falloit attendre très long-tems, avant que d'y être admis. Il s'appelloit originairement l'hôpital du St. Esprit.

Cette fondation est presque aussi ancienne que la maison régnante. Chrétien 1, à son retour de la terre sainte, en posa la base, en fondant un hôpital pour les infirmes. Les Rois, ses successeurs, dôtèrent cet établissement de plusieurs fonds de terre; ces libéralités permirent de l'étendre au delà de ses limites primitives. En 1585, Pierre Oxe, ministre des finances sous Frédéric 2, légua à Warton des revenus assignés sur des terres, dont les héritiers étoient tenus à fournir constamment aux fraix de 8 places dans l'hôpital. Plusieurs particuliers imitèrent cet exemple, en donnant des revenus ou des capitaux, se réservant le droit ainsi que leurs descendants de nommer eux-mêmes le nombre des places d'après la somme qu'ils avoient léguée.

Les directeurs de cette fondation augmentèrent ces revenus par une sage administration, si bien, que vers la fin du 17^{me} siècle, Chrétien 4 associa 4 petits hôpitaux aux fraix de celui-ci, savoir, ceux de l'isle de Möen, de Ringsted, de Nestved et de Calloundborg. Tous les documens et archives de cette fondation ayant été brûlés dans les incendies de 1795 et de 1807, il est impossible de donner des renseignemens exacts sur son état primitif. Warton n'est point un hôpital consacré aux malades, mais destiné aux vieillards et aux infirmes. Les ordonnances de Chrétien 4, portent qu'on n'y recevroit que les bourgeois de Copenhague, leurs femmes et leurs enfans, qui auroient payés les taxes de la ville. Dans les derniers tems on y a admis des domestiques, qui pendant de longues années avoient fidèlement servi leurs maîtres. Cet établissement est donc un asyle pour des marchands, des ouvriers et leurs familles, réduits à l'indigence, et est en même-tems la récompense de longs et zélés services. Les militaires et leurs veuves en sont exclus. Les maladies contagieuses, la démence, ainsi que toute personne saine, ou en état de gagner sa vie, le sont de même. Il y a actuellement 406 lits, dont 70 pour les hommes, le reste pour les femmes. La direction de l'institut général des pauvres à Copenhague a le droit de nommer à 200 de ces places; 30 sont réservées au choix des communes dont les 4 hôpitaux incorporés à Warton dépendent. Du tems de Chrétien 4 on étoit logé, chauffé et nourri aux fraix de cet établissement, la table étoit même très bonne, et les employés n'en avoient pas d'autre. Les malheurs des tems forcèrent à un changement, et au lieu de nourriture on donna 2 roubles, 8 cop. par semaine.

Les chambres de cet hôpital sont vastes. Il y a de plus de grandes salles chauffées constamment en hiver, où ceux qui veulent travailler se réunissent; mais ils n'y sont pas forcés, ils jouissent d'une entière liberté, et peuvent sortir quand ils veulent.

On porte tous les matins à chaque individu de l'eau chaude, pour faire son thé. On entretient constamment un feu dans la cuisine pour ceux qui veulent s'en servir.

Enfin il y a des femmes qui lavent à des jours marqués, et à un prix fixé par la direction.

L'hôpital a son église où les Dimanches et jours de fête on célèbre deux fois le service divin; de plus, tous les soirs à 7 heure on se rassemble dans la plus grande salle pour faire la prière accompagnée de chant.

L'infirmerie se trouve dans une maison attenante à l'église, où dans 4 chambres très propres sont 33 lits. Le médecin du district y soigne les malades gratis, et les médicamens sont aussi fournis gratis par la pharmacie de l'hôpital général.

Les principaux employés de la maison sont, l'inspecteur, le pasteur et le marguillier. Chaque dortoir a une femme préposée pour veiller à l'ordre et à la propreté. Les infirmes ont 3 gardes malades. Il y a de plus un portier et des hommes pour les gros ouvrages de la maison. Ceux qui y entrent, doivent y apporter tout ce qu'ils possèdent; l'hôpital est leur unique héritier, et ces petites successions qui reviennent souvent ne laissent pas de produire un revenu.

On peut évaluer actuellement les revenus annuels de la maison à près de 42 mille roubles.

4. *Hôpital d'Abel Catherine.*

L'hôpital d'Abel Catherine se distingue dans le nombre des hôpitaux de Copenhague; il reçut son nom de sa fondatrice Abel Catherine Worten, grande maîtresse, près de la Reine Sophie Amelie. Elle le fonda en 1675, pour des femmes pauvres et infirmes, qui n'avoient d'autres moyens d'existence que la charité publique. Leur nombre est fixé à 23, et on choisit avec soin celles qui y sont admises: ce choix se dirige principalement sur des femmes, qui ayant vécu dans une certaine aisance, se trouvent réduites à la misère, sans qu'elles aient à se la reprocher.

Elles ont en entrant dans ce refuge une espèce d'indépendance, vu qu'elles s'entretiennent elles-mêmes. Chaque femme a sa chambre, une petite cuisine et un emplacement pour le bois, et un jardin en commun. Comme les statuts n'ont point désigné de servante, elles ont la permission d'en prendre une, approuvée par la direction. La fondatrice a assigné à chaque femme reçue à cet hôpital trois roubles par semaine. Les revenus se tiroient d'une terre située en Jutlande, qui a été vendue, et dont l'argent a été placé aux intérêts. L'administration de cette maison ne coute presque rien. Son inspecteur tient les comptes

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et un employé y est logé pour maintenir l'ordre. La maison a une chapelle, et le pasteur de l'hôpital général y célèbre le service divin.

Quant aux médicamens et au médecin, c'est sur le même pied qu'à l'hôpital de Warton.

L'admission à cet établissement est si recherchée, que chaque vacance a un grand nombre d'aspirantes.

AUTRES HÔPITAUX A COPENHAGUE ET DANS LE PAYS :

1. *Hôpital de Frédéric à Copenhague.*

Cet hôpital doit sa fondation au Roi Frédéric 5, en 1756. Il est situé dans une des rues les plus apparentes de la capitale, forme 6 corps de logis, et renferme 8 cours assez spacieuses. Celle du milieu, plantée d'arbres, est un espèce de jardin, où les convalescents peuvent prendre l'air. Ces corps de logis sont réunis par des bâtimens de communication, qui renferment les logemens des employés de l'hôpital. Il est à regretter, que le terrain sur lequel cette maison de santé est construit soit très humide, à cause du voisinage de la mer.

L'hôpital n'avoit pas même de caves; et ce n'est que dans les dernières années, qu'on s'est occupé à grands frais d'en creuser, surtout sous les chambres destinées aux malades.

Son acte de fondation déclare, que le but de cet établissement est de venir au secours des malades indigents, qui ne reçoivent aucun aide des institutions publiques, et particulières de charité. Il en exclut cependant ceux atteints de maladies incurables ou honteuses; ainsi que les enfans au-dessous de 7 ans, excepté que le genre de leur maladie exige quelque opération chirurgicale. Plus tard cet établissement reçut des malades à raison de certains payemens, qui furent fixés à 8 roubles par semaine dans les chambres publiques, et à 10 dans une chambre particulière, tous les frais compris.

L'acte de fondation porte que l'hôpital recevra 300 malades. Il est naturel que leur nombre dépende surtout des saisons et des épidémies. De ces malades il y en a 180 au compte de l'hôpital; 40 des legs; et le reste paye son entretien.

Le personnel de l'hôpital consiste, en ce moment, en un médecin et un chirurgien en chef, un médecin et chirurgien de réserve, 4 candidats dans chacune de ces deux parties, un apothicaire, un inspecteur de bains, un économiste.

Il est d'ailleurs permis aux jeunes étudiants en médecine et en chirurgie, de visiter journellement l'hôpital, afin d'y perfectionner leurs connoissances. Le médecin en chef visite les malades chaque matin à une heure fixe, accompagné des candidats et des étudiants. On examine, pendant cette visite, les changemens survenus, depuis la veille, dans l'état des malades. Le médecin en chef dicte alors aux candidats les remèdes et la diète que chacun d'eux doit suivre; on l'inscrit ensuite dans le journal. Les candidats profitent de ce moment, pour examiner les malades avec soin, afin de juger des progrès de la maladie; et le médecin tâche encore de rendre cette visite plus instructive, en leur faisant faire des remarques intéressantes. Comme l'inspection du médecin, avec 180 malades, est très fatigante, et qu'il seroit difficile de la soutenir plus de deux heures de tems, on conçoit que le médecin ne peut s'arrêter à expliquer chaque maladie aux jeunes étudiants; mais ce désavantage est compensé par la diversité des malades, et par l'application suivie de presque tous les élèves en médecine. Ils ont un exemple d'assiduité à suivre dans celui que leur présente le chef actuel, le Professeur Herholdt. Savant physiologiste, son coup d'œil exercé, lui fait découvrir la nature des maladies; physionomiste éclairé, celles de l'ame lui sont rarement cachées. Profond dans toutes les parties de la médecine, il ne néglige point les autres sciences. Il réunit enfin à cette érudition étendue le caractère le plus franc et le plus aimable qui excite la confiance de ceux qui le consultent, qualité précieuse dans un homme de l'art, qui doit toujours tacher d'éloigner l'attention du malade de ses maux.

Comme les médecins en chef des hôpitaux ont du tems de reste, et que ce sont les meilleurs médecins de la ville, ils peuvent pratiquer en ville sans que leur absence soit préjudiciable à l'hôpital. Un médecin de réserve remplit les fonctions du docteur en chef pendant son absence; les candidats font aussi à tour de rôle l'inspection. Ils doivent de plus examiner, chaque semaine, les malades qui veulent entrer à l'hôpital, pour s'assurer s'ils n'ont aucune des maladies qui d'après les réglemens leur font refuser l'admission. Le plus ancien des candidats fait, chaque semaine et chaque mois, des listes sur le nombre des malades, et l'âge de ceux qui viennent s'établir à l'hôpital.

Le savant médecin Callisen dit, dans son excellent ouvrage, intitulé, *Remarques sur Copenhague*, " que l'étendue des chambres des malades, leur hauteur, la propreté qui règne dans toutes les parties de l'établissement, les soins paternels qu'on leur prodigue, ne laissent presque rien à désirer." Je puis assurer qu'il n'en a pas trop dit, ayant reconnu ces vérités dans les fréquentes visites que j'y ai faites.

Cependant le zèle du Docteur Herholdt, et les soins de la direction actuelle de l'hôpital, ont encore amélioré son état. L'hôpital fournit ses malades de linge; mais ils peuvent se servir du leur. Le linge des lits est renouvelé très souvent; les chambres sont lavées une fois par semaine, et sont pourvues de ventilateurs. La nourriture est plus ou moins choisie, selon la qualité du malade et les habitudes qu'il peut avoir prises, elle est toujours parfaitement apprêtée et très abondante. Si le médecin demande pour ses malades quelques mets ou quelques vins rares et coûteux, l'économiste les lui délivre aussitôt, et l'inscrit dans un livre particulier. Chaque chambre a une ou deux gardes malades pour le jour, et une autre pour la nuit.

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Avant que le Professeur Herholdt fut mis à la tête de l'hôpital, on plaçoit, sans distinction, les malades dans les chambres où il se trouvoient des lits vacants, de sorte que, souvent des personnes atteintes de fièvre putride, (maladie très commune et très dangereuse en Dannemarc,) se trouvoient placées à côté d'autres, qui souffrant de quelque mal chronique, couroient le risque d'être atteintes de cette fièvre. Le professeur s'est empressé de mettre fin à des inconveniens si fâcheux; des chambres séparées furent destinées aux fièvres putrides; et il changea, avec le plus grand succès, la méthode de les traiter. On considéroit auparavant cette fièvre comme asthénique; on tâchoit donc d'éloigner du malade le moindre souffle d'air; on le tenoit chaudement; on lui donnoit enfin les remèdes les plus fortifiants. Ce traitement ne faisoit qu'augmenter la mortalité occasionnée par cette maladie; et on en donnoit le caractère à des fièvres, qui, sans cela, ne seroient jamais devenues putride. Rendu attentif à ce mal, et goûtant une méthode toute contraire proposée par des médecins Anglois, Herholdt introduisit il y a trois ans dans son hôpital un système tout nouveau. Les rideaux furent enlevés des lits comme ne servant qu'à y entretenir le mauvais air; les malades couchés sur des matelats durs, n'ont que des couvertures minces; les fenêtres sont ouvertes été et hiver, à fin d'entretenir un courant d'air continu. Les remèdes sont entièrement rafraichissans; on emploie les sang-sues dans le commencement de la maladie, et les compresses d'eau froide et de vinaigre sur la tête et l'estomac pendant la durée du mal. La liste de mortalité prouve combien cette méthode est excellente, puisqu'il ne meurt qu'un malade sur 30, au lieu d'un sur 12, ou même 1 sur 8 qui mourroit auparavant. La contagion est si peu à craindre, vu la pureté de l'air, que j'ai souvent examiné les malades de très près, sans courir le moindre danger. Je ne puis passer sous silence un phénomène presque inconcevable, que j'ai vu à l'hôpital de Frédéric, quoique ce recit sorte de mon sujet: c'est une fille juive de nation, nommée Rachel Hertz, du corps de laquelle, Herholdt, après des opérations répétées, a extrait près de 400 aiguilles. La première se montra au commencement de l'année 1819. Cette malheureuse fille est âgée de 31 ans; et sa vie, depuis l'âge de 15, n'a été qu'une suite de souffrances. Elle-même, sa famille, tous, en un mot, ignorent comment ce nombre presque incroyable d'aiguilles est entré dans son corps; mais ce qui est indubitable c'est, qu'elles en ont été tirées. Le témoignage du Docteur Herholdt suffiroit déjà pour le croire; mais la plupart des médecins de Copenhague, plusieurs médecins étrangers qui ont été présent à quelques-unes de ces opérations, et qui en ont faites eux-mêmes, confirment assez cet événement extraordinaire. Avant qu'on eut connoissance des aiguilles, cette fille étoit sujette à des attaques les plus cruelles de crampes et à des évanouissemens de plusieurs jours. Herholdt ne put trouver d'autres moyens d'arrêter les douleurs, que d'intercepter avec la main l'entrée de l'air dans la bouche et les narines, au point de lui faire perdre la respiration. Je l'ai vu employer ce procédé avec le plus grand succès, afin de faire cesser les convulsions qui lui prennent encore chaque jour; elle est encore attaquée de l'hydropisie et du diabète.

Il y a un an qu'elle n'a pas joui un instant d'un sommeil naturel, car on ne peut nommer sommeil l'évanouissement convulsif où elle tombe pendant plusieurs heures de la journée. Quel spectacle déchirant que de voir cet être malheureux, le bras paralysé, et presque toutes les parties de son corps couvertes de profondes cicatrices; les yeux hagards, pousser des cris affreux, se débattre avec le seul bras qu'elle peut mouvoir, et présenter le tableau des plus horribles souffrances. Loin de murmurer contre une existence aussi misérable, Rachel Hertz montre un courage et une résignation à toute épreuve. La providence qui a accumulé sur elle tant de maux, lui fait en revanche trouver des consolations dans les qualités surprenantes de l'esprit et de l'âme dont elle est douée. Sa mémoire est si grande, qu'elle recite sans faute une pièce de vers, ou un discours, qu'on lui aura lu quelques jours auparavant. Il y a six mois qu'elle a commencé à apprendre seule le Latin, et a déjà fait de tels progrès dans cette langue, qu'elle lit Senèque, Cicéron, comme s'ils étoient écrits dans sa langue naturelle, et qu'elle écrit chaque jour l'histoire de sa maladie, dans un Latin, non seulement correct, mais encore élégant. Lorsque ses douleurs diminuent ou cessent, son humeur peut même prendre une teinte de gaieté, et c'est l'espoir de guérison qui l'occupe alors. Herholdt a écrit l'histoire de Rachel Hertz, et il est bien probable que l'on considérera un jour ce récit comme fabuleux.

L'hôpital de Frédéric est l'établissement le plus riche dans ce genre, et ses revenus s'augmentent encore par la bienfaisance des particuliers. Il reçoit dans le cours d'une année 2,100 malades dont à peu près $\frac{2}{3}$ sont à ses frais.

La partie chirurgicale de cet établissement est sur le même pied que la médicinale. Ce qu'il y a surtout de bien organisé, c'est, que chaque blessé a un candidat en chirurgie pour le soigner, qui le visite plusieurs fois par jour. Des lits sont toujours prêts pour des blessés, qu'on apporte subitement à l'hôpital. Le chirurgien en chef actuel, le Professeur Witthusen, ne se distingue pas seulement comme opérateur habile, mais encore comme excellent médecin. Il est, indépendamment de cela, le premier oculiste du Dannemarc, et déploie dans ses opérations une tranquillité et un sang froid imperturbable; les cas, les accidens les plus imprévus, ne peuvent le sortir de son calme, ni lui faire perdre sa présence d'esprit. Le seul reproche qu'on pourroit lui faire, c'est, qu'étant chirurgien en chef d'un hôpital qui doit servir à former de jeunes médecins et chirurgiens, il ne permet pas de faire la moindre opération aux candidats, ses élèves, et de cette manière, ils ne peuvent pas acquérir l'habileté pratique nécessaire à leur art.

2. *Maison d'Accouchement.*

Il n'est aucun des établissemens de bienfaisance de Copenhague, qui puisse être comparé à la maison d'accouchement, tant pour son administration, que pour son utilité. Elle doit son état florissant surtout à la Reine Julie Marie. Le règne de Frédéric 5 fut la première époque, où une institution pareille prit naissance en Dannemarc, afin de prévenir le crime dont les nouveaux nés pouvoient être victimes innocentes.

La maison d'accouchement recevoit alors, comme maintenant sous le sceau du secret, les femmes qui s'y rendoient, et si ce mystère facilite d'un côté le vice, il ôte aussi à la honte la tentation du crime.

On y avoit réuni anciennement une maison pour les enfans trouvés : un berceau posé dans le mur du bâtiment étoit destiné à les recevoir, dès qu'on y en plaçoit un, trois cloches sonnoient à l'instant et annoncoient l'arrivée du nouvel habitant de la maison ; mais des abus énormes s'introduisirent, au point que des cargaisons d'enfans arrivoient de Suède, et étoient posés les uns après les autres dans le berceau bienfaisant. Cet ordre de choses ne put naturellement subsister long-tems.

La Reine Marie Julie acheta une maison, la fit affranchir de tout impôt, et nomma une commission, pour lui donner la meilleure organisation possible. Il fut décidé d'après ce nouvel arrangement que la maison recevroit 50 femmes en couches, dont 30 seraient soignées aux fraix de l'établissement, et 20 à leurs propres dépens. Les femmes qui y tombent malades des suites de leurs couches, sont transportées à l'hôpital de Frédéric, ou à quelque autre maison de santé, sans avoir besoin de se nommer ; elles y sont soignées gratis, ou à raison d'un paiement modique selon leurs moyens.

Douze femmes des provinces sont logées dans la maison, et défrayées de tout, pour apprendre le métier de sage femme, du reste cette instruction est ouverte à chaque femme qui veut en profiter ; mais elle doit payer alors annuellement une petite somme.

Un médecin, deux chirurgiens et deux candidats en médecine sont logés et chauffés dans la maison.

Un bâtiment pour recevoir les enfans, que les femmes laissent à la maison d'accouchement, fut ajouté ; les nouveaux nés y restent, jusqu'à ce qu'ils puissent être transportés à la campagne. Des nourrices, aux gages de l'établissement, sont toujours prêtes à recevoir les enfans ; plusieurs d'entre-elles en allaitent deux à la fois, lorsque les nourrissons sont en grand nombre.

La maison d'accouchement se compose de 3 bâtimens spacieux, de belle apparence, parfaitement entretenus, des corridors de communication sont pratiqués partout. Plusieurs jardins appartenant aux inspecteurs, aux sages femmes, des cours spacieuses ne contribuent pas peu à entretenir la pureté de l'air. Les chambres sont blanchies chaque année et lavées une fois la semaine. Si cet institut a de la célébrité non seulement en Dannemarc, mais dans d'autres pays, si un nombre considérable d'étrangers, étudiants en médecine, viennent y faire leurs études, il le doit surtout à la réputation distinguée que se sont acquises les deux Saxtorph, père et fils, par leurs connoissances étendues, et leurs savants écrits sur ce sujet. Le dernier est maintenant chef de l'établissement et déploie journellement son habileté dans les cures les plus difficiles. Les leçons de cet homme distingué et l'exercice continuel que les candidats trouvent à l'institut, sont la cause de l'état florissant dans lequel cet art est en Dannemarc. Chaque médecin, qui veut avoir un emploi dans ce royaume, doit prouver qu'il a passé à la maison d'accouchement le tems marqué par les ordonnances.

Les personnes destinées à devenir sage femmes sont, à peu près, au nombre de 30, dont 12 entretenues aux fraix du gouvernement, et les autres par des seigneurs du pays, ou quelque ville ou village. L'accoucheur en chef leur enseigne la théorie de l'art, et la sage femme en chef la pratique ; avant de quitter l'établissement elles sont soumises à un examen très exact.

1°. Pour ce qui regarde la maison d'accouchement en particulier, il est à remarquer, qu'elle doit recevoir gratis 10 femmes mariées, à condition qu'elles apportent un certificat de bonne conduite et de pauvreté ; elles y sont reçues lorsqu'elles sont sur le point d'être délivrées. Il faut qu'elles nourrissent leurs enfans elles-mêmes, et les emportent à leur sortie de l'hôpital.

2°. Vingt femmes non mariées y sont aussi admises gratis, et sont reçues sans se faire annoncer ni connoître ; une même chambre en contient plusieurs ; elles sont visitées par les candidats et les élèves des sages femmes ; elles doivent aussi nourrir leurs enfans et les emporter ; mais si elles ne peuvent les entretenir, la maison s'en charge, à condition que la mère serve à l'établissement comme nourrice au moins pendant 6 semaines.

3°. Vingt femmes non mariées qui payent 7, 14, 19, 28 roubles par semaine d'après leurs moyens. Celles qui payent 7 roubles, sont trois ou quatre dans une même chambre, et ne sont reçues que peu de tems avant leurs couches ; aucune n'a besoin de se faire connoître ; elles doivent nourrir elles-mêmes leur enfans.

Celles qui payent les autres sommes, ont une ou deux chambres et même plusieurs à leur disposition, ne sont soignées que par la sage femme et l'accoucheur en chef, elles entrent dans la maison plusieurs semaines avant leurs couches, ne se nomment point, et y restent jusqu'à leur entière guérison ; leurs enfans sont donnés aussitôt après leur naissance à des nourrices de la maison. L'accouchée, qui ne veut pas emporter son enfant, peut payer une fois pour toutes 75 roubles, et l'y laisser.

Les mères reçoivent en partant des numeros et autres signes qu'on fait porter à l'enfant,

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et peuvent venir le réclamer quand elles veulent, en payant ce que l'enfant a coûté jusqu'à cette époque.

Aucune femme atteinte de maladie honteuse ou contagieuse ne peut être reçue; des exceptions pour le premier cas, se font dans des circonstances extraordinaires. Chaque femme doit apporter une layette pour son enfant, et doit l'augmenter lorsqu'elle l'abandonne à l'institut.

Quant à ce qui concerne l'établissement pour les enfans qui sont laissés dans la maison d'accouchement, il y a une inspectrice pour les nourrices; elle tient compte des enfans qui sont reçus, inscrit leurs noms de batême, numeros, signes distinctifs, et autres moyens de les connoître, dans un livre destiné à cet usage. Les dépenses sont réglées par une autre inspectrice.

Les nouveaux nés, soignés auparavant par les candidats seuls, le sont maintenant par l'accoucheur de réserve, le Professeur Bang, homme d'un talent reconnu dans la partie de la médecine qui régarde les maladies d'enfans.

Chaque employé, quelqu'il soit de la maison d'accouchement, doit prêter serment entre les mains du directeur, qu'il ne tâchera jamais de découvrir qui sont les personnes admises, et que, si un hasard le lui dévoile, il n'en fera jamais part à qui que ce soit, en un mot, qu'il évitera scrupuleusement de donner la moindre indication sur leur personne. Chaque employé, en entrant au service, réçoit des instructions, qu'il doit suivre ponctuellement.

La sage femme en chef doit recevoir les femmes encientes qui entrent, leurs indiquer leurs places, les examiner, et veiller à ce que les nouveaux nés soient baptisés; à ce qu'il y ait un nombre suffisant de nourrices, et qu'elles soient saines.

Les portiers doivent faire une extrême attention aux personnes qui entrent et sortent, annoncer aussitôt à la sage femme l'arrivée des femmes encientes qui viennent dans la maison (il est naturel que la plupart préfèrent venir dans la nuit, afin d'être sûres de n'être pas reconnues); cet emploi n'est donné qu'à des gens de confiance.

Il y a encore des inspecteurs, qui ne s'occupent que des détails économiques.

3. *Hôpital des Matelots.*

Cet hôpital a été établi en 1806; il est destiné aux matelots et ouvriers qui travaillent journellement aux chantiers. Ces gens vivoient avant l'année sus-mentionnée, dispersés dans la ville, ce qui rendoit les visites très difficiles aux chirurgiens de la marine. Les ouvriers furent alors réunis, le gouvernement fit construire un quartier séparé dans la ville, qui, pour ainsi dire forme une bourgade à part, les maisons y ont même une forme particulière. Ce quartier a pour commandant un officer de marine; son devoir est de veiller à la propreté et au bon ordre intérieur et extérieur. Il faut avouer que ces soins n'ont pas été perdus; c'est le quartier le mieux entretenu de la ville. Le bâtiment de l'hôpital est bien construit, peut recevoir 300 malades, et est fourni de tout l'inventaire nécessaire. On y reçoit des malades gratis, il y a des chambres séparées pour les femmes et enfans. Vis-à-vis du corps de logis est un autre bâtiment destiné aux convalescens, un grand jardin est ouvert à ceux qui osent prendre l'air. Le peu de malades qui meurent prouve les soins excellens qui leur sont prodigués. Depuis 1806 jusqu'en 1823, il n'en est mort que 6 ou 7 sur 100. L'hôpital forme 2 divisions, qui ont chacun leur médecin en chef. Les médicamens sont délivrés gratis. Comme l'hôpital général de la marine, dont il va être question n'est point ouvert, il y a encore une centaine de lits vacans pour les matelots de la flotte, qui reviennent de quelque expédition, et pour les matelots malades, que des vaisseaux étrangers sont obligés de mettre à terre. Il n'est point nécessaire de parler ici en particulier de la manière dont les malades sont soignés, puisqu'elle est presque la même dans toutes les maisons de santé en Dannemarc; ordre, propreté, soins paternels se retrouvent partout, il n'est point d'hôpital quelque mal doté qu'il soit, qui laisse paroître de la négligence dans le traitement. Des administrateurs sages et intègres savent régler la dépense sur les revenus. Ils connoissent l'influence que les object extérieurs ont souvent sur l'esprit des souffrans, évitent par conséquent ce qui peut frapper leur imagination ou leurs sens d'une manière désagréable. Les opérations chirurgicales se font autant que possible dans un appartement séparé, et on tâche de cacher les encoisses du mourant aux yeux de ses voisins.

4. *Hôpital Général de la Marine.*

Cet hôpital est le plus considérable et le plus ancien dans la capitale, il date encore du tems de Chrétien 5, il étoit destiné anciennement aux blessés, malades, et invalides de la flotte. Il peut recevoir actuellement jusqu'à 900 malades. Il n'est ouvert qu'en tems de guerre, d'épidémie ou dans d'autres circonstances extraordinaires, comme par exemple pour les malades de navires alliés, lorsqu'ils sont en trop grand nombre pour trouver place dans les autres hôpitaux. On peut nommer cet établissement un hôpital de réserve. Toutes les personnes qui doivent y être employées y logent; médecins, chirurgiens, gardes malades; chambres, lits, tout est prêt. On ne peut assez admirer ici la sage prévoyance du gouvernement, qui non content de soulager selon ses moyens les maux présens, songe encore à ceux à venir.

Des revenus très considérables sont assignés à cet hôpital entr'autres sur le Lombard, ils permettent même de faire des pensions aux veuves d'officiers de marine indigens.

5. *Hôpital*

5. *Hôpital Général de la Garnison de Copenhague.*

Avant l'année 1800 chaque régiment en garnison à Copenhague avoit un hôpital particulier. Les médecins de ces petits lazarets fournissoient médicamens, bandages, enfin tout ce qui étoit nécessaire aux malades, sur une certaine somme qu'on leur donnoit annuellement. Il est évident que nombre d'abus naissoient de cet arrangement. Le roi actuel y a mis fin, après la dernière guerre avec les Anglois; il fit construire un hôpital général pour toute la garnison; 700 soldats peuvent y être reçus; il y a des appartemens séparés pour les officiers, qui veulent s'y faire soigner, et un bâtiment isolé pour les femmes et enfans des soldats. L'usage d'une aile de la maison pour les convalescents est aussi introduit dans cet hôpital; des jardins, des cours spacieuses s'y trouvent également. Les chambres sont divisées entre les 11 régimens qui composent la garnison de Copenhague. Ces régimens ne formant qu'un corps de 10,000 hommes, le nombre de 700 que l'hôpital peut recevoir est plus que suffisant. Dans des cas extraordinaires le grand Hôpital de la Marine serviroit de supplément. Onze chirurgiens logent à l'hôpital de la garnison, qui est de plus visité chaque jour par les médecins et chirurgiens en chef. Les officiers sont soignés gratis aussi bien que les soldats, et ne payent que les vins et les mets plus recherchés qu'ils desirent; ils ont même un jardin séparé. Les médicamens sont donnés au compte du gouvernement par une pharmacie, nommée celle de la garnison.

Indépendamment des hôpitaux de la capitale, la Sélande en possède 6 principaux, dont le plus remarquable est l'hôpital d'Elseneur, autrement appelé Hôpital du Sund.

6. *Hôpital d'Elseneur.*

La situation d'Elseneur sur la côte, et le passage presque continuel de vaisseaux pendant la navigation, amenoit souvent des malades dans ces parages, qu'on transportoit faute d'hôpital chez les particuliers qui consentoient à les recevoir. Le directeur de la douane de cette ville communiqua aux habitans le projet de fonder un établissement pour y recevoir à un prix modique, non seulement les malades que les vaisseaux de toutes nations y laissoient, mais encore ceux de la ville. Le plan fut proposé au roi, qui l'approuva et assigna des fonds nécessaires pour l'exécuter. L'hôpital peut contenir maintenant jusqu'à 100 malades. Trois appartemens sont destinés aux personnes d'un rang supérieur.

Le bâtiment n'a pas assez d'étendue pour tous les employés puissent y loger; il présente cependant tous les moyens de guérison, tels que bains, machines à électriser, appareils de chirurgie, &c. La direction de cet établissement est composée d'un supérieur, nommé par le gouvernement, de 2 magistrats, de 2 bourgeois, et de 2 employés de la douane de la ville, enfin des médecins de l'hôpital.

La capitale de Lalande et celle de Fionie ont chacune un hôpital assez étendu.

La Jutlande en possède 9 très considérables, sans compter l'infirmierie qui se trouve dans chaque petite ville. Tous ces établissemens suivent les mêmes règles que ceux de Copenhague, et si leur cercle d'activité est plus resserré, leur état florissant ne le cède pas à celui des hôpitaux de la capitale.

HOPITAUX DANS LES DUCHES :

Hôpital des Foux à Schlesvig.

La maison des foux établie dans les environs de la ville de Schlesvig ne date que de l'année 1820, et surpasse déjà les établissemens de ce genre dans la royaume de Dannemarck et dans plusieurs pays voisins. On a choisi la contrée la plus riante pour y construire une maison, qui répondit entièrement à l'usage qu'on en vouloit faire. On y a veilli autant à l'agrément qu'à l'utilité des êtres malheureux qu'elle alloit renfermer. Des jardins, des galeries couvertes, des établissemens de bains, des ateliers de menuiserie, de tisserand, etc. sont placés autour du corps de logis. Les habitations des hommes sont entièrement séparées de celles des femmes. Les foux des deux sexes cependant dont le dérangement de raison n'a rien de dangereux, dinent et se promènent ensemble. On a soin de réunir ceux, dont l'éducation est à peu près égale, afin qu'ils puissent s'offrir mutuellement quelque distraction par la lecture, la conversation ou différens jeux. Les incurables ainsi que les enragés sont entièrement isolés, des chambres particulières sont destinées à chacun de ces derniers; là se trouvent rassemblées toutes les précautions qu'exige leur malheureux état. Il y a maintenant près de 100 aliénés, dont 26 sont des personnes de bonne naissance. L'entretien de ces malades est entièrement aux fraix de l'hôpital, ainsi que les remèdes. Les employés sont payés par le gouvernement. Les avantages que les foux peuvent se procurer lorsqu'ils ont de la fortune est d'avoir de plus vastes appartemens, des meubles plus commodes, une cuisine plus recherchée, enfin tout ce qui peut satisfaire leur fantaisie, sans faire tort à leur santé. Les directeurs de l'hôpital sont d'une sévérité très louable sur le compte des lectures. Lettres, livres, qui sont adressés aux malades doivent passer par leurs mains, et ne sont remis à leur adresse, qu'après qu'ils l'auront jugé convenable. Les foux de l'établissement qui existoit à Glückstadt ont été transféré à l'hôpital près de Schlesvig, et prouvent par les progrès étonnans qui se sont opérés dans leur guérison combien ce dernier établissement est préférable. Hambourg y a aussi envoyé plusieurs aliénés. Le gouvernement a consacré des sommes considérables au profit de l'hôpital; ses autres revenus consistent dans le rapport des terres qui en dépendent, dans le produit de plusieurs amendes qui lui sont assignés, et dans celui de dons gratuits que des citoyens charitables se sont empressés d'y apporter. Le médecin et directeur en chef de l'établissement est le

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Professeur Nissen, homme de talens, qui s'est entièrement voué à cette partie de la médecine; il est d'une patience à toute épreuve, et regarde comme principe de guérison de gagner l'affection et la confiance des malades par la bonté, et de n'employer des moyens sévères qu'à la dernière extrémité.

Hôpital de Kiel.

Quoique cet établissement n'existe que depuis peu d'années, et que ses fonds soient très modiques, il a cependant fait des pas rapides vers son perfectionnement, par l'empressement que les citoyens de Kiel ont mis à le doter. Le gouvernement s'est chargé de sa direction, et en a augmenté les revenus. Les apothicaires de cette ville ont surtout contribué à soutenir l'établissement dans son origine, en délivrant pendant quelque tems les médicamens gratis. Ceux qui sont admis dans cet hôpital sont divisés en six classes.

La 1^e. sont les gens les plus pauvres, qui pendant leur séjour à l'hôpital, sont entièrement aux fraix de cet établissement.

2^e. Les moins indigens, qui peuvent payer par jour 6 cop. ou plus.

3^e. Les domestiques et garçons ouvriers, qui sont à l'hôpital aux fraix de leurs maitres, qui ne payent cependant que les médicamens et le médecin, la reste étant gratis.

4^e. Ceux qui peuvent s'entretenir eux mêmes. Ils ont une chambre particulière, payent leurs remèdes et leur nourriture.

5^e. Des personnes plus riches, qui louent par semaine des chambres garnies, ont leur propre médecin, leur domestique, etc.

6^e. Les femmes qui viennent accoucher à l'établissement; on fait avec chacune d'elles un accord particulier, suivant ce qu'elles exigent.

L'hôpital d'Altona se compte parmi les établissemens les plus importants de ce genre dans les Duchés. Sa fondation date de l'an 1760. Ses revenus sont considérables, ses bâtimens et ses jardins fort étendus. Tous les établissemens en Dannemarc possèdent des jardins, avantage considérable pour la salubrité de l'air, pour l'exercice des convalescents, sans oublier de bonheur qu'ils éprouvent de quitter, ne fût-ce que pour quelques instans, le théâtre de leurs maux.

INOCULATION VACCINE :

Société pour leur Propagation.

La petite vérole a fait dans les tems reculés les plus affreux ravages en Dannemarc. Lorsque cette maladie fut apportée pour la première fois en Islande par un vaisseau Danois, dans le commencement du 18 siècle, 20,000 personnes en devinrent les victimes; et transportée dans le Groenlande en 1734, elle enleva près des 2/3 de la population.

L'inoculation avoit enseigné à diminuer ce mal. On en fit le premier essai en 1754; puis une commission fut érigée pour en propager l'usage dans tout le royaume. La découverte de la vaccine vint enfin détruire ce fléau. Les médecins Danois s'empressèrent d'admettre cette nouvelle méthode, dont ils n'avoient aucune idée; quoiqu'on eut des découvertes faites en Holstein avant que Jenner publia la sienne. On fit venir de Londres de la matière propre à l'inoculation, et le 6 Juillet 1800 le premier enfant fut vacciné à Copenhague. Le Professeur Herholdt proposa à ses collègues de former une société pour la propagation de la vaccine; proposition qui fut aussitôt agréée. Une commission royale nommée dans le même but institua un établissement de vaccine, où tous les enfans quelconques sont vaccinés gratis à de certaines heures du jour.

Une ordonnance royale porte, que de crainte que la petite vérole ne reparaisse dans le pays, aucun enfant ne sera reçu à la confirmation, ne pourra être admis à aucun institut, école, fabrique, manufacture, et il ne recevra aucun secours des établissemens publics, s'il n'a pas eu la petite vérole ou s'il n'a pas été vacciné.

Pour recevoir la bénédiction nuptiale et entrer au service du pays, il faut également prouver qu'on a eu cette maladie, ou se faire vacciner à l'instant.

Si le mal se déclare dans quelque endroit, le malade est aussitôt séparé de tout le monde, et les mesures les plus sévères sont prises pour en arrêter la propagation.

Chaque père de famille est obligé, sous peine d'emprisonnement au pain et à l'eau pendant un mois, de déclarer aussitôt à la police si la petite vérole s'est montrée dans sa maison.

Les rapports de la commission prouvent que 343,167 personnes ont été vaccinés jusqu'en 1817.

Deux instituts de vaccine furent établis, l'un à Kiel, l'autre à Altona; le nombre des personnes vaccinés dans les Duchés a été :

En 1812	-	-	-	-	-	-	de 56,956
1813	-	-	-	-	-	-	8,193
1814	-	-	-	-	-	-	9,961

Médecins.

Le gouvernement entretient depuis le commencement de ce siècle des médecins dans les différentes provinces du royaume, afin de surveiller les établissemens de médecine qui se trouvent dans chacune d'elles. Ces médecins habitent les villes principales de chaque bailliage. Ils ont plusieurs aides qu'on nomme chirurgiens de districts. Il y en a 14 en Sélande,

Sélande, 1 à Bornholm, 2 à Falster, 1 en Langeland, 25 en Jutlande, et 34 dans les Duchés. Ces chirurgiens ainsi distribués dans le pays pratiquent dans leurs districts, sous la direction cependant du médecin du bailliage.

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Pharmacies.

Il y a 8 pharmacies à Copenhague, et 1 dans ses fauxbourgs ; chaque ville du royaume en possède. Les apothicaires sont examinés publiquement ; il leur est enjoint, sous des peines sévères, de ne jamais délivrer des poisons, émétiques, et autres remèdes dangereux, sans ordonnance du médecin, qui doit y marquer la date du jour, le nom du malade. Les pharmacies sont visitées de tems à autres par les autorités ; les apothicaires qui se trouvent avoir vendu des médecines au dessus de la taxe, sont punis selon rigueur des lois.

Bains.

Les bains, ce premier moyen de santé, manquent presque entièrement à Copenhague, quoique la mer atteigne ses murs, il n'y a aucun arrangement décent pour s'y baigner. Il n'y a aucun bain dans la ville à l'usage du peuple, de sorte que ce n'est que l'été qu'il peut en jouir, le Sund offrant le plus beau bassin d'eau ; cependant les Danois sont excellents nageurs. Depuis mon séjour à Copenhague une maison de bain a été établie par un particulier de cette ville ; les chambres sont au nombre de 8, une partie pour les hommes, et les autres pour les femmes ; l'arrangement en est décent, mais le bain est à si haut prix que peu de personnes peuvent en jouir.

Apenrade et Kiel sont sous ce rapport plus avancés que la capitale. Ces villes ont de très bons arrangements pour les bains de mer.

Quarantaine.

La navigation et le commerce des Danois ont nécessité l'institution d'établissements de quarantaine. Ce pays en a bien éprouvé l'importance et la nécessité, ayant été visité depuis 1340 par 18 des plus affreuses épidémies. Pendant celle de 1529 il mourut dans la capitale plus de 400 personnes par jour. Ce ne fut pourtant qu'en 1771 que l'on prit des mesures sérieuses pour prévenir toute contagion. Il existe maintenant une commission de santé et une direction de quarantaine.

La maison de quarantaine est fort bien située ; elle est placée sur une batterie près du port, qui forme une isle.

Etablissements pour sauver les Noyés.

On avoit souvent proposé en Dannemarc de former des établissemens pour rappeler à la vie des noyés ou autres personnes crues mortes. On présenta plusieurs plans à cet effet, mais en 1796 parut l'ouvrage du Docteur Herholdt et de son ami Rafn, intitulé, "Essai Historique sur les Etablissements pour sauver des Noyés, et explication des meilleurs Moyens de les rappeler à la Vie." Cet ouvrage détermina enfin à former des établissemens pareils en Dannemarc. Ce livre, écrit avec toute la chaleur que l'importance d'un pareil sujet exigeoit, reveilla l'attention générale, et porta des personnes à former une société, pour mettre en exécution les moyens indiqués dans le livre. Le Gouvernement s'empressa de s'unir à cette association bienfaisante ; des prix furent destinés pour ceux qui réussiroient à rappeler des noyés à la vie d'après les moyens enseignés. Indépendamment de cela, on forma des établissemens publics qui prospérèrent jusqu'en 1807, que le siège de Copenhague les détruisit. Ils furent de nouveau constitués quelques années après et sur un meilleur pied. Il en existe maintenant 11, pourvus de tous les instrumens nécessaires, surtout près des lacs et canaux, que les suicides choisissent ordinairement pour se noyer ; je ne sais si c'est la profondeur de l'eau, ou l'imitation, qui les engagent à choisir ces endroits, je ne puis le décider, mais le fait n'en est pas moins véritable, et il est triste d'avouer, que Copenhague est la ville après Londres où il se commet le plus de suicides de tous les genres. L'indifférence avec laquelle le bas peuple considère le crime de s'ôter la vie, prouve assez qu'il n'est pas de considération qui puisse le rétenir, lorsqu'il en prend la résolution.

Le zèle de la société de Copenhague a été imité dans les principales villes de Fionie et de la Jutlande, ainsi que dans les Duchés.

Les soins du Gouvernement s'étendirent sur les enfans qu'on supposoit ne pas jouir de la vie à leur naissance, et qui la perdoient véritablement par l'ignorance des sage femmes. Un rescrit ordonna à celles-ci de présenter tout enfant né mort à des personnes désignées pour cet effet. Le collège de santé fit paraître un ouvrage écrit dans un style populaire, afin d'enseigner les expédiens pour faire revivre les nouveaux nés, privés en apparence de la vie.

ECOLES DE CHARITE DEPENDANTES DE L'ADMINISTRATION GENERALE DES
PAUVRES.

Si antérieurement le Dannemarc s'est trouvé en retard sous le rapport de l'instruction publique, il a fait depuis 40 ans des progrès si rapides, qu'il ne le cède à aucun autre pays ; on peut même assurer qu'il en existe peu où les moyens d'instruction gratuite soient aussi nombreux et aussi bien appliqués. Mes recherches sur ce qu'ils étoient dans les tems antérieurs, m'ont donné peu de lumière à cet égard ; il paroît même que cette branche d'ad-

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ministration occupoit très peu les autorités. Les premières écoles de charité furent au nombre de 4, elles s'augmentèrent successivement avec des améliorations, enfin en 1814 on établit une direction générale pour toutes les écoles, gratuites ou non gratuites, qui se bornent aux connoissances élémentaires. Il fut ordonné, que la fréquentation des écoles de charité seroit obligatoire, qu'aucun enfant ne pourroit être admis à l'instruction religieuse qui précède la confirmation, sans prouver qu'il sait lire, écrire et calculer. De plus il fut enjoint à chaque individu, sans distinction de rang ni de fortune, de déclarer à la direction, quels sont les moyens d'instruction publique ou particulière qu'il emploie pour ses enfans. Cette direction doit se faire donner cette déclaration deux fois par an par chaque propriétaire de maison, pour tous les enfans au dessus de 6 ans qui y demeurent. Ces mesures ont nécessité l'établissement d'un plus grand nombre d'écoles. Quelques unes ne s'ouvrent que le soir, afin que les familles à l'entretien desquelles les enfans contribuent par leur travail, puissent conserver cette ressource. Les écoles de charité les plus marquantes sont au nombre de 9, et comme j'ai déjà dit, sous l'inspection de la direction générale des pauvres. Mais les autres appartiennent à chaque église, et ont été fondées par des particuliers ou des sociétés, et sont dirigées par une commission composée de pasteurs et de laïques. Elles sont toutes établies sur le même pied, ainsi leurs différents résultats ne peuvent tenir qu'à l'influence des maîtres ou maîtresses qui les dirigent. Toutes sont à la fois des écoles d'instruction élémentaire et de travail. On y enseigne la lecture, l'écriture, le calcul, l'histoire sainte et le chant sacré. On y joint pour ceux qui se distinguent par leur intelligence, la connoissance de l'histoire et de la géographie de leur pays. On s'applique en général à leur enseigner à écrire correctement leur langue, et même à former leur style. Trois heures par jour sont employées à l'étude, le reste du tems est consacré au travail, afin qu'ils en prennent le goût et qu'ils se préparent à des occupations utiles. Il est plus difficile d'atteindre ce but avec les garçons, parceque leur âge ne permettant pas de les occuper du métier auquel ils doivent se vouer; on les emploie donc à tricoter et à filer de la laine ou du coton, ils sont aussi envoyés aux heures du travail chez des manufacturiers, qui leur confient des travaux appropriés à leur force.

La durée de l'école est de 7 ou 8 heures en hiver jusqu'à 11, et l'après midi depuis 1 heure jusqu'à 7. Une moitié des enfans reçoit l'instruction le matin, et l'autre l'après dinée. Ils se partagent en classes, et celles-ci en deux sections, qui ont 25 enfans chacune. Il n'y a qu'un maître pour chaque section, de sorte qu'il instruit 25 enfans le matin et 25 autres le soir.

On enseigne la gymnastique dans une des écoles de garçons, et ils se livrent 3 fois la semaine à la natation. Ils sont soumis à une surveillance exacte pour la propreté, sous l'inspection d'une femme au service de l'école.

Dans presque toutes les écoles de charité on fournit le diner aux enfans; cette faveur s'accorde particulièrement aux plus pauvres. C'est le genre de secours qu'on donne le plus volontiers, parceque ce bienfait est véritablement au profit des enfans sur la santé desquels il a une grande influence. Aussi est il rare de voir à Copenhague des enfans dont le visage annonce le besoin, la plupart ont l'extérieur d'une santé florissante. On peut évaluer le nombre de ceux qui mangent aux écoles, au tiers de la totalité des écoliers. Tout ce que les enfans gagnent par leur travail entre dans la caisse de l'école, qui leur fournit des habits pour le montant de leur gain, et souvent au delà. On fait chaque année un examen de ce, qu'ils ont appris, et on montre un échantillon de leurs ouvrages; ceux qui se sont distingués tant par leur application que par leur conduite, reçoivent des prix; il y en a 2 pour chaque classe.

Tous ces soins seroient infailliblement perdus si on abandonnait cette jeunesse à elle même après la confirmation; époque où elle quitte l'école. L'expérience a fait voir qu'il falloit étendre au delà de ce terme la surveillance. A la sortie de l'école, un des employés de cette administration a soin de placer les garçons en apprentissage, suivant le métier qu'ils choisissent. Il stipule les conditions, dont la première doit être, que le maître nourrisse et entretienne l'apprentif; on ne dispute pas sur quelques années de plus d'apprentissage, ou qu'il est toujours avantageux à l'élève de n'être pas trop tôt abandonné à lui même. Le contract se fait au nom de la direction; comme tutrice du jeune homme, elle surveille et protège ses intérêts dans le cas que le maître ne tienne pas les engagements qu'il a contractés.

La même méthode est suivie pour les filles; à leur sortie de l'école on les oblige d'entrer en service. La personne munie des pouvoirs de la direction, veille à ce qu'elles soient reçues dans des familles honnêtes. Ceux qui les prennent, doivent s'adresser, en cas de mécontentement, à la direction pour les renvoyer. Les filles ne peuvent changer de service sans la permission de ses supérieurs; surveillance d'autant plus avantageuse, qu'elle donne un appui à cette jeunesse, et un recours aux maîtres s'ils ont des plaintes à porter; cela rend les domestiques attentifs à ne pas en être l'objet, ainsi que des punitions qui sont du ressort de la direction, lorsqu'il n'est pas question de fautes graves. Depuis que cette exacte surveillance existe, les plaintes ont été rares. Les garçons ne se sont point adonnés à la fainéantise et aux vices qui en résultent, ni les filles à une mauvaise conduite, comme il arrivoit malheureusement autrefois.

Ecoles du Dimanche.

En 1800 une société de citoyens de Copenhague projetta d'établir dans cette ville des écoles pour la classe des artisans, dont l'éducation avoit été négligée. Afin qu'il n'y eut aucun obstacle à leur intention, ils choisirent le Dimanche, où les ouvriers, libres de leurs travaux,

travaux, peuvent disposer de leur tems. Ils résolurent 1^o de les instruire des lois qui concernent les gens de metier, et des devoirs que des apprentifs ont à observer envers leurs maitres; de leur enseigner à écrire, à calculer, à tenir des livres de compte, avec l'orthographe et le style épistolaire. Ces écoles se formèrent par les soins et les dons de ces citoyens: cette source de bienfaits n'ayant pas tari, ces établissemens existent encore affermis par le tems et par la persuasion de leur utilité.

Ces écoles furent divisées de la manière suivante; les 1^{res} pour les maitres de metiers, les 2^{des} pour les garçons ouvriers et les 3^e pour les apprentis, d'autres pour ceux qui n'appartiennent point à la classe des metiers.

Les maitres et les ouvriers qui desirent être instruits dans leurs écoles respectives payent tous les semestres une somme fort modique pour y être admis; les apprentifs ont non seulement l'instruction gratuite, mais encore les livres, le papier, et tous les objets qui leur sont nécessaires. Le nombre des écoles s'est augmenté par la foule des aspirans de manière qu'il y en a une dans chaque quartier de la ville, et les dons s'étant multipliés, la société a pu former 2 nouvelles écoles, où l'on enseigne dans l'une le dessein et l'architecture, et dans l'autre la géographie et l'histoire du pays. Ceux qui se distinguent dans les autres études, peuvent y être admis. Un grand mobile d'émulation pour les apprentifs écoliers n'est point négligé; c'est celui des examens publiques, où les prix, médailles de différentes grandeurs se distribuent en présence de la cour dans l'église de Frédéric. L'administration de toutes les écoles du Dimanche appartient à la société fondatrice; chaque membre a ses fonctions. A leur tête est un directeur général, qui doit être un ecclésiastique.

Chaque école d'apprentifs a 4 inspecteurs assistés de 12 intendants; les premiers ont la direction de l'école, et les derniers celle des classes. Les écoles de maitres ouvriers n'ont que 3 inspecteurs. C'est dans la réunion de l'assemblée générale des membres de la société que l'on choisit le directeur, les inspecteurs, les intendants, le secrétaire de la société et le teneur de livre. C'est là qu'elle admet de nouveaux membres, qu'ils déterminent le nombre des prix, la paye des maitres, recueillent les contributions volontaires, et publient la marche de leurs opérations, les comptes rendus appellent sur ces écoles l'intérêt du public, par la connoissance qu'on lui en donne.

Le nombre des maitres se règle sur celui des écoliers, de manière que chacun n'en ait pas plus de 10 à enseigner à la fois. Les maitres sont obligés de tenir un journal des progrès ou de la négligence des écoliers apprentifs; mais ils ne peuvent leur infliger aucune punition. Cependant si quelqu'un d'entr'eux fait preuve de paresse ou de mauvaises mœurs, on en avertit le maitre ouvrier chez lequel il est placé, et s'il y a récidive pour la troisième fois, il est chassé de l'école.

Les revenus des écoles du Dimanche ont d'abord consisté dans les dons gratuits de ceux qui favorisoient ces établissemens. Ces dons surpassèrent les besoins; alors on forma un fonds qui assure la durée de ces institutions. On peut y ajouter le revenu des modiques rétributions que payent les maitres et les garçons ouvriers.

Le tems de l'école est dans l'après midi de 4 à 7 heure, comme le service divin se célèbre à 2, ainsi que le matin les écoliers peuvent remplir leurs devoirs de piété.

Le zèle de cette société s'étendit jusque sur cette classe avilie par le crime, qui habitent les maisons de correction, dans l'espoir de sauver quelques uns de ces malheureux, qu'une première faute a placé dans ce séjour; on decida en 1804 que les détenus auroient des leçons d'arithmétique, d'écriture, et celles d'une morale adaptée à leurs idées et à leur situation. La société ne borna pas là ses soins, elle employa une donation de 4,000 roubles à fournir un fonds, dont les revenus seroient employés aux premiers besoins des prisonniers, lorsque le tems de leur réclusion seroit échu, qu'ils pussent chercher des moyens honnêtes d'existence, et que la misère ne les jettera pas de nouveau dans le crime.

Maison d'Education pour les Métiers.

Cet établissement fut fondé en 1753, par le roi Frédéric 5, et destiné à former des apprentifs pour les manufactures, les métiers et les autres professions. Cette maison a de tous tems été renommée par le soin qu'elle donne à l'éducation de ses élèves, et par les ouvriers, vraiment distingués, qu'elle a formé. Ses revenus lui permettoient d'entretenir et d'élever jusqu'à 200 enfans; mais après la guerre si désastreuse pour le Dannemarc, cet établissement, qui avoit essuyé des pertes immenses, fut obligé de se réduire à plus de la moitié de ses élèves. Ceux qui s'y trouvent maintenant n'ont rien perdu par ce changement; au contraire, leur nombre étant plus petit, la surveillance n'en est que plus exacte.

Les enfans sont entièrement entretenus par l'établissement; ils couchent dans des chambres bien acrées à une assez grande distance les uns des autres. Ils ont journellement 3 heures destinées aux études, 3 au travail, et 2 au chant et au dessin, ou à la gymnastique. La maison accorde un logement à un mécanicien et à un maitre tourneur, qui a en même tems une manufacture de boîtes, dont il fournit toutes les apothicaireries du pays. Ces maitres doivent en revanche enseigner leur art aux enfans; ce n'est que le Dimanche qu'on permet à ces derniers de sortir; les autres jours il leur faut une permission particulier. Lorsqu'ils sortent de l'établissement pour être confirmés, on les habille à neuf, et on les met aussitôt en apprentissage. Ils restent soumis à l'inspection de la maison jusqu'à leur 24^{me} année accomplie.

Les revenus de la maison consistent, outre les intérêts de 200,000 roubles, en une part considérable sur la lotterie royale, en une collecte qui se fait le premier jour de l'an dans tout le pays. L'établissement avoit jadis une chapelle et un pasteur à ses fraix; mais ces dépenses dépassant les moyens actuels, les enfans sont menés à l'église de l'hôpital général, dont le prêtre leur enseigne la religion.

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Maisons de Travail.

Ces établissemens ne datent que d'une trentaine d'années, ils ne sont dus qu'à l'exemple que Hambourg donna. Il y en a actuellement 6 à Copenhague, elles portent le nom des districts auxquels elles appartiennent. Le but de ces maisons est de donner de l'ouvrage à ceux qui ne peuvent s'en procurer, ou qui manquent de local commode, ou encore, qui n'ont pas les moyens de se chauffer en hiver. Il est facile de concevoir qu'il n'y a que les plus pauvres individus qui profitent de ces institutions, qui ne laissent pas d'apporter quelque gêne, puisque les personnes qui y travaillent sont inspectées de près, afin qu'il ne se passe aucun désordre.

Plusieurs de ces maisons reçoivent des femmes âgées, qui ont journellement une portion de soupe et une livre de pain. On exige qu'elles apportent tout leur avoir dans la maison; l'établissement en hérite comme à Wartou. Elles ne doivent pas non plus travailler en ville, mais elles le font dans la maison, entièrement pour leur propre compte. Leur nombre se monte jusqu'à 80 dans quelques maisons.

La direction permet aux femmes qui viennent s'y occuper dans la journée d'amener ceux de leurs enfans trop jeunes pour aller à l'école.

Le travail qui se fait dans ces maisons consiste principalement dans la filature du lin, du chanvre, du coton, et de la laine. On préfère, cependant, se procurer de l'ouvrage de la part des fabricants ou des particuliers. On tâche aussi de stipuler le plus haut salaire possible; et l'on paye aux ouvriers ce que la maison reçoit, sauf une très petite retenue pour le chauffage, la lumière, et l'usage des outils. Quelques fois-même celui qui donne l'ouvrage paye cette bonification extraordinaire.

Un inspecteur est préposé à chacun de ces établissemens. Il y loge, et doit entretenir l'ordre, surveiller l'ouvrage, être responsable des outils, et tenir les comptes de la maison. Dans chaque salle de travail une des femmes qui habitent l'établissement a l'inspection sur les ouvrières.

La plupart de ces maisons ont été fondées par la libéralité des habitans des divers districts, quelques personnes leur ont fait des legs très considérables. La direction générale des pauvres supplée du reste aux dépenses, lorsqu'elles s'élèvent trop haut.

AUTRES ÉTABLISSEMENS DE BIENFAISANCE :

Institut des Aveugles.

Cet établissement doit sa fondation à une société de particuliers, dont le sort des aveugles fixa l'attention. Elle résolut d'établir un institut, projet que le Roi approuva. Cette fondation fut effectuée en 1811, et reçut le nom d'Institut Royal.

On commença par le nombre de 12 aveugles, choisis parmi les indigens qui étoient entretenus par des aumônes publiques. Le but fut d'en faire des citoyens utiles, de leur enseigner des arts et des métiers, de cultiver l'esprit de ceux qui annonçoient du génie ou des talens supérieurs. Ils furent donc recueillis dans un local, choisi par la société, et entretenus à ses fraix. Le Roi, voulant contribuer au succès de cet établissement, lui assigna un plus vaste local, où la société put admettre 12 autres de ces malheureux, qui reçurent l'instruction gratis, mais durent s'entretenir eux mêmes, les fonds de la société n'y suffisant pas. Le plus remarquable dans cet institut c'est que des maîtres distingués des professeurs y donnent toutes leurs leçons gratuites. La méthode de Mr. Haüy n'est pas entièrement suivie dans la manière d'enseigner; l'instruction verbale y domine.

Quant aux ouvrages de mains, une femme aux gages de l'institut leur enseigne à tricoter, filer, etc. Un maître vannier leur enseigne aussi son métier gratis. La vente des paniers et celle des petits ouvrages en carton, fabriqués par les aveugles, forment un petit revenu, qui est distribué entr'eux.

Institut des Sourds et Muets à Copenhague.

Dans l'année 1809 le roi ordonna la fondation d'un institut pour les sourds et muets sur les plans déjà connus; différens métiers et ouvrages y furent enseignés; cet établissement prospéroit les premières années, et il en est sorti des citoyens utiles. Son directeur, le Professeur Castberg, homme à talent, vient de terminer volontairement sa vie, de là la négligence introduite dans cet institut, qui dans ce moment ne satisfait ni la curiosité ni l'humanité; les enfans y sont mal tenus, et toute la maison annonce le plus grand désordre. Il est probable qu'un nouveau chef suivra mieux les intentions bienfaisantes du roi, en observant les sages réglemens faits pour cette maison. Il existe encore un institut pour les sourds et muets à Schlesvig, sous la direction du Professeur Pfingsten; le nombre de ses élèves est trop peu considérable pour que cet établissement puisse être d'une importance majeure pour le pays; il est cependant en meilleur état que celui de Copenhague.

SOCIÉTÉS DE BIENFAISANCE :

1. *Société d'Assistance Réunie.*

La société d'assistance réunie est un établissement aussi important qu'étendu. Elle fut fondée en 1788; son but est de faire des avances à des hommes industriels et appliqués, qui, par le manque d'argent ou de matériaux, ne peuvent continuer à gagner leur vie avec l'art ou le métier qu'ils professent, et qui seroient en danger d'être entièrement ruinés si on ne venoit à leur secours. On n'en refuse pas même à des employés qui reçoivent quelque paye du gouvernement, mais cependant on donne assez ordinairement la préférence à des artistes, fabricans, ouvriers qui n'ont d'autres moyens d'existence que le produit de leur travail.

travail. On vient surtout au secours de ceux que l'âge ou les infirmités ont affaiblis, et qui ont des enfans en bas âge. On accorde enfin de l'assistance aux veuves des pensionnaires de la société, mais elles doivent être dans la misère et faire preuve de bonne conduite.

Il a été stipulé que les avances depuis 10 jusqu'à 100 roubles se feroient sans exiger d'intérêt ou de caution; mais pour recevoir un prêt de 100 jusqu'à 400 roubles, il faut payer des intérêts légaux et fournir caution. Les pensions que la société fait ne doivent pas dépasser 100 roubles par an. Les membres de cette société si respectables sont dispersés dans tout le pays, et leur nombre est si grand, qu'ils choisissent 96 d'entr'eux pour les représenter; leurs opérations sont cencées faites par toute la société. Elle est divisée pour cet effet en différentes classes, qui choisissent d'après les réglemens, 8 représentans pour la noblesse, 8 pour les employés du gouvernement, 8 pour la marine, 8 pour le militaire, 8 pour le clergé, 8 pour les gens de lettres, 8 pour les artistes, 16 pour les négocians, marchands, fabriquans, 16 pour les maitres en metier, et 8 pour la nation Juive. L'exécution des arrêtés de la société est confiée à un comité de 3 membres. Il faut remarquer qu'il existe en Dannemarc une grande tolérance pour la nation Juive; elle jouit des mêmes privilèges que les autres citoyens, elle professe publiquement son culte, et plusieurs voies lui sont ouvertes pour parvenir à des emplois honorables. Il est facile de concevoir l'avantage qui resulte de cette conduite. Les Juifs n'ont point en Dannemarc les vices et défauts qui les caractérisent ordinairement, et qui portent les autres nations à les tenir toujours éloignés. On évite même de leur donner le nom de Juifs, et dans les actes publics on les appelle Les confesseurs de la loi Mosaique. Il n'y a, il est vrai, que les Juifs domiciliés en Dannemarc et qui ont reçu le droit de bourgeoisie, qui jouissent de ces privilèges; ceux des autres pays et qui viennent en Dannemarc, ne peuvent y demeurer plus de quinze jours, excepté qu'ils ne veulent y acheter le droit de bourgeoisie et s'y établir; permission qui ne s'accorde pas facilement.

Le nombre des membres de la société se monte à plus de 1,400, et celui des pensionnaires à guère plus de 150. Il y a des membres surnumméraires qui payent annuellement une rédevance plus considerable que les membres ordinaires. Les revenus de la société consistent dans les intérêts d'un capital de 400,000 roubles.

2. Société nommée *Die Schwesterliche wohlthätige Gesellschaft*.

La société de bienfaisance nommée *Die Schwesterliche wohlthätige Gesellschaft*, a été fondée le jour des noces du roi actuel, le 31 Juin 1790; elle est composée d'un très grand nombre de demoiselles, qui contribuent annuellement à l'entretien d'une maison d'éducation à l'usage des pauvres filles de bourgeois. Les membres de la société se sont partagés en classes; chaque classe renferme 30 personnes, sous la protection desquelles il n'y a qu'un seul enfant de placé, son éducation achevée, et après sa confirmation, les 30 protectrices cherchent des moyens d'existence à cette jeune fille, soit en la plaçant chez leurs parens ou chez leurs connoissances. Cette réunion de soins en assure de constans à l'élève, si bien que pendant tout le cours de sa vie elle peut trouver des ressources contre le malheur. Si durant son éducation l'enfant vient à mourir, les 30 bienfaitrices proposent chacune une remplaçante, et le sort decide en suite quel sera l'enfant qui obtiendra la place. Les revenus du cet établissement consistent dans la contribution annuelle des membres, et dans une donation qu'elles font le jour de leur mariage; enfin des secours accordés par la famille royale et par plusieurs particuliers, ce qui suffit pour payer les frais de l'établissement, et de l'entretien des enfans, dont le nombre n'a jamais dépassé celui de trente.

3. Société pour soutenir des Jeunes Filles Pauvres.

En 1793 il se forma une société à Copenhague pour soutenir quelques filles pauvres, qui nées dans un état d'aisance, se trouvent reduites au besoin par quelque malheur. La société ne put donner la première année que 100 roubles par an à ses protégées, en leur facilitant les moyens de subvenir à leur existence; mais la société étant devenue plus riche, elle a augmenté cette somme, et en cas de maladie elle se charge même entièrement de ses pensionnaires, jusqu'à leur parfaite guérison. Les parentes des membres de la société sont reçues de droit, pourvu qu'elles aient les conditions requises. Des particuliers bienfaisants se sont empressés d'encourager cette société par des dons et des legs considerables.

4. La Société Bienfaisante des Dames à Copenhague.

Une société de dames se forma en 1816, sous la direction de la reine, pour différens projets de bienfaisance. La société nomma 12 inspecteurs et un secrétaire. Les premiers travaux furent l'établissement d'une école pour former des servants et pour étendre l'industrie domestique. La société résolut en suite de faire chaque année, au jour de naissance de la reine, des distributions de prix pour les servantes de Copenhague, qui avoient servi pendant plusieurs années dans la même maison avec fidélité, zèle et intelligence. Les prix sont des sommes d'argent, dont la valeur augmente par le nombre d'années que les servantes ont servi. Celles qui ont passé 35 à 40 ans dans une maison reçoivent un prix de 100 roubles, et une pension égale à cette somme. Les fonds de la société ayant augmentés au point qu'il reste chaque année une somme considerable, la société prête cet argent à des artisans dans l'indigence, ou qui ont besoin d'avance pour s'établir. Les débiteurs doivent donner des cautions et payer des intérêts modérés, jusqu'à ce qu'ils puissent acquitter leur dette. Cette société a encore donné des sommes considerables à l'institut des aveugles et à la maison d'accouchement.

5. La société de bienfaisance à Kiel, nommée *Gesellschaft freiwilliger Armenfreunde*, se distingue par l'union de ses membres, et par le mérite de ses directeurs, qui ont su

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acquérir à leur société une confiance et une considération générale, par la publicité qu'ils donnent à toutes leurs démarches, et par l'activité avec laquelle ils viennent au secours de l'indigent.

DONATIONS.

La principale institution de ce genre est celle de la Princesse Charlotte Amilie, fille de Frédéric 4, qui assigna par son testament des fonds sur lesquels on devoit donner des pensions aux filles pauvres de toutes les classes.

La Princesse divisa ces pensions en 5 classes: dans la 1^{re} sont admises les filles nobles du Dannemarc, et celles des familles nobles étrangères dont les parens ont été ou sont encore au service de ce pays. Chaque pensionnaire reçoit annuellement, depuis l'âge

De 5 jusqu'à 10 ans, 100 roubles.
 De 10 jusqu'à 15 ans, 200 —
 De 15 jusqu'à 20 ans, 300 —
 Et depuis l'âge de 20, 400 —

La pensionnaire conserve la jouissance de cette somme pendant sa vie, à moins qu'elle ne se marie, ou qu'elle ne soit pourvu d'une place à la cour, ou dans un convent, ou enfin qu'elle ne fasse un héritage dont les revenus dépassent sa pension.

2. Dans la 2^d classe sont comprises les filles des employés civils, militaires ou ecclésiastiques; elles reçoivent une pension, depuis l'âge

De 5 ans jusqu'à 10, de 50 roubles.
 De 10 — — — 15 — 100 —
 De 15 — — — 20 — 150 —
 Et depuis cet âge — 200 —

Qu'elles conservent avec les mêmes clauses que dans la première classe.

3. La 3^{me} classe comprend les filles de bourgeois Danois ou de familles établies dans le pays; leurs revenus sont, depuis l'âge de 5 ans jusqu'à 10, de 50 roubles.

de 10 — — — 20 — 100 —

Après ce terme elle ne jouit plus de sa pension jusqu'à l'âge de 40, ou si elle n'est pas mariée et qu'elle soit dans l'indigence, elle reçoit 100 roubles par an.

4. On reçoit dans la 4^{me} classe les filles les plus pauvres. On les place dans des maisons d'éducation, où l'on paye 50 roubles par an depuis l'âge de 5 jusqu'à 18.

5. Cette classe comprend les filles du rang le plus inférieur, à qui l'on donne 25 roubles par an depuis l'âge de 5 jusqu'à 18 ans, afin de leur faciliter les moyens de fréquenter les écoles.

Un capital de plus de 300,000 roubles, formé par des legs de particuliers, est destiné en Sélande à doter un certain nombre de filles pauvres, dont la conduite a mérité ce bienfait.

Les Duchés ont aussi des capitaux destinés à cet usage, surtout pour la dotation des jeunes paysannes.

COUVENTS DE DAMES ET DE DEMOISELLES.

Le Dannemarc contient un grand nombre d'institutions sous le nom de Couvents. Il y en a pour les veuves et les demoiselles nobles, et bourgeoises; leurs statuts sont différens les uns des autres. Pour être inscrite en qualité d'aspirante dans les couvents nobles, il faut payer une somme, mais les veuves et les bourgeoises ne sont pas appelées à rien payer. Ces retraites ont été fondées par des membres de la famille royal, et par un grand nombre de particuliers. Quelques couvents nobles donnent aux dames qui en sont membres le droit de porter une décoration à l'épaule gauche, et à leur supérieure un grand cordon avec une étoile, et dans un autre toutes les dames ont le cordon et l'étoile; les supérieurs ont des prérogatives à la cour.

Quelques uns de ces couvents donnent la table, le logement et des revenus; plusieurs n'accordent que ces derniers, avec le logement.

Lorsqu'une demoiselle, membre d'un couvent noble, se marie, elle perd sa décoration et son revenu, qui passe à la plus ancienne aspirante. Les parens font inscrire leurs filles de bonne heure sur la liste des prétendantes.

A Copenhague les couvents de Harboe et de Petersen sont destinés à recevoir 12 veuves et 20 filles de pasteurs; les dernières doivent avoir 30 ans pour y être reçues; l'établissement les loge, et accorde à chacune d'elles ainsi qu'aux veuves près de 400 roubles par an; leur supérieure en a 550.

En Sélande il y a 4 couvents de demoiselles nobles; ceux de Walløe, de Wemmeltofte, de Gissenfeldt et de Roskilde. Le nombre des couventuelles ne dépasse pas celui de 20 dans chaque établissement. Ils ont tous une supérieure; ses revenus sont plus considérables que ceux des demoiselles; la somme de la pension varie suivant les divers couvents.

La supérieure de Gissenfeldt doit toujours être une demoiselle de la famille des comtes Danneskjold, dont un des ancêtres a fondé le couvent. Ceux de Walløe et de Roskilde sont les seuls en Sélande, où l'étendue des bâtimens permette de loger toutes les pensionnaires; elles ne sont point obligées d'y résider, et peuvent avec leur pension rester au sein de

de leur famille; elles ont la même permission dans les autres couvents. Pour entrer à Wemmeltofte et à Gissenfeldt on paye 1,000 roubles.

Odense, capitale de la Fionie, a un couvent de demoiselles nobles sur le même pied que celui de Gissenfeldt en Sélande.

La Jutlande possède aussi plusieurs couvents, entr'autres ceux de Störinggaard, pour 12 demoiselles nobles avec leur supérieure, et d'Estvadgaard pour 12 veuves nobles. Ces deux établissemens assignent un revenu annuel à leurs couventuelles, et les defrayent de tout, lorsqu'elles y résident. Le couvent de Bienzen est destiné à des veuves de bourgeois.

Près de Schlesvig est un couvent nommé St. Jean. Les couventuelles n'y sont qu'au nombre de 10; ce couvent a été bâti, comme on le suppose, l'an 1194, et appartenait à des Bénédictins. Les documens les plus anciens qui concernent ce couvent remontent jusqu'à l'an 1250. Il a le droit de se choisir un directeur dans la noblesse de Schlesvig, et a la juridiction civile et criminelle sur les paysans de son territoire, ainsi que la patronat d'une église. Ses revenus sont fort considérables.

Le duché de Holstein a 3 couvents nobles; celui de Preetz, le plus riche de tous en terre; il y a 32 couventuelles et 40 demoiselles expectantes; il y a un prieur et une prieure; celui d'Izehoe a 19 demoiselles et autant d'expectantes; d'Uetersin, le moins bien doté, n'a que 14 demoiselles.

Je m'arrêterai ici, craignant d'avoir déjà dépassé les bornes que je m'étais prescrites. Je n'ai point parlé des autres écoles, tant publiques que particulières, dans le pays des Lombards, et de quelques institutions dont le but est sans doute bienfaisant, mais ne se rattache pas au sujet que je viens de traiter, où il n'est surtout question que des secours pour la classe pauvre de la nation. Il ne me reste plus qu'à appeler l'indulgence du lecteur sur cet écrit; s'il n'y trouve pas l'intérêt qu'il peut attendre de la nature de l'ouvrage, qu'il veuille au moins le juger avec moins de sévérité en croyant à l'assurance que je puis lui donner, que j'ai puisé ces observations dans les sources les moins douteuses, et que j'ai évité avec scrupule tout ce qui ne serait pas de la plus exacte vérité.

Fait à Copenhague en 1823.

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LETTER from *J. D. Bligh, Esq.*, to Lord *Viscount Palmerston*.

My Lord,

St. Petersburg, 8th October 1833.

SINCE I had the honour of receiving Mr. Backhouse's circular, dated 12th August, directing me, by your Lordship's order, to procure and transmit to the Foreign Office, information respecting the legal provision in this country for the maintenance of the poor, and of the working and effect of the laws which have that object in view, I have not omitted to use my utmost endeavours to collect the required information, which I shall endeavour to condense in an intelligible shape in the present despatch.

I must, however, premise, that in a territory of such vast extent as the Russian Empire, of which the capital is situated at one of the extremities, and governed as it is, as to the point under consideration, by the regulations which obtained in the various countries composing it prior to their union under one sceptre, it will be almost impossible for me to give satisfactory answers to that portion of your Lordship's inquiry, touching the amount of the funds set apart for charitable purposes; of the regulations for the maintenance of the poor in those parts of the empire where any are supposed to be in operation; and of their effect upon the comfort, character and condition of the inhabitants.

In order to place before you in as clear a manner as I am able, the result of my inquiries upon this subject, I shall detail in order the substance of the laws which provide, in the different divisions of the Russian empire, for the maintenance of the poor, as well as of the usages which in some instances compensate for the absence of positive legal enactments.

As far as regards those parts of the empire which may most properly be called Russia, it will not be necessary for me to detain your Lordship long, since in them (where in fact by far the greatest portion of the population is to be found), the peasantry, being in a state of slavery, the lords of the soil are induced more by their own interest, than compelled by law, to take care that its cultivators, upon whom their means of deriving advantage from their estates depend, are not entirely without the means of subsistence.

Consequently in cases of scarcity, the landed proprietors frequently feel themselves under the necessity (in order to prevent their estates from being depopulated), of expending large sums, for the purpose of supplying their serfs with provisions from more favoured districts. There is no doubt, however, (of which they must be well aware) that in case of their forgetting so far the dictates of humanity and of self-interest, as to refuse this assistance to the suffering peasantry, the strong hand of a despotic government would compel them to afford it.

The only cases, therefore, of real misery, which are likely to arise, are, when soldiers, who having outlived their 25 years service, and all the hardships of a Russian military life, fail in getting employment from the government as watchmen in the towns, or in other subordinate situations, and returning to their villages, find themselves unsuited by long disuse to agricultural pursuits, disowned by the landed proprietors, from whom their military service has emancipated them, and by their relations and former acquaintances, who have forgotten them.

I am led to understand, that in all well-regulated properties, in order to provide for the contingencies of bad seasons, the peasants are obliged to bring, to a magazine established by the proprietor, a certain portion of their crops, to which they may have recourse in case of need.

In the estates belonging to the government, which are already enormous, and which are every day increasing, in consequence of the constant foreclosing of the mortgages by which so many of the nobility held their estates under the crown, more special enactments are in vigour; inasmuch as in them, all serfs incapable of work are supported by their relations, and those whose relations are too poor to afford them assistance, are taken into what may be termed poor-houses, which are huts, one for males, the other for females, built in the neighbourhood of the church, at the expense of the section or parish, which is also bound to furnish the inmates with fuel, food and clothing.

The parish must, moreover, establish hospitals for the sick, for the support of which, besides boxes for receiving alms, at the church and in the hospitals themselves, all fines levied in the parish are to be applied.

The clergy are compelled to provide for the poor of their class, according to an ordinance, regulating the revenues set apart for this object, and enacting rules for the distribution of private bequests and charities.

In *Courland*, *Esthonia* and *Livonia*, the parish (or community) are bound to provide for the destitute to the utmost of their means, which means are to be derived from the common funds;

funds; from bequests, or from any charitable or poor fund which may exist; and in Esthonia, from the reserve magazines of corn, which, more regularly than in Russia, are kept full by contributions from every peasant.

When those are inadequate, a levy is made on the community, which is fixed by the elders and confirmed by the district authorities; and when this rate is levied, the landowners or farmers contribute in proportion to the cultivation and works they carry on, or to the amount of rent they pay; and the labourers according to the wages they receive.

The overseers consist of the elder of the village, (who is annually elected by the peasantry) and two assistants, one of whom is chosen from the class of landholders or farmers, and the other from the labourers, and who are confirmed by the district police. One of these assistants has to give quarterly detailed accounts to the district authorities, and the elder, on quitting office, renders a full account to the community.

Those who will not work voluntarily, may be delivered over to any individual, and compelled to work for their own support, at the discretion of the elder and his assistants.

Those poor who are found absent from home, are placed in the hands of the police, and transferred to their own parishes.

All public begging is forbid by very strict regulations.

In the external districts of the *Siberian Kirghese*, which are for the most part peopled by wandering tribes, the authorities are bound to prevent, by every means in their power, any individual of the people committed to their charge from suffering want, or remaining without superintendence or assistance, in case of their being in distress.

For this purpose, they are above all things enjoined to discountenance idleness, and are expected to employ all beggars or trampers in the public establishments, such as hospitals, schools, &c., or to hand them over as labourers to the stationary Kirghese.

The sick, aged and insane are taken charge of by the authorities, and placed under the care of the community; for which purpose, from five to ten waggons belonging to the Government must be in constant readiness in each district, in order to convey medical assistance where required. Certain sums are appropriated for the care of the poor, for the care of the sick, and for the instruction of the ignorant, and in every district, according to the existing regulations, a hospital ought to be built for the reception of from 150 to 200 sick, for which buildings, plans and estimates, together with the account of the means existing on the spot for establishing them, must be submitted to the Government for approval and confirmation; and until these buildings are ready, the hospitals are established in separate waggons.

All the charitable offerings of the Kirghese are received by the district authorities, and as they consist for the most part of cattle, they are employed, as far as necessary, for the service of the charitable institutions; the surplus is sold, and the proceeds, together with any donations in money, go towards the support of those establishments; when voluntary contributions are not sufficient for that purpose, the district authorities give in an estimate of the quantity of cattle of all sorts required to make up the deficiency, and according to their estimate, when confirmed by the general Government, the number of cattle required in each place is sent from the general annual levy made for the service of the Government.

In the *Polish Provinces* incorporated with the empire, as the state of the population is similar to that of Russia Proper, the proprietors in like manner, in cases of need, supply their peasantry with the means of existence; under ordinary circumstances, however, the portions of land allotted to them for cultivation, which afford them not only subsistence, but the means of paying a fixed annual sum to their lords, and the permission which is granted to them of cutting wood in the forests for building and fuel, obviate the necessity of their receiving this aid.

The same system existed in the *Duchy of Warsaw* prior to 1806, and every beggar and vagabond was then sent to the place of his birth, where, as there was not a sufficiency of hands for the cultivation of the soil, he was sure to find employment, or to be taken care of by his master, whilst there were enough public establishments for charity to support the poor in the towns belonging to the Government, and those, who by age, sickness, or natural deformities, were unable to work.

But when the establishment of a regular code proclaimed all the inhabitants of that part of *Poland* equal in the eye of the law, the relations of the proprietor and the peasant were entirely changed; and the former having no power of detaining the latter upon his lands, except for debt legally recognised, was no longer obliged to support them.

So great and sudden a change in the social state of the country soon caused great embarrassment to the Government, who being apprehensive of again altering a system which involved the interests of the landed proprietors, the only influential class in the country, for a long time eluded the consideration of the question, by augmenting the charitable institutions; but at length the progressive expense of this system compelled the Minister of Finance to refuse all further aid to uphold it, and by an arbitrary enactment, recourse was had to the former plan of passing the poor to the places of their birth. As this arrangement is only considered as provisional, and as the population has not hitherto

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more than sufficed for the purpose of agriculture, and the manufactories which were established prior to the late insurrection, it has not been much complained of, though the necessity for some more precise and positive regulations respecting the poor is generally acknowledged.

In *Finland*, there are no laws in force for the support of the indigent, nor any charitable establishments, except in some of the towns. In the country districts it is expected that reserve magazines of corn should be kept in every parish, but I cannot ascertain that the adoption of this precautionary measure is imperative upon the landed proprietors and peasantry.

The Government receives the capitation-tax there in kind; the proceeds of which are placed in magazines for the use of the military quartered in the country; and in case of scarcity, they give back a portion of it to the grower of the corn, on condition of receiving in a more favourable season the same quantity with a small addition as interest.

I fear, that in the foregoing details, I shall have given little or no information, relative to the means of supporting the poor, which can be found practically applicable to any state of society where the population is more dense and in a more advanced state of civilization, than that which is to be found under the Russian sway, but I have endeavoured to comply with your Lordship's wishes, by laying before you all that I have been able to collect on the subject.

I have, &c.
(signed) J. D. Bligh.

ANSWERS to the Queries circulated by the Poor Law Commissioners amongst His Britannic Majesty's Consuls.

VAGRANTS.

1. To what extent and under what form does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?—The frugality of the Russian peasants and their manner of living, the few wants they have, and their peculiar situation in regard to the proprietors of the soil, precludes the possibility of begging being so general in Russia as is the case in many countries of Europe. He considers himself well fed, if he has his rye-bread, buck-wheat, and sour cabbage soup well seasoned with salt, and with a lump of fat or hog's lard boiled in it by way of relish. The simplicity of his food and clothing enables him to produce every article of one as well as of the other at home, with very few exceptions. A Russian peasant's family endeavour to keep together as long as they conveniently can, as the more hands they have in the household the richer they are likely to become. It is not uncommon (especially among the crown peasants) to see four or five married sons keeping house together; but the nobility, finding it their interest to have as many families as possible paying for their vassalage, separate a married peasant from his parents as soon as it can be conveniently done. An able-bodied man, as a beggar, is seldom seen; in the first place, because those belonging to the estates of the nobility are well looked after and kept to their work, and among the crown peasants, if one is discovered begging, or does not attend to his household as he ought, he is given as a recruit upon the first opportunity. This is the case respecting the inhabitants of the country and small towns, but in the two capitals beggars are occasionally seen. In the country, indeed, as long as a peasant has health and strength to cultivate the ground allotted to him, he never becomes a beggar; but occasionally, though very rarely, an aged person or a cripple is forced by his master to beg, in which case he receives from his master a passport for a year, and goes where he pleases in search of his livelihood. If, however, a person of this description is discovered begging, it is the express duty of the country police to send him back to his master, who is forced to provide for him. No peasant can leave his village without a passport, and no proprietor will give one (except perhaps in the above case) unless he hears that the man he gives it to is not only capable of supporting himself during the time it is valid, but also that he can bring back a certain sum of money (termed *obrok*) which is the annual payment of the peasant to his master, when not employed in his immediate service or in the cultivation of his estate. No proprietor likes to give a passport to a man upon whom he cannot depend for the regular payment of the *obrok*, because by making him work at home he runs no risk of losing it. This keeps the idly-disposed at home, and prevents them from strolling about in search of subsistence and becoming public nuisances. Another reason why it is the interest of proprietors to keep such subjects at home is, that he is answerable to the Government for the capitation and other taxes levied on the peasantry. Another preventive against begging in Russia, is the facility with which a proprietor can get rid of his good-for-nothing and troublesome peasants, as it depends entirely upon his will and pleasure to give any one of his peasants as a recruit, the moral qualities of recruits not being inquired into, if their physical correspond with the official instructions upon that head, and should such a subject be unfit for the military service, he will be received, without any inquiry, on the simple declaration of his master, as a colonist for Siberia, his travelling expenses, which are very trifling, being defrayed by the proprietor.

2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country, seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded and under what regulations?—Notwithstanding the above cited preventives to begging, it is encouraged by the

the extreme hospitality of the peasants themselves, who consider it a religious duty never to allow any one to call in vain upon their charity when asked in *Christ's name*, and assistance is never so required without a piece of bread being instantly given. It is the duty of the peasants as well as of the police to take up all vagrants, and the chiefs of the different villages (called *golova* the head, or *starosta* the elder) are answerable to the police that they do not sojourn in their villages, and moreover, must instantly arrest them and deliver them to the next police station or prison, whence they are called up for examination, are required to declare their names, their birth-place, and to what class they belong. As soon as the vagrant declares this, he is immediately sent back, under escort, from one station to another, to the estate, town, village, or corporation to which he belongs. Should he, however, at his examination, not choose to declare his name, or give any account of himself (which very often happens), it then becomes the duty of the government office to publish a complete description of the individual three times in the St. Petersburg and Moscow papers, calling on any one who may have a claim to him, or be able to give any information regarding him, to communicate with the authorities within a given time, after which any claim ceases to be valid, and the vagrant, if fit for it, is enlisted as a soldier, or is sent off to Siberia, where the Government provide him with a house, land, and every thing necessary for husbandry, and where he is likely to do well. No provision is made by the Government to relieve those who are passing through the country on their return to their homes, except in the hospitals in the provincial towns, and it is seldom that the labourers who visit the two capitals during the summer months, in immense numbers, want assistance, except in case of sickness; the greatest part of them travel on foot during April and October, in a company termed an *artell*, of which they chose the elder *starosta*, and entrust to him the management of their travelling expenses. Other workmen contract to work for a certain time at a certain price, in which case they generally travel at the contractor's expense. Other labourers, principally from Lithuania and White Russia, are let out 400 or 500 at a time by their proprietors, to work for the whole summer, at so much a head. They are engaged principally by those contractors, who sometimes let them to others at a profit. These labourers travel at the expense of their proprietor or of the contractor, according as it is stipulated in the contract. These labourers, who for the most part are employed in digging canals, making roads, are the worst off of any, as the contractors frequently engage with Government to bring a given number to feed them during the whole time the contract lasts, and consequently they are often kept on very short allowance.

The travelling labourers from Russia Proper generally make their own conditions, and receive the sum contracted for themselves, whilst the others never touch a copeck. In case of any of these workmen being taken ill on the road, his companions leave him as much as they think sufficient to bring him on to the place of his destination, and should this not be enough, he is in no danger of starvation, as every peasant will give him black bread and a night's lodging. The charitable feelings, therefore, of the peasantry and the cheapness of food, would for the present render any regulations made by Government of little use, and, did they exist, the rapacity of the petty authorities would nullify them.

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1. To what extent and under what regulations are they, or any part of their families, billeted or quartered on householders?—It is only in extraordinary cases that any, except the military, can be billeted or quartered on the peasantry or householders.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—Convicts and others travelling to Siberia, are generally lodged in prisons built for that purpose.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there district houses of industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families, and supplying them with food, clothes, &c. and in which they are set to work?—In both the capitals and in most of the seats of provincial government, there are houses of industry established by Government.

4. To what extent and under what regulations do any religious institutions give assistance to the destitute, by receiving them as inmates, or by giving them alms?—In most of the monasteries and other religious institutions there are a few mendicants who come habitually for their pittance, and who are rarely sent away without some mark of charity. Many monasteries have a stipulated sum set apart to be distributed, either weekly, monthly or yearly, amongst the poor and destitute, but the arrangements on this score are so different, varying according to the donations and bequests, that it would be impossible, without getting an insight into the regulations of every monastery, to give an exact answer to the question.

5. To what extent and under what regulations is work provided at their own dwellings for those who have trades, but do not procure work for themselves?—The destitute belonging to the middle classes have a right to apply to the corporations they belong to for assistance, which corporations have regulations pointing out the qualifications which entitle applicants to demand it.

6. To what extent and under what regulations is work provided for such persons in agriculture or on public works?—In ordinary times Government does not trouble itself about procuring work for the poor, but under circumstances such as the famine of the

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present year, numbers have been employed in public works in the southern provinces. Except when afflicted by such calamities as the above-mentioned, no one, in a country so thinly peopled as Russia, who seeks for work with a good will, need be long in finding it.

7. To what extent and under what regulations are fuel, clothing or money distributed to such persons or their families; at all times of the year, or during any particular seasons?—The only instance which has come to my knowledge of food, clothing and fuel being distributed to the poor in Russia, except by private charity, is by a society of English and Germans in St. Petersburg.

8. To what extent and under what regulations are they relieved by their children being taken into schools, and fed, clothed and educated or apprenticed?—The above-mentioned society has also established a school for poor children. Every parish in every town has a school, which is open to children of all classes. These are under the direction of the clergyman, and the children are taught reading, writing, and arithmetic, without being either clothed or fed.

9. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are the relatives of the destitute compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking charge of part of their families?—Fathers and mothers must provide for their children.

10. To what extent and under what regulations are they assisted by loans?—The Government on no occasion assists any one with loans, unless they have good security to give, therefore the destitute of course derive no advantage of this sort.

IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

1, 2, 3, 4, 5. There are no almshouses for their reception, nor any compulsory regulations for their support by their families.

SICK.

1. There are no district institutions for their reception.

2. There are no regulations for affording surgical and medical relief to the poor in their own houses.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick?—There are public hospitals in some of the principal towns.

4. To what extent and under what regulations is assistance given to lying-in women at their homes, or in public establishments?—There are some private establishments for affording aid to lying-in women in the capital, but no public.

5. I cannot ascertain that there are any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick.

CHILDREN :

Illegitimate.

1. There are no regulations in Russia Proper for the support of illegitimate children; but the landed proprietors, being interested in the increase of the population, take care of them. In Finland and in the German provinces, the fathers give annually a certain quantity of corn for their support.

2. Relatives of fathers and mothers are in no way compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?—Illegitimate children are not supported at the public expense, except in foundling hospitals.

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Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.

RUSSIA.

Orphans, Foundlings, or Deserted Children.

	Orphans.	Foundlings.	Deserted Children, whose Parents are known.
4. To what extent and under what regulations are they taken into establishments for their reception?	- - When relations decline, upon the death of parents, to take charge of children, they are taken under the protection of the orphan courts, which in the government towns consist of the mayor, two of the magistrates, and two of the elders. In the capital, a first guild merchant presides. The court takes charge of the education of the orphans, and appoints trustees to administer any property they may possess.	- - There are hospitals for their reception in the two capitals, and in some towns, the facility of gaining admission to which is such, and the rules by which they are governed so defective, as to have led to abuses, which it is in contemplation to prevent by new regulations, but nothing has yet been settled on this point. Foundlings are kept there till they are adults, and then frequently employed in Government manufactories, but no compulsion can be used, as they are free.	- - There are no establishments for their reception, nor are there any regulations for providing for them; but, if serfs, the proprietor must support them.
5. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders? 6. Or boarded with individuals?	- - There are no regulations for billeting or quartering orphans on householders or on individuals.	- - Foundlings are sent into the country to be nursed, where they are kept till the age of five, at a rate fixed and paid by the hospital, whose principal revenue is from the monopoly of playing cards.	
7. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?	- - Upon the death of parents, the nearest relations become the natural guardians of the children, unless otherwise directed by will; but they are in no way compelled to support them.		

CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception?—None for cripples. There is a hospital for deaf and dumb at St. Petersburg. There is an institution for the blind in the capitals, supported partly by the Government and partly by private subscriptions.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders? 3. Or boarded with individuals?—Not at all.

4. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—No regulations nor compulsion.

IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception?—There are no establishments for the reception of idiots. In the capitals and in some of the principal towns there are establishments for the reception of lunatics.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders? 3. Or boarded with individuals?—They are not billeted or quartered on householders, or boarded with individuals.

4. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—If serfs, the proprietor is compelled to support them; but there is no compulsion on relatives to do so.

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

You are requested to state whether the receipt, or the expectation of relief, appears to produce any, and what effects,

1st, On the industry of the labourers? 2d, On their frugality?—The obligation of the proprietor to support his peasantry naturally operates against their industry and frugality.

3d, On the age at which they marry?—This depends wholly on the proprietor.

4th, On the mutual dependence and affection of parent, children, and other relatives?—None; but the abundance of food keeps families united as long as the proprietor allows it.

5th, What, on the whole, is the condition of the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, as compared with the condition of the person subsisting on alms or public charity. Is the condition of the latter, as to food and freedom from labour, more or less eligible? (See p. 261 and 335 of the Poor Law "Extracts.")—The condition of the labourer is more eligible than that of those who are kept in the few almshouses existing in the great towns.

P.L. (F.)

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LABOURERS,

Appendix (F.)

LABOURERS, &c.

Foreign
Communications.

RUSSIA.

1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month, or the year, with and without provisions in summer and in winter?—The pay of labourers varies in different parts of Russia. In Georgia, it is 35 copecks; in Poltava and Tobolsk, 36 to 50; Bialystock, Voronesk, Grodno, Ekaterienostoff, Yenesesk, Irkoutsk, Kieff, Kursk, Minsk, Mohileff, Nishney Novogorod, Penra, Orenbourg, Perwn, Kasan, Saratoff, Simbirsk, Slobodonkrainsk, Chernegoff, 51 to 80; Don Cossack territory, Vologda, Volhynia, Karan, Kalouga, Kostroma, Orel, Podolia, Crimea, 80 copecks to 1 ruble; Bessarabia, Caucasus, Courland, Livonia, Moscow, Smolensk, 1 r. to 1 r. 20 c.; Astrachan, Wilna, Witepsk, Novogorod, Olonetz, Iver Pteskoff, 1 r. 20 c. to 1 r. 53 c.; St. Petersburg, 1 r. 54 c. Thus the lowest average is 35 copecks (about $3\frac{1}{2}d.$), the highest, 1 r. 54 c. (about 1 s. 3 d.) per diem. The pay for a man and horse in Georgia is 75 copecks (about $7\frac{1}{2}d.$); in Bialystock, is 75 c. to 1 r. 50 c.; Don Cossacks, is 1 r. 50 c. to 2 r.; Astrachan, is 2 r. to 3 r.; St. Petersburg, 3 r. 27 c.; Courland, 3 r. 48 c. (about 2 s. 11 d.), being the highest average.

2. Is piece-work general?—Piece-work is not general, but is occasionally resorted to.—*Vide Vagrants, No. 2.*

3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—Land being principally cultivated by peasants belonging to the proprietor, who are not paid in money, and who pay their *obrok* to him for the land they occupy in labour, there is no means of putting a price upon the worth of their labour; especially, as has been shown in answer No. 1, the price of labour, when an equivalent for it is given in money, varies so much in different parts of Russia.

4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?—As a Russian peasant grows almost every thing necessary for the consumption of his family, and spends little or nothing for manufactures, it is almost impossible to give anything like a satisfactory answer to this question. Their wants being very few, their expenditure is very slight; a small sum is generally given by each peasant to the priest, but nothing fixed.

5. Is there any, and what employment for women and children?—Women and children assist in field labour, either in cultivating the portion of land attached by their master to their cottages, for which they pay *obrok*, or for the landed proprietors, if they pay *non obrok*.

6. What can women, and children under 16, earn per week in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed?—*Vide Answer 4.*

7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8 and 5 years respectively (the eldest a boy), expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?—*Vide Answer 4.*

8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children, and if so, on what food?—Yes; on rye-bread, buck-wheat and sour cabbage soup well seasoned with salt, and occasionally with a little lard.

9. Could it lay by anything, and how much?—Generally speaking, not, especially in the country districts; and there is little inducement to lay by, as the proprietor takes care of the peasantry. In favourable localities, such as the neighbourhood of towns, some savings may be effected by the sober and industrious.

10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?—The average quantity of land allowed by a proprietor to his slave is 15 acres.

11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations?—As the labourers are almost all slaves, they have no habitations which they can call their own property.

12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale?—For the same reason they pay nothing in the shape of rent for their habitations, and cannot sell them.

13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—The labourers pay no rent for the lands they occupy.

14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?—On 48,000,000, the number of inhabitants in European Russia, the deaths in 1831 were 1,851,730, or 1 in $25\frac{92}{100}$.

15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?—The births in 1831 were 2,054,200, or 1 to every $23\frac{36}{100}$ persons.

16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?—In 1831, 363,111 couples were married, or 1 marriage among every 132 persons, or 66 couple.

17. The average number of children to a marriage? 18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?—No data exist for answering these queries.

19. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year? 20. Before the end of their 10th year? 21. Before the end of their 18th year?—The total deaths in 1831 of persons of the Greek church, were 823,608 males; of whom there died,

Under

Under 5 - - -	362,521	Brought forward -	739,708
From 5 to 10 - - -	48,987 *	From 70 to 75 - - -	28,500
10 to 15 - - -	20,667	75 to 80 - - -	16,233
15 to 20 - - -	17,819	80 to 85 - - -	14,645
20 to 25 - - -	22,170	85 to 90 - - -	6,883
25 to 30 - - -	25,563	90 to 95 - - -	4,398
30 to 35 - - -	27,031	95 to 100 - - -	1,964
35 to 40 - - -	18,022	100 to 105 - - -	778
40 to 45 - - -	30,576	105 to 110 - - -	199
45 to 50 - - -	32,089	110 to 115 - - -	97
50 to 55 - - -	37,336	115 to 120 - - -	35
55 to 60 - - -	32,028	120 to 125 - - -	37
60 to 65 - - -	37,640	125 to 130 - - -	7
65 to 70 - - -	27,259	130 to 135 - - -	6
Carried forward - -	739,708		813,490

22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—It is the interest of the proprietor of serfs that they should marry early; and even in cases where he does not interfere, or the peasants are free, the facility of procuring food encourages early marriages.

23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—It is so much the interest of the proprietors to increase the population of their estates, that marriages generally take place amongst the peasantry as early as possible.

24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried, 2d, the married, save?—From marriages taking place so early, very little opportunity is given to the unmarried to save. The married have not much inducement to save, as their masters are bound to support them.

25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—Some employ their savings in cultivating more land than the portion usually allotted to their slaves by the landed proprietors, upon agreeing to pay an augmented *obrok*; in building a better sort of house than those usually inhabited by the peasantry; many in the interior hoard their money.

In the St. Catherine's Institution, 300 young ladies are educated at the expense of the government, at the rate of 40 copecks per day for their food, which consists of a cup of milk and a small loaf of white bread every morning for breakfast; dinner, of a soup and three other dishes; milk in the evening, with a white loaf; and a supper of three dishes.

The whole annual expenses of the establishment, including dress, medical attendance, repairs of the building, &c. amount to 276,645,42 $\frac{3}{4}$ roubles.

The principal committee is in St. Petersburg; there are subordinate committees in 20 different governments of the Russian empire, who send their annual reports to the St. Petersburg committee, as the president is president of all the committees, and the governor-general or governors act for him, with the title of vice-president.

In almost all those governments there are also committees of ladies, who attend to the female prisoners.

The following are the principal five rules on which the committee act, as confirmed by the late Emperor Alexander, in the year 1819.

1. Constant inspection.
2. Classification according to their crimes.
3. To attend that they should be instructed in religion and morality.
4. Constant employment.
5. Solitary confinement for the refractory.

The prison society in Russia is under the immediate protection of the Emperor, who appoints the president.

Every one who contributes annually for the support of the society is called a member, and every one who contributes a certain sum is called the benefactor. From the members of the society the committee is formed in the following manner; three of the candidates' names are by the president presented to the Emperor, out of which one is confirmed by his Imperial Majesty, as a member of the committee. The committee consists of the president, four or five vice-presidents, 12 or more directors, in which number is included the treasurer, who is also a member of all the sections of the committee, of which there are the following eight, consisting each from three to five members:

1. The

* The deaths, therefore, under 10 years of age, were 411,508 out of 823,608, or, within a fraction, one-half.

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.

RUSSIA.

1. The feeding and clothing of the prisoners while in confinement, as also to attend that they are properly looked after in sickness.
2. The attending to alterations and repairs of the prison, firing and lighting, &c.
3. The attending to the labour of the prisoners, that they never want employment.
4. The attending to the morals of the prisoners.
5. The attending to the proper clothing of the criminals who are sent into exile to Siberia.
6. To attend to the feeding of the prisoners in the police office, and the 13 quarters of the city.
7. To attend to all donations in clothing, food, &c. for the prisoners, as for the liberation of debtors.
8. The attending to the male and female hospitals in the prison, and the preparing the medicines for the sick. This section consists of medical men.

In the following manner both the male and female prisoners are divided in the prison of St. Petersburg:

1. Debtors.
2. Juvenile offenders.
3. Noblemen.
4. Criminals under trial.
5. Tried prisoners, either sentenced to be exiled to Siberia or to the government they originally came from.
6. Great criminals and murderers. They are never permitted to leave their wards, are never employed otherwise than when one amongst them can read, to hear him read a chapter out of the New Testament daily.

These rules are adhered to as nearly as possible in all the prisons, where there are prison committees.

In the town prison of St. Petersburg the committee have one consulting physician; one steward, who is also inspector of the hospital; one schoolmaster; ten wardmen, (they are taken from the under officers of the guards, who have served their time, with good certificates); one baker, also an under officer of the guards.

The treasurer receives annually from the government treasury, for the purpose of feeding the prisoners in the town prison, the police-office, and the 13 quarters of the town, from 7,075,000 to 7,080,000 *, as also for clothing the prisoners sent into exile, from 7,010,000 to 7,015,000 *; from the Town-hall, for keeping the town prison in repair, &c. &c. paying the officers and invalids attached to the prison their salaries, &c. &c. from 7,050,000 to 7,055,000 *. The annual subscriptions are about 7,012,000 *, which is employed in keeping president's chancery, and the Treasury Office, as also for keeping the chancery of the ladies' committee. All these regulations are followed up by the other committees, in proportion to their means.

The following rules are observed on the immediate entrance of a prisoner into the prison office, both with male and female prisoners:

1. They are immediately conducted to their separate baths, well washed, and then dressed in their prison dress.
2. Their clothes are deposited according to their names in drawers alphabetically marked.
3. Any effects the prisoner brings with him are taken from him and sealed up with the prison seal and his own, and deposited in the prison office; when the prisoner is released they are all returned to him; if he is sent into exile, or to his government, they are forwarded to the government office, and safely returned to him.
4. When he returns to the prison office from the bath he is conducted to the ward allotted to the crime he is charged with.

OF DEBTORS.

The creditor must feed the debtor all the time he keeps him in prison, at the rate of 25 copecks (2 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.) a day, which he pays for a month in advance to the steward. If the creditor neglects to bring the money within seven days the debtor is discharged.

The debtor is not forced to work as the other prisoners; and also they dress in their own clothes; when in want, then the committee give them clothing.

The voluntary contributions to release debtors are considerable; last year they amounted to upwards of 7,035,000 *, which sum enabled the committee to discharge the debts of 92 debtors, confined for 7,052,327 *, besides giving small sums to assist those who were found worthy of help.

In the government pay are the following officers and attendants belonging to the town prison: the keeper, his assistant, one chaplain, two clerks, one doctor, one apothecary, three barber-surgeons, four attendants on the sick, under officers of the guards (discharged from the army), three invalid under officers, 36 invalids.

The above are all lodged in the prison.

A captain's guard, of 77 men, mount guard daily. The committee allow them while on duty provisions from the prison kitchen.

* Copecks?

* Copecks?

ARCHANGEL.

VAGRANTS.

1. To what extent and under what form does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?—Poor persons beg from house to house in towns and villages; and it is calculated that of a population of 18,000 in this place there are 250 men, women and children supported by this accidental charity.

2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country, seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded, and under what regulations?—No, not established.

DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are they, or any part of their families, billeted or quartered on householders; 2. Or boarded with individuals?—They are never so quartered or boarded.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there district houses of industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families, and supplying them with food, clothes, &c., and in which they are set to work?—There are no houses of industry for other than persons confined for crime or debt; in both the latter cases they are made to cut wood and draw water for the use of the prison.

4. To what extent and under what regulations do any religious institutions give assistance to the destitute, by receiving them as inmates, or by giving them alms?—There are no religious institutions for relieving the poor generally; the employés of the church are supported by that establishment in monasteries.

5. To what extent, and under what regulations is work provided at their own dwellings for those who have trades, but do not procure work for themselves?—In no degree.

6. To what extent and under what regulations is work provided for such persons in agriculture or on public works?—No work is provided.

7. To what extent and under what regulations are fuel, clothing or money distributed to such persons or their families; at all times of the year, or during any particular seasons?—No distribution is made.

8. To what extent and under what regulations are they relieved, by their children being taken into schools, and fed, clothed and educated or apprenticed?—Children are educated gratis; if they are the *sons* of soldiers they are fed, clothed and educated in government military schools; for *daughters* of soldiers there is no provision.

9. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are the relatives of the destitute compelled to assist them with money, food, or clothing, or by taking charge of part of their families?—The law does not enforce this.

10. To what extent and under what regulations are they assisted by loans?—They are not assisted by loans.

IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there almshouses or other institutions for the reception of those who, through age, are incapable of earning their subsistence?—There is one house here, supported by the town council, which gives subsistence to about 30 persons; but the relief is given at the option of the mayor of the town, and as his charity is not controlled by government, the fate of applications for relief depends upon the character of the person holding the office. There is a house supported by private contribution, containing about 20 persons. The expenses for food, &c. are as follows: 9 o'clock, a. m. breakfast, bread and a sort of beer made of rye-meal, called kvas; 2 o'clock, p. m., dinner of fresh fish, bread and kvas; 7 o'clock p. m., supper of bread, kvas, and the water in which the fish for dinner has been boiled; which amount to about 10s. sterling per person per month. They are given clothes and bedding, which cost about 2 l. sterling per annum. Medicine and medical attendance are given if required.

2. To what extent and under what regulations is relief in food, fuel, clothing or money afforded them at their homes?—Not afforded.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals; 4. Or quartered or billeted on the householders?—Not so boarded, quartered or billeted.

5. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking part of their families?—Not enforced by law.

SICK.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there district institutions for the reception of the sick?—There are no hospitals for sick poor. There are two hospitals for those in the service of government, one for sick sailors, another for soldiers.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are surgical and medical relief afforded to the poor at their own homes?—No relief is afforded but in time of the existence of any epidemic; but there is a town or district surgeon, who *prescribes* for the poor, but no medicine is given.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick?—None.

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Foreign
Communications.

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Archangel.

4. To what extent and under what regulations is assistance given to lying-in women at their homes, or in public establishments?—There was formerly a lying-in hospital here, but government found the expense so great as to oblige them to close it.
5. To what extent and under what regulations are there any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick?—None.

CHILDREN :

Illegitimate.

1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall; wholly upon the mothers, or wholly upon the fathers; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations?—On the father, if he be known, and present: if unknown or absent, on the mother. The effect of this law, and the absence of foundling hospitals, except in the capital, is seen in the number of cases of infanticide in this empire, and in the practice which poor women pursue of taking medicines to procure abortion.
2. To what extent and under what regulations are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards?—To none.
3. To what extent and under what regulations are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?—To none.

Orphans, Foundlings, or Deserted Children.

4. To what extent and under what regulations are they taken into establishments for their reception? 5. Or billeted or quartered on householders? 6. Or boarded with individuals?—To None.—*Foundlings.* There is an hospital here, supported by the interest of 20,000 roubles (900 l.), the profit on the sale of cards by government, in this town, and the fines levied on persons whose chimnies take fire. Here children are supported whose parents are not known, and who are left *not near* any house. When they become old enough to work, they give half their earnings to this institution for the term of their lives. There are at present no children and no adults who have been brought up by it, although it maintains a manager and some clerks or writers. By the laws of this empire, if a child be left at a person's door or on his premises, and the mother be not known, the person on whose premises the foundling is left is bound to support it.

CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

No provision made for them.

IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception?—There is one establishment here in which both idiots and lunatics are confined, but in separate apartments; it is under the control of government, and contains about 30 persons, male and female. The expenses and dietary are the same as in the almshouse of this town, (for a description of which, see preceding page,) except that in a lunatic asylum more attendants are necessary.
2. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders? 3. Or boarded with individuals? 4. Or are their relatives compelled to support them?—Not at all.

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

You are requested to state whether the receipt, or the expectation of relief, appears to produce any, and what effect,

- 1st. On the industry of the labourers? 2d. On their frugality? 3d. On the age at which they marry? 4th. On the mutual dependence and affection of parent, children and other relatives?—These questions are grounded on the supposition that houses exist here for the relief of poor persons; no reply, therefore, can be given to them with any sure correctness. So far as appearances go, the peasants in the immediate neighbourhood of Archangel are too industrious, and their subsistence too cheap, to allow them to seek relief by charity, instead of working. Even in the more distant provinces, where the peasants are the property of private individuals, and their poverty great, they do not to any extent seek for charitable relief.

LABOURERS, &c.

1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month, or the year, with and without provisions, in summer and in winter?—Agricultural, 6d. per diem, without food, in winter, 8d. per diem in summer; artisans, 8d. per diem in winter, 10d. per diem in summer. These wages are often doubled.
2. Is piece-work general?—So nearly universal, that there is a class of men (called contractors) who undertake any kind of work.
3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—£. 18. to 30 l. per annum.
4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?—£. 15. to 20 l. per annum.

5. Is

5. Is there any, and what employment for women and children?—Women are employed at home in spinning and weaving, or by merchants in cleaning flax and tow; children are not employed.

6. What can women, and children under 16, earn per week, in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed?—From 10 *l.* to 15 *l.* per annum.

7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8 and 5 years respectively (the eldest a boy), expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?—From 30 *l.* to 40 *l.* and 45 *l.*

8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children; and if so, on what food?—Decidedly, yes. Their food consists of fish, rye bread, gruel, kvas; occasionally meat and turnips; a great deal of tea is also drank by the peasants of this neighbourhood.

9. Could it lay by anything, and how much?—Taking the average earnings at 35 *l.*, expenditure, including clothes, 25 *l.*, they would lay by 10 *l.*

10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?—Half an acre to an acre.

11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations?—In the country labourers build their own habitations; in towns they hire houses; from no particular class of persons.

12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale?—£.2. to 3 *l.* per annum rent; price 20 *l.* to 30 *l.*

13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—Land appertains always to the crown in this district; the crown receives about 1 *l.* 10 *s.* per acre for grass and arable land.

14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?—The average of five years, 1 in 25. This is a high average; the result of the number of deaths by cholera in 1831, when the deaths were 1 in 10; excluding this year, the deaths are 1 in 45.

15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?—The average of five years, 1 in 24.

16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?—The average of five years, 1 in 100.

17. The average number of children to a marriage?—Three or four.

18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?—Illegitimate, 34 in 1,160 births.

19. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year?—49 deaths in 823, or 1 in 16 $\frac{8}{10}$.

20. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 10th year?—410 in 823, or one-half within a fraction.

21. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 18th year?—448 in 823, or 1 in 1 $\frac{83}{100}$.

22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—Males, 32; females, 30; average of 253 marriages.

23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—Marriages are delayed by a very great degree of immorality prevailing in this district, and by the chance of the man being taken for a recruit by government.

24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried, 2d, the married, save?—So far as my observation has gone, the Russian labourer does not save; if the surplus of his earnings is not carried to the spirit-shops, it is generally laid out in dress for his wife and daughters, or some showy piece of household furniture, or in a horse.

COURLAND.

Courland.

VAGRANTS.

1. To what extent and under what form does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?—Mendicity by vagrants is strongly forbidden, and does not prevail to any extent.

2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country, seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded and under what regulations?—There is no relief afforded to such persons; government usually sets natives at public work, if they are unfit to be enrolled as soldiers, and strangers are transported over the Russian frontiers.

DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are they, or any part of their families, billeted or quartered on householders?—There are no laws and regulations existent to that end.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—Individuals may board them, according to their feelings of charity. By legal regulations no one is compelled to do so.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there district houses of industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families, and supplying them with food, clothes, &c., and in which they are set to work?—Neither here nor in the vicinity are any district houses of industry established as yet; however, a plan to found such an

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institution is contemplated on. At Mitau, the chief city of Courland, there are several establishments to such purposes in existence, as to my knowledge.

4. To what extent and under what regulations do any religious institutions give assistance to the destitute, by receiving them as inmates, or by giving them alms?—There are none existent.

5. To what extent and under what regulations is work provided at their own dwellings for those who have trades, but do not procure work for themselves?—Every one here is obliged to procure work for himself by the best means in his own power.

6. To what extent and under what regulations is work provided for such persons in agriculture or on public works?—In consequence of a short population, persons are never at a loss for work, especially in agricultural employments.

7. To what extent and under what regulations are fuel, clothing or money distributed to such persons or their families; at all times of the year, or during any particular seasons?—Every one here is obliged to provide himself with the commodities and necessities required, in the best manner possible.

8. To what extent and under what regulations are they relieved, by their children being taken into schools, and fed, clothed and educated or apprenticed?—The community is compelled by law to provide for their children, by as much as can be done.

9. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are the relatives of the destitute compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking charge of part of their families?—Legal regulations to that end are not existent; the relatives assist them, according to their feelings of compassion and their means, with the necessities they stand in need of.

10. To what extent and under what regulations are they assisted by loans?—Assistance by loans is not afforded.

IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there almshouses or other institutions for the reception of those who, through age, are incapable of earning their subsistence?—For the reception of such individuals there are almshouses established in every town of more or less extent. The community contributes for the maintenance of these institutions, and is, besides, compelled to provide for those rendered impotent through age.

2. To what extent and under what regulations is relief in food, fuel, clothing or money afforded them at their homes?—The community as well as the relatives afford assistance to them by as much as possibly can be done. The almshouses furnish a number of such individuals with bread.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals? 4. Or quartered or billeted on the householders? 5. Or are their relatives compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking part of their families?—This is entirely left to the compassion or voluntary charity of individuals or relatives; legal regulations to that end are not existent.

SICK.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there district institutions for the reception of the sick?—For the reception of the sick there are infirmaries established, both in towns as well as in the country, and they are maintained by the community in towns and by the proprietors of estates in the country.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are surgical and medical relief afforded to the poor at their own homes?—According to the requisiteness of the physicians afficiated to that purpose*.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick?—They receive the required commodities and necessities at the infirmaries above alluded to. In towns, by a public fund raised to that end from the community, and in the country, by means of the proprietors of estates.

4. To what extent and under what regulations is assistance given to lying-in women at their homes, or in public establishments?—Assistance is given to them at home by their relatives; public establishments to that purpose are not existent, except at Mitau, the capital of Courland, although of no great extent.

5. To what extent and under what regulations are there any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick?—There are no other modes of affording assistance to the sick.

CHILDREN:

Illegitimate.

1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall; wholly upon the mothers, or wholly upon the fathers; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations?—By legal regulation, the support of illegitimate children falls wholly upon the fathers, who are compelled to provide for them till they reach the age of 15 years. In many instances, however, the father composes such matters at once with the mother, by paying to her a certain sum of money, once for all, in presence of the court of magistrates.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards?—No legal regulations to that end are existent.

3. To

3. To what extent and under what regulations are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?—Illegitimate children are supported at the public expense only when orphans.

Orphans, Foundlings, or Deserted Children.

4. To what extent and under what regulations are they taken into establishments for their reception?—In Mitau and Libau only are establishments for the reception of a certain number of orphans. In inland towns, and in the country, they must be supported by their relatives.

5. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?—Orphans are never billeted or quartered on householders by any legal regulation.

6. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—Orphans are boarded in the orphan-houses; individuals are not compelled to do it.

7. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—Compassion and charity induce relatives, in most cases, to take charge of them; by legal regulations, no one is forced to do so.

Foundlings.—Proper establishments for their reception are not yet founded in this duchy. Foundlings are generally taken up into almshouses, and supported until they reach an age which enables them to provide for their subsistence themselves.

Deserted Children, whose Parents are known.—Instances of children deserting from their parents are scarcely known of with us here; and if such were to happen, they would instantly be conducted to their respective homes.

CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

Public establishments or institutions for the reception of such unfortunate persons are not anywhere else existing in this duchy but at Mitau, although yet first arising; the whole country contributes to the maintenance of them.

IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

An establishment for the reception of such lamentable persons is going to be founded at Mitau. For the first their support falls upon the charge of their parents, relatives, or other charitable individuals.

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

You are requested to state whether the receipt, or the expectation of relief, appears to produce any, and what effect,

1st, On the industry of the labourers? 2d, On their frugality? 3d, On the age at which they marry? 4th, On the mutual dependence and affection of parent, children, and other relatives?—Several of the establishments and institutions alluded to not being in existence, and some of them just on the point of arising, it is thus out of my power to state their effects.

5th, What, on the whole, is the condition of the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, as compared with the condition of the person subsisting on alms or public charity? Is the condition of the latter, as to food and freedom from labour, more or less eligible? (See p. 261 and 335 of the Poor Law "Extracts.")—The condition of an able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, is always better in comparison with the condition of the person subsisting on alms or public charity. The latter, on the whole, prefers his situation as idler, and to live continually at public expense.

LABOURERS, &c.

1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month, or the year, with and without provisions, in summer and in winter?—The common agriculturist or peasant in this duchy is never paid with ready cash for his labour, but receives from the proprietors of estates a piece of cultivated land, the produce of which in grain, hay, &c. supplies him and his family with the needful subsistence. The skilled artisan may earn about 90 to 120 copecks silver, or 3s. to 4s. sterling; the unskilled, 45 to 60 copecks silver, or 1s. 6d. to 2s.; and the common labourer, 30 copecks silver, or 1s. per diem in summer, and a few pence less in winter, without provision.

2. Is piece-work general?—Piece-work is not general, but occurs chiefly in mercantile employments.

3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—An average labourer, thus employed, may earn in the course of a year, for to maintain his household, from 100 to 120 silver roubles, or 17l. to 20l. sterling.

4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?—In this respect I am only able to state, that the common labourer in the country, in order to pay the like annual expenditures, fully expends again of what he earned; the industrious labourer in towns, however, has still a chance of saving something after all.

5. Is there any, and what employment for women and children?—Both women, as well as children, are never at a loss for work. In the country they meet with agriculture, in towns with mercantile employments.

6. What can women, and children, under 16, earn per week, in summer, in winter and harvest,

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harvest, and how employed?—Women may earn 105 copecks silver, or 3 s. 6 d. sterling in summer, and 75 copecks silver, or 2 s. 6 d. sterling, in winter. Children under 16, 90 copecks silver, or 3 s. in summer, and 60 copecks silver, or 2 s. in winter, per week, by employment in trade and husbandry.

7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8 and 5 years respectively (the eldest a boy), expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?—They may expect to earn from 180 to 210 silver roubles, or 30 l. to 35 l. sterling in a year.

8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children; and if so, on what food?—They can subsist on the aggregate earnings; in most cases, however, but needy, on bread, potatoes, salted fish, and seldom beef.

9. Could it lay by anything, and how much?—Very seldom they lay by anything; if they are very industrious and economical, they may save from 24 to 36 silver roubles, or 4 l. to 6 l. sterling, in a year.

10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?—The average quantity of land annexed to a single labourer's habitation is from eight to nine acres.

11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations?—It is the landholder or nobleman in the country, and the tradesman and the more opulent labourer in towns.

12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale?—The rent of labourers' habitations is from 24 to 48 silver roubles, or 4 l. to 8 l. sterling, per year; and the price on sale from 300 to 420 silver roubles, or 50 l. to 70 l. sterling, in towns.

13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—Land is never let to labourers in this duchy.

14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?—The proportion, in healthy times, is 35 out of 1,000, or 1 in $28\frac{5}{10}$.

15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?—The proportion is 38 out of 1,000, or 1 in $26\frac{3}{10}$.

16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?—The proportion is 10 out of 1,000, or 1 in 100.

17. The average number of children to a marriage?—The average number of children to a marriage is four.

18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?—The proportion is, of 15 legitimate, three illegitimate births, in towns, or 1 in 3; in the country by far less, say 1 in 20.

19. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year?—One dies out of eight.

20. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 10th year?—One dies out of 14.

21. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 18th year?—One dies out of 25.

22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—The average age of marriage of males is 26, of females 20.

23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—Marriages are delayed in consequence of unpaid taxes to government and town, of protestation against a marriage, of difference in religion, confession.

24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried, 2d, the married, save?—This is not well to be ascertained; married people, there is no doubt, will save sooner something than unmarried.

25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—Most people of the lower class put their savings into the here established saving-bank, on interest. Some, living in towns, invest their savings by purchasing habitations.

INFORMATION relative to the DIETARIES, &c. which I have been able to procure of Prisons, Workhouses, Almshouses and Orphan-houses, in this Duchy.

For dieting prisoners in Courland, government has stipulated $6\frac{1}{4}$ copecks silver, or $2\frac{1}{2}$ d. per diem only; at the workhouse in Mitau the correctioners are boarded for 10 copecks silver, or 4 d. per diem. The expenditure for the support of about 200 individuals, a third part of whom is permanently living at the almshouse of this place, and the remainder assisted at their homes with bread and other necessities by the said institution, comes to about 2,400 silver roubles, or 400 l. sterling, per year. The poor living at the almshouses and infirmaries get as much meat and drink as needfully is required, and without exact prescription; weights and measures, therefore, are not to be stated correctly, neither what changes are proposed in the laws or institutions respecting relief in this country: we anticipate all hopes for the best in future.

The support, say boarding, clothing, schooling, &c. &c. of 28 orphans at the orphan-house of this place, incurs the expenditure of about 6,000 silver roubles, or 1,000 l. sterling, per year. This institution here was founded many years ago by the testamentary will of two rich old bachelors. These late benefactors devised a fund of about 150,000 silver roubles, or 25,000 l. sterling, for the foundation of the said orphan-house. The orphans taken up in this institution are to be of civil descent.

Liebau, February 15/27, 1834.

Francis Kienitz,
 H. B. Majesty's Consul for Courland.

S W E D E N.

LETTER from Lord *Howard de Walden* to Sir *George Shee*, Bart.

Sir,

Stockholm, October 25th, 1833.

I AM sorry I have not hitherto been able to obtain such information, in answer to Mr. Backhouse's circular despatch of the 12th August, as appeared to meet the instructions of Lord Palmerston.

I enclose the only printed documents which exist relating to the treatment of the poor.

With a view to obtain a correct idea of the system in practice respecting the maintenance of the poor, I had an interview with Mr. Hartmansdorff, the Secretary of State for Ecclesiastical Affairs.

I have since drawn up a memorandum, recapitulating briefly the general system, and which Mr. Hartmansdorff has undertaken to correct, if erroneous on any point. He has also been good enough to promise that he would add any additional information which might occur to him as likely to elucidate the practical operation of the poor regulations in this country.

I have, &c.

Sir George Shee, Bart.
&c. &c. &c.

(signed) *Howard de Walden*.DOCUMENTS referred to in Lord *Howard de Walden*'s Letter.

KONGL. MAJ: TS Nådiga Kungörelse, angående Skyldigheten at underhålla sådane, från then ena til then andra Församlingen inflyttade personer, som sedermera blifwit wanföre och icke kunna sig sjelfwe försörja.—Gifwen Götheborg then 5 December 1788.

Wi Gustaf med Guds Nåde, Sweriges, Göthes och Wendes Konung, &c. &c. &c. Arfwinge til Norrige, samt Hertig til Schlesswig Hollstein, &c. &c. Göre weterligt, at som Wi, i anledning af en hos Oss giord underdånig förfrågan och hemställan, efter hwad grund the twister böra afgöras, som ej sällan emellan Församlingar nu mera skola yppas, angående skyldigheten, at underhålla the från then ena til then andra Församlingen inflyttade personer, hwilke sedermera blifwit wanföre och icke kunna sig sielfwe försörja, hafwe kommit i erfarenhet, at någon wiss grund til thylika twisters urskiljande uti the i thetta ämne utkomne Författningar icke igenfinnes, och Wi förthenskul ansett nödigt, at något stadgande hårom til allmän esterrättelse meddela; så hafwe Wi, sedan wederbörande häröfwer blifwit hörde, tagit thenna fråga uti behörigt öfwerwägaande: och ehuru thet wid första påseende kan synas, som skulle then Församling, hwilken haft största nyttan af fattighjonet under thes arbetsföra tid, böra wårda sig om thes underhåll, sedan thet ej mer förmår at med arbete födan förtjena; likwål och som thenna urskillning, utom thet, at then wore swår at rätteligen påfinna, skulle blifwa et ämne för ständiga twister, och medföra längre tids utdrägt, fattighjonet til största kånning: ty hafwe Wi i Nåder funnit, at then Sokn, ther fattighjonet antingen haft eget hemman, eller såsom inhyses-eller tjenstehjon senast warit i skatt anteknad, bör widkännas thes wård, enår thet med arbete icke kan sig uppehålla. Men tå ock erfarenheten wisat, at en skrópling, et mindre arbetsfört eller lättjefullt tjenstehjon, eller någon som afstått, eller icke längre förmått sköta sit hemmans bruk, så snart han undfått sin förre Själasörjares bewis om sit förhållande, flyttar til hwilken Sokn han behagar, ther han antingen kan få et litet hus, eller sitta inhyses, emot ringa afgift eller något biträde af dagswerken til jordågaren, och at, tå then senare icke längre therwid ser sin winning, then emottagne blir förskuten och faller Soknen til last, ehuru en allena kunnat af en sådan person hafwa någon nytta; så hafwe Wi tillika i Nåder pröfwat både nödigt och billigt, at hwarje Församling, emot ofwan-nämde skyldighet, må åga then rättighet, at icke något inhyses-hjon bör få sig ther nedfatta, eller något gammalt och mindre arbetsfört tjenstehjon antagas, innan sådant först blifwit i allmän Soknestamma anmält och Församlingen thertil sit bifall lemnat.

Tå Församlingens Ledamöter således åga at yttra sig, huruwida then sökande må få inflytta, hafwa the at skylla sig sjelfwe, om the från andra Soknar emottaga sådane, som med tiden kunna blifwa them til tunga; och härigenom bör åfwen å andra sidan någor hwar finna sig föranlåten, at å sin födelseort, eller ther the sin ungdoms och arbetsföra tid nedlagt, så skicka sig, at the på ålderdomen kunna wånta sig Församlingens omwårdnad.

Thet alle som wederbör, hafwa sig hörsammeligen at esterrätta. Til yttermera wisso hafwe Wi thetta med Egen Hand underskrifwit och med Wårt Kongl. Insegel bekräfta låtit.—Götheborg then 5 December 1788.

GUSTAF. (L. s.)

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(Translation.)

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SWEDEN.

HIS Majesty's Gracious Ordinance respecting the Duty to maintain such Persons as may have removed from one Parish into another, and may afterwards have become disabled, and are unable to provide for themselves.—Issued at Gothenburg, the 5th of December 1788.

WE, Gustavus, by the grace of God, King of Sweden and of the Goths and Vandals, &c. &c. &c., Heir to Norway and Duke of Schlessvig Hollstein, &c. &c., make known: That whereas We, in consequence of an humble inquiry and representation made to Us, on what principle the disputes which are stated now frequently to occur between parishes should be decided, respecting the duty to maintain such persons as may have removed from one parish to another, and who afterwards have become disabled, and are unable to provide for themselves, have ascertained that no certain principle for the decision of such disputes are to be found in the regulations already published in respect to this matter; and We therefore have thought it necessary that some enactment on this subject should be made for the information and guidance of the public; We have, after hearing the statements of the parties concerned in the matter, taken this question into consideration; and although it might at the first view appear that the parish which has derived the greatest advantage from the pauper, while able to work, should be bound to provide for his or her maintenance when they shall be rendered incapable of earning their own livelihood, yet as this principle, besides the difficulty of correctly ascertaining it, would form a subject for constant disputes, and require a longer time for decision, to the great injury of the pauper, We have graciously decided, that the parish wherein the pauper has possessed a tenement, or where the pauper may last have been rated as a lodger or as a servant, shall be liable to his or her maintenance when no longer able to support themselves by labour. But as it has also been proved by experience that an infirm person, an unskilful and an indolent servant, or any other person who may have parted with, or else may no longer be able to manage his allotment, frequently, upon receiving his clergyman's certificate as to his conduct, removes to what parish he pleases, where he either can obtain a small house or become a lodger, upon payment of a small rent, or by assisting the owner of the soil with his labour, and that the latter, when he no longer finds it his interest to retain him, discharges him, and he then becomes a burthen to the parish generally, although only one person may possibly have derived any advantage from a person thus circumstanced; We have further considered it both necessary and equitable, that every parish on observing the abovementioned duty, shall at the same time possess the right to prevent any lodger from obtaining a settlement in the parish, or any old or unfit person from being accepted as a servant, until the case shall have been submitted to the decision of a general vestry, and the consent of the parishioners has been obtained for the purpose.

As the inhabitants of a parish will thus have an opportunity of giving their opinion whether the applicant should be allowed to settle in the parish, they will only have to blame themselves if they receive from other parishes such persons as may in time become a burthen to them; and consequently it must also on the other hand appear evident to every one how necessary it is that they should so conduct themselves in their native places, or where they have spent the time of their youth and labour, that, when overtaken by old age, they may expect to receive the care and support of their parish.

To which all whom it may concern have obediently to conform themselves. In further testimony whereof, We have hereunto set our hand and confirmed the same with Our royal seal. Gothenburg, the 5th December 1788.

GUSTAVUS. (L. s.)

KONGL. MAJ:TS Nådiga Förordning Om Allmänna Arbetsställen för Swea- och Götha-Riken, samt Stor-Förstendömet Finland.—Gifwen Carlsruhe Slott den 27 Februarii 1804.

Wi, Gustaf Adolph, med Guds Nåde, Sweriges, Göthes och Wendes Konung, &c. &c. &c. Arfwinge til Dannemark och Norrige, Hertig til Schlesswig Hollstein, &c. &c. Göre weterligt: At då befordrandet af Wåre trogne Undersåtares säkerhet til Personer och Egendom utgör et hufwudsakeligt föremål för Wåre omsorger, hafwe Wi ej utan bekymmer erfarit, huruledes denna säkerhet ofta störes genom Personer, hwilka, dels af lattsinnighet, wanart och lättja försaka de medel, som tillåtné åro, för at winna en nödtorftig bergning samt blifwa nyttige medlemmar af samhället, dels ock redan för begångne brott straffade och från deras häckten lösgifne, sällan kunna eller wilja förskaffa sig loflige näringsfång, utan lika med de förre stryka landet ikring och betunga Allmänheten med tiggerier, eller ofreda med nya brott och wåldsambheter. För at, å ena sidan, befordra ofwanberörde wigtiga föremål, den allmänna säkerheten, och å andra sidan, förmå dem, som missbruka sin frihet, at blifwa gagnelige och bereda deras förbättring, hafwe Wi nu til en början föranstaltat om stiftande af sådane Arbetsinrättningar för Swea och Götha Rike i Carlsrona, och för Finland å Sveaborg, der syslölöse och wanartige Personer, utan at, som förut skedt, sammanblandas med Missdådaren eller dem, hwilka för begångne brott til fästningsarbete blifwit dömda, kunna under den uppsigt, som för deras förwarande och tilsynen wid arbetet

pröfwat

pröfwas nödig, syslosättas emot et derföre afpassadt och til deras nödtorttiga utkomst erforderligt underhåll.

Med tillämpning af dessa grunder, warder derföre härigenom stadgadt, som följer:

S. 1. Til dessa Inrättningar, hwilka komma at bära namn af Allmänna Arbetsställen, åga Wårt Öfwer-Ståthållare-Embete i Stockholm och Wåre Befallningshafwande i Lånen tilstånd at på obestämd tid dömma:

1°. Sådane Personer, hwilka för första eller andra resan stöld blifwit straffade, eller ock för andre brott på wiss tid warit dömda til Fåstnings-arbete, men efter utståndit straff eller arbetstidens utgång, icke kunna upgifwa något lofligt näringsfång, hwarmed de troligen blifwa i stånd sig försörja, eller anskaffa en pålitelig man, som dem i tjenst antager och swarar derföre, at de icke genom kringstrykande falla det allmänna till last.

2°. Lösdrifware eller Landstrykare, hwarmed förstås så beskaffade Personer, hwilka upräknas i 15. s. af Wår den 7 April 1802 utfärdade Nådiga Wårfnings-Stadga, såsom ock kringstrykande Tatarer och Zigenare, hwilka, enligt Wårt Nådiga Bref til Landshöfdingarne af den 17 November 1772 äro förfallne til Fåstnings-arbete, samt emot Wårt den 18 April 1781 utfärdade och i Commerce-Collegii Kungörelse den 22 Februarii 1802 förnyade förbud, ej med Pass böra förses.

3°. De Soldater, hwilka, jemlikt 11. cap. 7. s. af 1798 års Krigs-Artiklar, ifrån Regements-Rullor blifwit utstrukne, hwarwid i akttages, at Regements-Befälhafwaren då bör skrifteligen hos Öfwer-Ståthållare-Embetet eller Wår Befallningshafwande anmäla sådant, samt orsaken som dertil föranledt.

4°. De hwilka blifwit, wid påföljd af straff, förbudne at til wissa Städer eller Orter återkomma, men sådant icke hörsamma.

5°. De utur tjenst skiljde Drängar, Betjenter eller Soldater, hwilka nämnas i 1. 2. 3. och 5. Momenten af Wårfnings-Stadgan, och icke wid skeende efterfrågningar, sedan den i desse Momenter för en hwar utsatte tid förflutit, gitta upgifwa för sig någon säker tilgängelig tjenst eller annat lofligt näringsfång.

6°. Svensk Handwerks-Gesäll som, utan at åga laga förfall eller bewisligt hinder, icke inom fjorton dagar efter ankomst til Stad, inställer sig til arbete hos Måstare.

7°. Handwerks-Gesäller som, oaktadt föregångne twänne warningar, första gången af Alderman och Bisittare i Embetet, och andra gången af Magistrat, wisa antingen sådan ostadighet och sturskhet, at någon Måstare dem til arbete icke wil antaga, eller af låttja och liderlig lefnad sig från arbete afhålla.

8°. Utrikes ifrån inkommande Öfwerlöpare som icke, inom tolf dagar, antaga tjenst eller annat laga näringsfång, samt icke utlefwereras böra.

9°. Extraordinarie Waktbetjente wid Allmänna eller Stadens Werk, samt lika beskaffade Betjente och Beslagskarlar wid Tullar, Wågar, med flere dylike ställen, som annat näringsfång icke hafwa, men under loppet af sex weckor sig från tjenstgöring, utan laga förfall eller erhållit tilstånd, undanhållit.

S. 2. De i föregående s. uppräknade Personer, hwilka til krigstjenst äro dugelige och icke förverkat rättigheten at tjena Oss och Kronan, i egenskap af Krigsmän, böra ej til Allmänna Arbets inrättningen afsändas, utan skal med dem efter Wårfnings-Stadgan förfaras; ågande likwål de Fåstningsfångar, hwilka omtalas uti 1. Mom i samma s. och ej begått andre brott, än at de til Krigstjenst få antagas, sielfwe wälja, antingen de wilja i slik tjenst ingå eller til Allmänna Arbetsinrättningen försändas.

S. 3. Til dessa allmänna Arbetsställen få icke försändas andre än sådane Personer, som höra til Mankonet, samt äro arbetsföre, och kunna således icke der emottagas, hwarken utgamle eller orkeslöse, eller de hwilka med obotelige kroppsskador och sådane bräckligheter, hwarigenom de sättas utur stånd at arbete förrätta, finnas behäftade.

S. 4. På det ändamålet för denna Wår författning må kunna winnas, och Wåre Befallningshafwande sättas i tilfälle at efterlefnaden deraf befordra, åligger det Presterskapet at fullgöra hwad genom Wårt Nådiga Circulaire til samtelige Consistorierne af den 7 April 1802 är förordnadt, men i synnerhet skal det tilkomma wederbörande Krono-och Stads-Betiente samt Magistrater, at, wid answer, noga efterspana och skyndsammeligen hos Wår Befallningshafwande anmäla sådane Personer, hwilka, efter hwad ofwanberördt är, finnas förfallne til allmänt arbete: ågande Landshöfdingarne at, om Krono-eller Stads-Betjente häruti wisa försummehet, dem derföre nåpsa eller tiltala låta, på sätt 1. cap. 7. s. Utsöknings-Balken förmår, åfwensom de, hwilka beträdas at hysa löst folk, utan at sådant hos wederbörande tilkänna gifwa, skola böta Sex Riksdaler Tretiotwå Skillingar, angifwarens ensak.

S. 5. Enär sådane Personer, hwilka häröfwan uppräknade blifwit, eller andre hwilka med dem jämföras kunna, anträffas i Stad eller på Landet inom det Lån, dit de kunna anses höra, utan at wara på annat ställe boende eller egenteligen wistande, åger Wårt Öfwer-Ståthållare-Embete och Wåre Befallningshafwande at, utan vidare omgång, förordna om deras afsändande til Allmänna Arbetsstället; men derest den Person, hwarom fråga i detta afseende upkommer, hör til annat Lån och således af tillfällige handlinger eller såsom kringstrykande kommit dit, der han träffas, bör han derstädes i förwar tagas, samt under rättelse om förhållandet och de omständigheter, som kunna utrönte warda, meddelas den af Wåre Befallningshafwande, til hwars Lån Karlen skal höra, hwarefter samme Wår Befallningshafwande skyndesammeligen afgifwer sådant swar, at deraf pröfwas kan, antingen den fasttagne bör försändas til Allmänna Arbetsstället, eller til den ort, dit han hör, eller ock kan

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kan på fri fot ställas. Om den häktade Personen uppgifwit orätt ställe, dit han höra skulle, warde han, sedan slikt utrönt är, genast försänd til Allmänna Arbetsstället.

S. 6. Då någon Person åläggas af Wårt-Öfwer-Ståthållare-Embete eller Wår Befallningshafwande at til Allmänna Arbetsstället försändas, skal skrifteligt beslut derom författas samt Protocoll hållas, hwaruti uptages den i fråga warande Personens lefnads-omständigheter, så widt de utrönas kunnat, om han för brott warit anklagad eller dömd, hwad straff han undergått, för hwilka laster och oarter han egenteligen gjort sig känd, om han lårt något handtwerk, med mera.

S. 7. Til dessa Personers afsändande til Allmänna Arbetsstället består Skjuts efter samma grund och ordning som för Fångar är faststald; Och bör härwid i akttagas, å ena sidan, at desse Personer, så widt omständigheterna tillåta, icke härunder fångslas på enahanda sätt som wanlige Fångar, men ock å den andra, at alla utvägar til rymning förekommas; ågande Wårt Öfwer-Ståthållare-Embete och Wåre Befallningshafwande at föreskrifwa, huru och på hwad sätt, en sådan Person bör under transporten förwaras, hwilket i den öppna förpassningen, som wid afsändandet medskickas, skal införas.

S. 8. Wid ankomsten til Allmänna Arbetsstället aflemnas Arbetskarlen, derest å samma ort är Landshöfdingesäte, til Wår Befallningshafwande, som sedan öfwerlemnar honom til Commendanten. Finnes ej Landshöfdingesäte å den ort, der Allmänna Arbetsstället är belågit, aflemnas Arbetskarlen genast til Commendanten; Och skal med Arbetskarlen afsändas det Protocoll och beslut, som i 6. s. omförmåles, hwilket uti Fångpasset anteknas. Detta Protocoll och beslut, som jemte Arbetskarlen aflemnas, förwaras sedan af Commendanten. Har den til arbete dömda penningar eller klådes-persedlar och andra mindre tilhörigheter, utöfwer hwad han på en gång behöfwer nyttja, så skola de förre uti bref öfwersändas til Wår Befallningshafwande på det ställe, der Arbetsinrättningen är belågen, och på klådes-persedlarne, eller hwad det annars wara må, förteckning uprättas och uti Fångpasset införas, på det de under tilbörlig wård kunna wid framkomsten aflemnas.

S. 9. Då någon Person, på sätt här ofwanföre finnes stadgadt; blifwit ålagd at til Allmänna Arbetsstället afsändas och dit ankommit, kan han ej sedermera derifrån förr lösgifwas, än med tillförlitelig säkerhet blifwit utrönt och styrkt, at han erhållit tjenst eller lofligt näringsfång, så at orsaken til hans ditsändande uphört. Dock bör han icke utlemnas förrän halft år förflutit från det han til Allmänna Arbetsinrättningen ankommit, så wida ej synnerliga omständigheter skulle dertil föranleda. Har han under arbetstiden gjort sig utmärkt för wanart eller lättja, bör han, oaktadt erhållit försvar eller näringsfång, icke lösgifwas, förrän han sit lefwerne förbåttrat. Pröfningsrätten, huruwida han må lösgifwas eller ej, tilkommer Wår Befallningshafwande i det Lån, der Allmänna Arbetsinrättningen är belågen; ågande Commendanten at hos nyssnämde Wår Befallningshafwande anmäla alla de frågor som upstå om tilfälle för någon allmän Arbetskarls lösgifwande. Men enär allmän Arbetskarl begär at på annor ort måtte skrifwas om utvägar för honom, at blifwa antingen i tjenst antagen, eller winna tilfälle til bergning och utkomst, bör Commendanten lemna honom et sådant biträde, samt del af det swar eller uplysning som inkommer.

Rymmer allmän Arbetskarl, erhåller hwar och en som en sådan Rymmare fasttager och på behörigt ställe aflemnar, en belöning af En Riksdaler Tretiotwå Skillingar som genast utbetalas af den Wår Befallningshafwande, i hwars Lån Arbetskarlen ertappas.

S. 10. Beswår öfwer Wåre Befallningshafwandes Utslag, då någon blifwer dömd at til Allmänna Arbetsinrättningen afföras, eller i frågor om de redan dömdes lösgifwande deriförn, må hos Oss i Wår Justitiæ-Revisions-Expedition anföras, inom samma tid som, i anseende til Wårfningsmål, uti 57 s. af 1802 års Wårfnings-Stadga föreskrifwit är, hwilken hänwisning i Utslaget skal införas eller den dömda kungöras; Och bör, i dylike handlinger, Wårt Nådiga beslut afwaktas, innan den dömda afföres eller lösgifwes; ågande Wåre Befallningshafwande eller Commendanterna at, då de derom anlitas, slike Beswår emottaga och til bemålte Wår Expedition insända.

S. 11. I följe af hwad uti ofwanberörde måtto blifwit stadgadt, åligger det Commendanterna å Rikets Fästningar, at nu genast, en hwar til den Wår Befallningshafwande, i hwars Lån Fästningen är belågen, upgifwa de Fångar, hwilkas föreskrifne arbetstid til ånda lupit, med de berättelser om dem, hwilka kunna tjena til erforderlig uplysning, på det Wåre Befallningshafwande sedermera må kunna förordna, huru med dem vidare förhållas skal. Detsamma i akttaga Commendanterna jemwål sedermera, i anseende til andre på bestämd tid til Fästningsarbete dömda Fångar, så tidigt, at Wår Befallningshafwandes swar hinner ankomma, til des arbetstiden slutad är.

S. 12. Hwad i öfrigt å hwarje ort, der desse Arbetsställen äro inrättade, wid sjelfwa styrelsen skal i akttagas, derom hafwe Wi särskilt i Nåder förordnat: börande denna Wår Nådiga Författning, en gång om året, Söndagen näst före den å Landet wanliga upsägnings-tid, i alla Kyrkor öfwer hela Riket upläsas, samt Wåre Befallningshafwande öfwer verkställigheten deraf noga hand hålla. Det alle, som wederbör, hafwe sig hörsammeligen at efterrätta. Til yttermera wisso hafwe Wi detta med Egen Hand underskrifwit, och med Wårt Kongl. Sigill bekräfta låtit. Carlsruhe Slott den 27 Februarii 1804.

GUSTAF ADOLPH. (L. s.)

(Translation.)

HIS Majesty's Gracious Ordinance respecting the establishment of Public Working Institutions for the Kingdoms of Svea and Gotha, and for the Grand Duchy of Finland.—Issued at the Palace of Carlsruhe, the 27th of February 1804.

WE, Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden and of the Goths and Vandals, &c. &c. &c., Heir to Denmark and Norway, Duke of Schlessvig Hollstein, &c. &c., make known: Whereas the promoting of the security of our faithful subjects, both in their persons and property, forms a principal object for Our solicitude, it is with regret We have observed the manner in which this security has frequently been disturbed by persons who, partly from levity, vice and indolence, relinquish the opportunities afforded them of obtaining the necessary means of subsistence, and of becoming useful members of society; partly also by those who, in consequence of the crimes they have committed, have been punished and released from the prisons, and who are seldom able or willing to procure the lawful means of support, but, in a similar way as the former, stroll about the country and burthen the public by begging or disturbing the public peace by fresh crimes and outrages. In order on the one hand to promote the above-mentioned important object, namely, the public security, and on the other hand, to compel those who abuse their liberty to become useful and provide for their improvement, We have now, as a beginning, adopted measures for the establishment of such working institutions at Carlsrona, for the kingdoms of Svea and Gotha, and at Sveaborg for Finland, where the unemployed and persons of vicious habits may be employed, under such superintendence as may be deemed necessary for their safe custody and for the due performance of their work, and where they may obtain suitable and necessary means of support, without being mixed, as heretofore, with felons or with such persons who, in consequence of the crimes they have committed, may have been adjudged to fortress labour.

In furtherance of these objects, it is therefore hereby enacted as follows:

S. 1. To these institutions, which shall bear the name of public working places, the department exercising the functions of Our chief stadtholder at Stockholm and Our lords-lieutenants of counties, shall have the right to adjudge the following classes for an indefinite period, namely:

1st. Such persons who, either for the first or second time, may have been punished for theft, or else those that may for other crimes have been adjudged to fortress labour, but after having undergone their punishments, or the time of their labour having expired, are unable to state any lawful occupation by which they might probably be able to support themselves, or who cannot produce a responsible person who is willing to take them into his service, and who will undertake that they shall not become burthensome to the public by strolling about the country.

2d. Vagabonds or vagrants, by which is to be understood such description of persons as are enumerated in the 15th paragraph of Our gracious Ordinance of the 7th of April 1802, for regulating the impress service, as also strolling gipsies and mountebanks, which persons are, by Our gracious letter addressed to the lords-lieutenants of counties, of the 17th November 1772, liable to fortress labour, and who by Our Ordinance of the 18th of April 1781, and the renewed notification of the Board of Trade of the 22d of February 1802, are prohibited from being furnished with passports.

3d. Such soldiers as may, in conformity with the 11th chapter of the articles of war of the year 1798, have been struck off the regimental muster-rolls. It is however to be observed, that the commander of the regiment must in such case make a written report to the office of the chief stadtholder or Our lords-lieutenants, respecting such a circumstance, and the cause that has led to the same.

4th. Such persons who, on pain of punishment, may have been prohibited from revisiting certain towns or places, but notwithstanding are found disobeying the orders given them.

5th. Such labourers, servants or soldiers as may have been discharged from their services, who are mentioned in the 1st, 2d, 3d and 5th section of the ordinance for regulating the impress service, who upon being questioned, and after the time fixed for each person by these sections shall have expired, shall be unable to assign for themselves some certain and immediate employment or other lawful means of support.

6th. All Swedish journeymen mechanics who shall not without legal cause, or from other proved circumstances, have been prevented, but have neglected to apply to a master for employment within 14 days after his arrival at any town.

7th. Journeymen mechanics, who after receiving two warnings, first from the alderman and assistants of his trade, and the second time from a magistrate, shall either exhibit such unsteadiness of conduct or impertinence that no master will take them into his employ, or who, from leading a dissolute life or from laziness, shall absent themselves from work.

8th. Emigrants arriving from abroad, who shall not within 12 days enter into service or into any other lawful pursuit, and who shall not be liable to be delivered up.

9th. Extra watchmen, either at the public or town institutions, and officers and seizing-officers at the public tollgates, at the public scales, or similar places equally circumstanced, having no other means of support, but who shall, for a period of six weeks, and without legal cause or without permission, have absented themselves from their employment.

S. 2. Such of the persons enumerated in the preceding paragraph who may be fit for the army, and who have not forfeited their right to serve Us and the Crown in capacity of

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soldiers, shall not be sent to the public working institution, but they shall be proceeded with as pointed out in the regulations for the impress service. The description of fortress prisoners mentioned in the first section of the same paragraph, and who shall not have committed any greater crime than that they may enter the military service, shall however possess the right to make their election, whether they wish to enter such service or to be sent to the public working institution.

S. 3. To these public working places no other persons shall be sent but those of the male sex and such as are fit for work, and consequently no very old or infirm person, or any person who may be found to be attacked with such incurable diseases or other bodily defects as may render them incapable of performing their work.

S. 4. In order that the object of this Our Ordinance may be carried into effect, and Our lords-lieutenants be enabled to enforce the observance of its provisions, it shall be the duty of the clergy to fulfil the provisions ordered in Our gracious circular addressed to all the consistory courts of the 7th of April 1802; but especially it shall be the duty of the Crown and town officers and magistrates concerned, under pain of responsibility, to discover and report without loss of time to Our lords-lieutenants, all such persons who, as above stated, may have rendered themselves liable to the performance of public labour; and in the event of the Crown and town officers showing any neglect in this respect, Our lords-lieutenants shall have the right to punish or prosecute them for such neglect, in manner pointed out in the 7th paragraph of the 1st chapter of the Act regulating executions; and likewise such persons as shall be found to harbour persons of loose character, without making the same known to the proper authorities, shall be fined six rix-dollars, 32 skilings, to go to the informer.

S. 5. When such persons as are here above enumerated, or others who can be compared with them, shall be found either in towns or country places within the county to which they may be considered as belonging, without having any residence or really living at any other place, Our department for executing the office of chief stadtholder and Our lords-lieutenants shall, without any further process, give orders for their being sent to the public working place; but when a person, respecting whom any doubts may arise, shall belong to another county, and who may consequently, from casual circumstances or as a vagrant, have arrived there, he must be taken into custody on the spot, and information be given of the nature of the case and such circumstances as can be ascertained, to such of Our lord-lieutenant to whose county the man may belong; after which Our said lord-lieutenant shall, without loss of time, return such an answer that it may be ascertained by the same whether the person apprehended shall be sent to the public working place or forwarded to the place to which he may belong, or else be set at liberty. Should it be found that the person thus apprehended has given a false account of his place of abode, he shall, on discovery being made, be sent forthwith to the public working place.

S. 6. When any person shall, by Our department for executing the office of chief stadtholder or Our lords-lieutenants, be adjudged to be sent to the public working place, a decision in writing respecting the case shall be drawn up and a protocol kept, in which shall be stated the circumstances attending the life and conduct of the person in question, as far as the same may be ascertained, or whether he has been accused of any crime, and has been sentenced for the same, what degree of punishment he may have undergone, for what vices and misconduct he may in reality have made himself conspicuous and known, and whether he has been taught any trade or business, and so forth.

S. 7. Travelling expenses for sending these persons to the public working place, shall be allowed in the same order and ratio as are enacted for prisoners; and it is hereby to be observed on the one hand, that these persons, as far as circumstances will permit, shall not be secured in the same manner as common prisoners, but on the other hand, in a manner so as to prevent all means of escape, Our department of chief stadtholder and Our lords-lieutenants having the power to give directions how and in what manner such a person shall be secured during his transport, and which shall be inserted in the open passport that shall be sent with him on his departure.

S. 8. On the arrival at the public work place, the workman shall, where there is a lord-lieutenant appointed, be delivered to such lord-lieutenant, who shall afterwards deliver him to the commandant. Should there be no lord-lieutenant appointed in the district where the public work place is situated, the workman shall be immediately delivered over to the commandant; and the protocol and decision mentioned in the 6th paragraph, shall be sent with the workman, and which shall be noted down in the prison passport. This protocol and decision, which must be delivered together with the workman, shall afterwards be kept in the custody of the commandant. Should the person sentenced to work be in possession of money, wearing apparel, or other trifling property, beyond what he may require for present use, the former shall be forwarded to Our lord-lieutenant at the place where the work institution is situated, and of the wearing apparel or any other articles he may be possessed of, an inventory shall be taken and inserted in the prison passport, in order that these articles may be placed under proper care, to be delivered on his arrival.

S. 9. When any person, in the manner here above enacted, shall have been sentenced to be sent to the public work place and shall have arrived there, he cannot afterwards be released from such place, until it shall have been ascertained with perfect certainty that he has obtained employment as a servant or any other lawful means of support, by which the cause of his being sent to such a place shall have ceased. Nevertheless he must not be delivered over until a half-year shall have expired from the time of his arrival at the public work institution, unless some special circumstances should render it advisable.

Should

Should he, during the period allotted to him for work, have rendered himself conspicuous for loose conduct and idleness, he shall, notwithstanding he may have obtained protection or the means of support, not be liberated until he shall have amended his conduct. The power of determining whether he ought to be released or not, shall be vested in Our lord-lieutenant in the county where the work institution is situated; it being the duty of the commandant to report to Our said lord-lieutenant all such questions as may arise on occasions of a public workman being liberated. But when a public workman shall desire that letters may be written to other places on his behalf, with a view to find out means for him either to be taken into service, or to find an opportunity for his support and maintenance, it shall be the duty of the commandant to render him such assistance, and to communicate to him the nature of the answer or information that may be received.

Should a public workman abscond, any person who shall apprehend such runaway person and deliver him at the proper place, shall receive a reward of one rix-dollar and 32 skillings, which shall be immediately paid by Our lord-lieutenant of the county wherein the workman may be apprehended.

S. 10. Appeals against the decisions of Our lords-lieutenants, when any person shall have been sentenced to be sent to the public work institution, or on questions arising, whether those already sentenced shall be liberated from such a place, may be made to Us in Our department of judicial review, within the same time as is prescribed with respect to cases of impressment in the 57th paragraph of the ordinance for regulating the impress service of the year 1802, which appeal shall either be inserted in the sentence, or be made known to the person sentenced; and in such cases, Our gracious determination shall be received, before the person sentenced can be sent off or liberated, it being the duty of Our lords-lieutenants or commandants, when they shall be requested, to receive and forward similar appeals to our said department of judicial review.

S. 11. In consequence of what has here above been enacted, it shall be the duty of all the commandants of the fortresses in the kingdom now to make an immediate report, each to Our lord-lieutenant in the county where the fortress may be situated, of such prisoners whose prescribed time of labour may have expired, with such an account of them as may afford requisite informations in order that Our lords-lieutenants may afterwards give directions how and in what manner such persons shall be further disposed of. The same measures shall likewise afterwards be adopted by the commandants with respect to other prisoners that may for a definite period have been sentenced to fortress labour, and this so early that Our lord-lieutenant's answer to such reports may arrive before the expiration of the term fixed for the labour of the prisoners.

S. 12. As regards these working places in other respects in each district, and what ought to be observed in the internal government of the same, We have made separate gracious enactments; and this Our gracious Ordinance shall be read once a year in all the churches of the kingdom, on the Sunday next preceding the usual time for giving notice of quitting service, and Our lords-lieutenants shall see that the same is strictly carried into effect; to which all whom it may concern have obediently to conform themselves. In further testimony whereof, We have hereunto set our hand and confirmed the same with Our royal seal. The palace of Carlsruhe, the 27th of February 1804.

GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS. (L.S.)

KONGL. MAJ:TS Nådiga Kungörelse, Angående den allmänna skyldigheten at bidraga til de Fattiges wård och försörjande.—Gifwen Stockholms Slott den 14 Februarii 1811.

Wi Carl med Guds Nåde Sweriges, Göthes och Wendes Konung, &c. &c. &c. Arfwinge til Norrige, Hertig til Schlesswig Hollstein, &c. &c. Göre weterligt: At sedan Riksens Ständer wid Riksdagen i Stockholm genom underdånig Skrifwelse af den 24 November 1809 hos Oss i underdånighet hemställt, det Wi i Nåder måtte tackas tillförordna en Committé, hwilken, efter inhemtad kunskap om Fattigförsörjnings-anstalterne i Riket, til nästa Lagtima Riksdag borde utarbete et Förslag til en Fattigwård, allmän för Riket och lämpad efter särskilte Orters enskilda beskaffenhet och behof, samt Riksens Ständer tillika i underdånighet anhållit, at Wi i Nåder tacktes emedlertid widtaga de provisoriske anstalter, hwilka kunde finnas nödige och nyttige; hafwe Wi, så wål i afseende härå, som hwad Riksens Ständer i senare underdånige Skrifwelser i enahanda afsigt andragit, samt hwad wid särskilte frågor om Fattigwården förekommit, i Nåder ansett nödigt, at til befrämjande af de nyttige och wålgörande ändamål Riksens Ständer åsyftat, genom Proposition, gifwen wid Urtima Riksdagen i Örebro den 31 Augusti 1810, i Nåder inhemta Riksens Ständers underdåniga Utåtande, huruwida icke skyldigbeten at försörja de Fattige, ware sig äldre eller Barn, må anses åligga hwar och en som icke sjelf är i behof af andras hielp, samt huruwida, i följd häraf, de beslut, som of Städer och Församlingar på Landet genom pluralitet widtagas om afgifter til de Fattiges försörjande, sedan de samma blifwit af Oss pröfwade och gillade, må anses förbinda dem, hwilka, oaktadt föregången offentlig kallelse, warit frånwarande, eller ock til beslutet nekat, åfwensom dem hwilka sedermera inflytta til Staden eller Församlingen; hwarwid syntes noga böra iakttagas, at å ena sidan icke en öfwerdrifwen tunga måtte kunna någon emot des wilja påläggas, och icke eller å den andra någon undandraga sig en pligt, den både Christendom, mensklighet och medborgerlighet göra helig och owilkorlig.

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Til swar hårå hafwa Riksens Ständer uti Skrifwelse af den 17 October sistledit år i under dånighet andragit, at de af Oss sålunda framstålde grunder til de Fattiges försörjande, och såttet at beståmma de dertil erforderlige afgifter, woro enlige så wål med ånnu gällande allmänna Författningar i detta åmne, som med samhållsordningens ostridiga fordringar; och hafwa Riksens Ständer så mycket heldre gillat och antagit desse grunder, som, då de inom hwarje Stad eller Församling på Landet i följd deraf widtagne beslut om afgifter til de Fattiges underhåll, böra af Oss pröfwas och fastställas, all farhoga för desse afgifters ojemna och egenmäktige fördelning synts förswinna, och at de wid Socknestämmor förut ingångne friwillige öfwerenskommelser om Fattigförsörjningen emedlertid kunde tjena til efterrättelse; Dock hafwa Riksens Ständer trott, til större tydlighet, det böra bestämdt uttryckas, at pluraliteten wid fattande af ofwannämde beslut skal beräknas efter det å hwarje ställe i sådane frågor wanliga omröstningssätt.

Hwad af Oss och Riksens Ständer sålunda blifwit föreslagit, gillat och antagit, hafwe Wi i Nåder för godt funnit at härigenom allmänneligen kungöra, för at tjena til grund och rättensnöre wid de särskilte frågor, som i Städer och Församlingar på Landet kunna upkomma om de Fattiges försörjande, intil des den af Riksens Ständer önskade allmänna Författning i detta åmne wid nästinstundande Lagtima Riksdag kan blifwa stadgad.

De öfwerenskommelser hwilka emedlertid i Städer och Församlingar på Landet kunna träffas, wele Wi, efter föregången pröfning, altid i Nåder wara benågne at stadfästa; åfwensom Wi härigenom til sådane öfwerenskommelsers ingående, der de ånnu saknas, hafwa i Nåder welat upmuntra Wåre trogne Undersåtare, med Nådig erinran, at lika så nödwändigt det år, at draga försorg om dem, hwilka åro i verkligt behof af hjelp och understöd, likaså angelågit år ock, at söka förekomma tiggerier och armod genom omsorgen at öppna utwågar til arbete och förtjenst.

Och skole Wi altid med Nådigt wålbehag anse de anstalter, hwilka i sådant afseende widtagas. Det alle, som wederbör, hafwe sig hörsammeligen at efterrätta. Til yttermera wisso, hafwe Wi detta med Egen Hand underskrifwit och med Wårt Kongl. Sigill bekräfta låtit. Stockholms Slott den 14 Februarii 1811.

CARL. (L. s.)

(Translation.)

HIS Majesty's Gracious Ordinance respecting the general Duty to contribute to the Care and Support of the Poor.—Given at the Palace of Stockholm, the 14th of February 1811.

WE, Charles, by the Grace of God, King of Sweden and of the Goths and Vandals, &c. &c. &c.; Heir to Norway, Duke of Schlessvig Hollstein, &c. &c.; make known: Whereas the States of the kingdom, assembled at the Diet at Stockholm, have, by a humble address of the 24th of November 1809, humbly submitted to Us, that We might be graciously pleased to order the appointment of a committee, which, after having obtained the necessary information respecting the existing institutions for the care of the poor in the kingdom, ought, before the commencement of the next ordinary diet, to draw up and prepare a project for the management of the poor, to be made general for the whole of the kingdom, and adapted to the local nature and necessity of each separate district, and the States of the kingdom have at the same time humbly requested that We might in the mean time be graciously pleased to adopt such provisional measures as might be deemed necessary and advantageous; We have, as well in consideration hereof as in respect to what the States of the kingdom have by subsequent humble addresses with the same view represented, as also with regard to what has passed on separate questions respecting the maintenance of the poor, considered it necessary, in furtherance of the useful and benevolent objects aimed at by the States of the kingdom, by their proposition made at the extraordinary diet held at Örebro the 31st of August 1810, graciously to take the humble opinion of the States of the kingdom, how far it may be considered the duty of every person who may not himself be in want of assistance from others, to support the poor, whether aged people or children, and also how far, as a consequence hereof, the resolutions which may be adopted by inhabitants of towns or by country parishes by plurality of votes, respecting the imposition of rates for the maintenance of the poor, after the same shall have been submitted to and approved by Us, should not be considered binding on those who, notwithstanding public notice having been made, have been absent, or else have dissented from the resolutions, or on those who may afterwards have removed into the town or the parish; whereby it seemed very necessary to observe, on the one hand, that no excessive burthen ought to be imposed upon any person against his will, but on the other hand that no person ought to be exempted from a duty which Christianity, humanity and social obligations render sacred and imperative.

In reply hereto, the States of the kingdom have, by letter of the 17th of October last year, humbly represented, that the propositions thus made by Us for the maintenance of the poor, and the manner of determining the rates necessary for the purpose, are not only in accordance with the now existing general laws on the subject, but also consonant with the undeniable demands of social order; and the States of the kingdom have the more readily approved and accepted of these propositions, as by the resolutions that will be adopted in consequence thereof by each town or parish in the country respecting the rates to be raised

raised for the maintenance of the poor having to be submitted and confirmed by us, it must appear that all fear of an unequal and partial assessment of the rates will be removed, and that in the mean time the voluntary agreements formerly entered into at the parish vestries for the maintenance of the poor shall serve as a guide. The States of the kingdom have, however, thought it right, for the sake of greater facility, that it should be expressly stated, that the majority of votes on the above-mentioned resolutions being adopted, should be reckoned according to the usual mode of voting on such questions in each place.

We have been graciously pleased hereby to make publicly known what has thus been proposed, approved and adopted by us and the States of the kingdom, in order that the same may serve as a principle and guide for deciding the separate questions that may arise in towns and country parishes respecting the maintenance of the poor, until the general ordinance on this subject desired by the States of the kingdom at the next ensuing ordinary Diet can be enacted.

The agreements that may in the mean time be entered into in towns or parishes, we will, after due deliberation, always be graciously inclined to confirm; and we are hereby desirous of encouraging our faithful subjects to enter into such agreements in such places where they may still be wanting, with this gracious observation, that it is not only necessary to take care of those that are in real want of assistance and support, but equally important also to endeavour to prevent begging and pauperism, by proper care being taken to open channels for industry and merit.

And we shall always with gracious satisfaction view all measures which may be adopted in furtherance of such an object: to which all whom it may concern have obediently to conform themselves. In further testimony, we have hereunto set our own hand, and confirmed the same with our Royal seal.—The Palace of Stockholm, the 14th of February 1811.

CHARLES. (L.S.)

KONGL. Maj:ts Nådiga Förrådning, Angående Sysslolöse och wanartige personers insättande och hållande till arbete å de allmänna Arbets-Inrättningarne i Carlsrona och Wadstena.—Gifwen Stockholms Slott den 31 Augusti 1819.

Wi Carl Johan, med Guds Nåde, Sweriges, Norriges, Göthes och Wendes Konung, Göre weterligt: att då Wi funnit, att hwad hitintills blifwit stadgadt, angående sysslolöse och wanartige personers hållande till allmänt arbete, fordrar rättelse, och Wi jämte den förut i Carlsrona warande allmänna arbetsanstalt, nu låtit i Wadstena en annan inrätta; så hafwe Wi funnit godt, att med upphåfwande af Förrådningen den 27 Februarii 1804 om allmänna arbetsställen, samt hwad genom Kongl. Brefwet den 24 December 1805 blifwit föreskrifwit, jämte öfrige i detta ämne utkomne Författningar och föreskrifter, som emot denna Wår Nådiga Förrådning i någon mohn äro stridande, härmedelst i Nåder stadga och förordna följande.

S. 1. Till allmän Arbets-Inrättning åga Wåre Befallningshafwande, ware sig Öfwer-Ståthållare-Embetet i Stockholm eller Landshöfdingarne i Lånen, att på obestämd tid döma 1^o Lösdrifware, då de beswåra allmänheten med Tiggeri, och utrymme till deras intagande saknas i särskildt arbetshus, som i Lånet kan wara inrättadt; och 2^o sådane personer, hwilka undergått bestraffning för tjufnad och äro såsom Lösdrifware att anse.

S. 2. Lösdrifware är den, som icke ingått i allmän tjänst eller icke innehafwer landtbruk, årstjänst, annat stadigt arbete eller wist tillåtet näringsfång eller icke af egne tillgångar eller genom andras wårddnad bergning eller uppehälle njuter; eller icke å landet är gift, mantalskrifwen och boende å wist ställe, där han årligen sig försörjer; eller icke förrättar tjänst hos den husbonde, som honom i mantal skrifwa låtit.

S. 3. De Soldater, hwilka jämnlit 11. cap. 7, s. af 1798 års Krigs-Articlar blifwit från Regementets Rullor utstrukne och till arbete å fästning förfallne äro, skola i stället till allmän Arbets-Inrättning afföras.

S. 4. Ej må till desse allmänna Arbets-Inrättningar såndas den, som för ålder, obotlig sjukdom eller kroppsskada är till arbete oförmögen; ej eller Qwinna.

S. 5. Innan någon må till Arbets-Inrättning dömas, skall lämpelig tid honom föreläggas, att sjelf förskaffa sig tjänst eller lagligt näringsfång. Har personen warit för tjufnad straffad; åge Wår Befallningshafwande, att efter omständigheterna pröfwa, om han under tiden må ställas på fri fot eller i fångsligt förwar förblifwa.

S. 6. Anträffas någon, hwilken såsom Lösdrifware anses må, utom det Lån, hwartill han hör; meddele Wår Befallningshafwande i orten, där Karlen häktad blifwit, den af Wåre Befallningshafwande, till hwars Lån Karlen förmenes höra, underrättelse om förhållandet och de omständigheter, som utrönas kunnat. Wår sistbemålde Befallningshafwande afgifwe därefter skyndsammast sådant swar, att därpå pröfwas kan, om den häktade bör försändas till allmän Arbets-Inrättning eller till den ort, dit han hör, eller ock på fri fot ställas.

S. 7. Då någon till allmän Arbets-Inrättning dömes, skall skrifteligt Utslag därom författas. Protocollet, som angående sådan person föres, innehålle hans ålder och utseende, så ock hans lefnads-omständigheter, så widt de utrönas kunnat; om han för brott warit anklagad eller dömd; hwad straff han undergått; för hwilka laster eller oarter han egentligen gjort sig känd; om han lårt något handtwerk; med mera, som till upplysning om personen lända kan.

P. L. (P).

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S. 8. Den till Arbets-Inrättning dömde skall af Wår Befallningshafwande förpassas till Landshöfdingen i den ort, där arbetsstället är beläget, eller, om Landshöfdingesåte där ej finnes, till Commendanten; Och innehålle den Förpassning jämwäl Karlens namn, ålder och utseende, så ock en noggrann förteckning på de kläder och andra tillhörigheter, som han medförer. Protocoll och Utslaget öfwer den dömde skola öfwersändas till Wår Befallningshafwande i det Lån, där arbetsstället beläget är; Åger Karlen penningar, skola de ock sagde Handlingar åtfölja.

S. 9. Till arbetsfänges afsändande består skjuts efter samma grund och ordning, som för andra fångar fastställt är; och må arbetsfänge icke fångslas swårare, än omständigheterna owilkorligen fordra, Pröfningen af Förpassningsåttet tillkommer Wår Befallningshafwande och sätte han det i Förpassningen ut.

S. 10. Wid ankomsten till Arbetsstället aflämnas Arbetskarlen och de tillhörigheter, honom medföljt, till Wår Befallningshafwande eller Commendanten, efter thy i Förpassningen förskrifwes; och låte Wår Befallningshafwande, enär Karlen till honom förpassad warit, denne, jämte hans tillhörigheter, till Commendanten öfwerlämna. Det till Wår Befallningshafwande öfwersände Protocoll och Utslag, angående Arbetskarlen, warde ock Commendanten tillståldt.

S. 11. Åstundar Jordbrukare eller annan i orten boende person att begagna Arbetskarl till arbete, som wid Inrättningen ej kan verkställas; anmäle hos Commendanten huru lång tid och till hwad arbete, han will Karlen använda. Finnes den person, hwilken anmält sig om Fångens utbekommande, åga utwäg till sysselsättning för honom och hafwa gjort sig så känd, att Fången kan honom anförtros, samt har Arbetskarl uppfört sig så pålitligt, att han må på fri fot wara, utsatte Commendanten den dagspenning, som skålig wara kan; och, der den andra will den erlåggas, warde Karlen utlämnad. Ej skall dock Commendanten tillåta, att någon ifrån Inrättningen uttages till arbete, som menligt är; ej eller må dagspenning betingas till mindre, än hwad Karlen kunnat förtjena, om han wid Inrättningen qwar warit, der Karlen ej sjelf samtycker, att för mindre dagspenning arbeta.

S. 12. Den, som Arbetskarl uttager, på sätt i 11. s. sågs, sware för hans fortkomst till det ställe, där arbetet förrättas skall och för hans åter-inställande, då arbetstiden ute är; ware ock skyldig, att utom den dagspenning, som betingad är efter thy i foregående s. sågs, honom med förswarlig föda och underhåll förse från den dag, han uttages till dess han återställes. Under arbetstiden åge den, som Karlen begagnar, öfwer honom Husbonderätt efter Lag. Tager Arbetskarl flykten under det han så ute är; gifwe den, som honom uttagit, det genast Commendanten tillkänna; och foga han anstalt, att lysning utfärdad warder, som i 21. s. sågs. Har han, som Karlen uttog, genom underlåten tillsyn eller annorledes bewisligen och med uppsåt främjat Arbetskarlens flykt, gälde kostnaden till hans efterspaning och återskaffande.

S. 13. Då Arbetskarl, som utewarit på arbete, til Inrättningen återställes, gifwe den, som honom begagnat, bewis huru han sig förhållit; aflämne ock till Commendanten hwad i dagspenning för hela arbetstiden upplupit, för att såsom bespard arbetsförtjenst karlen till godo komma; dock må derwid afdragas hwad för karlen under den tid, han til enskildt arbete är utlämnad, kan til nödige kläders anskaffande erfordras.

S. 14. Om alt hwad den har att iakttaga, som Arbetskarl til arbete begagna will, efter hwad nu stadgadt är, meddele Commendanten honom underrättelse innan karlen uttages.

S. 15. Gitter Arbetskarl förete bewis af säker person, att denne will taga honom i tjänst eller förse honom med stadigt arbete, eller anmäler sig sådan person, att eljest sörja för hans bergning; ware karlen berättigad, att på fri fot komma. Commendanten gifwe dårom rapport till Wår Befallningshafwande; och förordne han om karlens skyndesamma lösgifwande samt förpasse honom till behörig ort.

S. 16. Har Arbetskarl, sedan han till Arbets-Inrättningen ankom, genom arbete, arf, gåfwa eller testamente förwärfwat penningar till et belopp af Tretiotre Riksdaler 16 Skillingar Banco, och har han, under de Tre sista månaderna, gjort sig för flit och ordning i sitt upförande känd; då skall Wår Befallningshafwande honom på fri fot sätta och med Afskeds-bewis förse. I detta bewis warde hans förhållande under arbetstiden noga utsatt.

S. 17. Commendantens skyldighet ware, att lämna hwem det begår, upplysning om Arbetskarls förhållande under den tid, han wid Inrättningen warit. Han skall ock, när Arbetskarl begår, att till annan ort måtte skrifwas om utwägar för honom, att blifwa i tjänst antagen, eller att eljest winna tillfälle till bergning och utkomst, lämna karlen ett sådant biträde samt del af det swar eller upplysning, som inkommer.

S. 18. At Arbetskarl, som genom flit och pålitligt uppförande sig utmärkt, må meddelas tillåtelse, at på wiss tid och till wiss ort ifrån Inrättningen bortgå, för att höra sig om efter tjänst eller näringsfång. Commendanten gifwe då Arbetskarlen bewis öfwer hans uppförande och Wår Befallningshafwande utfärde för honom pass samt kungöre Wår Befallningshafwande, i den ort, dit karlen sig begifwer, att han utsläppt är, på det tillsyn öfwer hans uppförande må kunna hafwas. Får han tjänst eller näringsfång; anmäle det hos närmaste Kronobetjent i orten; och foga denne anstalt, att Commendanten warder derom underrättad: Får han ej tjänst eller näringsfång; ware skyldig, att åter inställa sig wid Arbets-Inrättningen, då permissionstiden ute är. Kommer han ej, rapportere Commendanten det till Wår Befallningshafwande.

S. 19. Då Arbetskarl ifrån Inrättningen alldeles lösgifwes, skola hans behållna arbetsförtjenst, hwad han eljest under arbetstiden kan hafwa förwärfwat, så ock de kläder och andre tillhörigheter, dem han medfört, till honom utlämnas.

S. 20. Utlämnas Arbetskarl, efter thy i 11. s. sågs, till wiss man, att arbeta utom Inrättningen

Inrättningen; eller tillåtes honom, att på viss tid utgå, för att höra sig om efter tjänst eller näringsfång; så skola hans medförde kläder honom tillställas; och warde i sednare fallet, tillika så mycket af hans behållning till honom utlämnadt, som för hans behof tarfwas kan, medan han borta är.

S. 21. Rymmer Arbetskarl från Inrättningen; eller blifwer den ute, som med tillstånd bortgått, men sig inom viss tid wid Inrättningen åter inställa bordt, efter thy i. 18. s. sågs; låte Wår Befallningshafwande efter honom lysa, och erhålle den, som honom fasttager och på behörigt ställe aflåmnar, en belöning af Sex Riksdaler 32 Skillingar, som genast utbetalas af Wår Befallningshafwande i det Lån, hwarest Arbetskarlen ertappas; Och warde denna utgift ersatt af karlens behållning eller tillgångar, om sådane finnas.

S. 22. Åtnöjes någon ej med Wår Befallningshafwandes Utslag, derigenom han till Arbets-Inrättning dömd, eller hans begäran om lösgifwande derifrån wågrad, blifwit; åge att deröfwer hos Oss anföra underdåniga Beswår, hwilka i Wår Justitiå Revisions Expedition skola ingifwas: ifrån Stockholms Stad å Femtonde dagen: ifrån Upsala, Stockholms, Westmanlands, Södermanlands, Örebro och Gefleborgs Lån, på Tjugonde dagen: ifrån Östergöthlands, Kopparbergs, Jämtlands och Wester Norrlands Lån, på Tjugufemte dagen: ifrån Jönköpings, Kronobergs, Calmare, Blekinge, Christianstads, Malmöhus, Hallands, Götheborgs och Bohus, Elfsborgs, Skaraborgs, Wermelands, Westerbottens och Norrbottens Lån, på Trettionde och ifrån Gottland på Fyrattondefemte dagen: alltid före klockan Tolf på dagen, den dag oråknad, då Parten af Utslaget bewislig del fått. Inträffar tid å Söndag eller Helgedag; ingifwas Beswåren å nästa Söcknedag.

S. 23. Hånwisning till Beswårs anförande skall i Utslaget införas och den dömde kungöras; och åligge Wåre Befallningshafwande eller Commendanterne, att, då de därom anlitas, Beswåren emottaga och till Wår Justitiå Revisions Expedition insända.

S. 24. Den till arbete dömd må ej till Arbets-Inrättning afföras, innan Wi hans Beswår i Nåder pröfwat.

S. 25. Hwad i öfrigt Styrelsen öfwer de allmänna Arbets-Inrättningarne, Arbetskarlarnes sysslosättning, underhåll och behandling med mera angår; därom hafwe Wi särskilt i Nåder förordnat.

Denna Wår Nådiga Förordning kommer att med den 1 sta nästkommande October warda gällande. Det alle, som wederbör, hafwe sig hörsammeligen att efterrätta. Till yttermera wisso hafwe Wi detta med Egen Hand underskrifwit och med Wårt Kongl. Sigill bekräfta låtit.—Stockholms Slott den 31 Augusti 1819.

CARL JOHAN. (L. S.)

(Translation.)

HIS Majesty's gracious Ordinance respecting the detention of unemployed Persons, and Persons of loose character, and the keeping them at Work in the Public Working Institutions at Carlsrona and Wadstena.—Given at the Palace of Stockholm the 31st of August 1819.

WE CHARLES JOHN, by the Grace of God King of Sweden and of the Goths and Vandals, make known: Whereas we have found, that the enactments hitherto made respecting the keeping of unemployed persons, and persons of loose habits, to public work, require amendment; and we have now, in addition to the public working institution formerly established at Carlsrona, caused another similar institution to be established at Wadstena; we have thought it proper to annul the ordinance of the 27th of February 1804, respecting public working institutions, and all the provisions prescribed by the Royal Letter of the 24th of December 1805, as well as all other ordinances and enactments on this subject which may in any degree be contrary to the provisions contained in this Our Royal Ordinance, and do hereby graciously enact and order as follows: that,

S. 1. The officers holding our commission, whether it be the officer executing the office of chief stadtholder at Stockholm, or the lords-lieutenants of counties, shall have the power to sentence to a public working institution, for an indefinite period, 1st, vagrants who burthen the public by begging; and when there shall be want of room for their reception, in any separate working house that may be established in the county; and 2dly, such persons as have undergone punishment for theft, and who are to be considered as vagrants.

S. 2. A vagrant is that person who shall not have entered into the public service, or who does not possess land, is not in yearly service, has no regular work, or some certain lawful occupation, and who does not derive his maintenance and support either from his own means, or through the care of others; or who is not married in a country place, not rated, and resident at any certain place where he honestly supports himself, or who does not serve with the master who shall have caused him to be rated.

S. 3. Such soldiers who, in conformity with the 7th paragraph of the 11th chapter of the articles of war of the year 1798, shall have been struck off the regimental muster-rolls, and are liable to perform labour on a fortress, shall now instead thereof be sent to the public work institution.

S. 4. No person shall be sent to the public work institutions who from age, incurable illness, and bodily injuries, shall be rendered incapable to work; nor females.

S. 5. Before any person shall be sentenced to the work institution, a suitable time shall be allowed him to procure himself employment as a servant, or any other lawful means of

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subsistence. Should the person have been punished for theft, our lords-lieutenants shall have the power to decide according to circumstances, whether the person shall during the time be suffered to be at large, or be kept in custody.

S. 6. Should any person, who may be considered as a vagrant, be found out of the county to which he belongs, then our lord-lieutenant of that county where the man has been taken in custody, shall forward information to our lord-lieutenant of the county to which the man may be supposed to belong, as to the nature of the case, and such circumstances as may have been ascertained; our last-mentioned lord-lieutenant shall thereupon speedily return such an answer, that it may thereby be ascertained whether the man in custody ought to be sent to a public work institution, or to the place where he belongs, or else be suffered to go at large.

S. 7. When any person is sentenced to a public work institution, a decision in writing respecting the case shall be drawn up. The protocol that shall be kept respecting such a person, shall contain his age, a description of his person, and also of the circumstances of his mode of life, so far as they can be ascertained; whether he has been accused of any crime, or sentenced; what kind of punishment he has undergone; for what vices or vicious habits he has made himself especially known; whether he has learnt any business, with other particulars that can afford a knowledge of the person.

S. 8. The person sentenced to a public work institution shall be passed by the officer holding our commission to the lord-lieutenant of the district where the working place is situated, or if there should be no resident governor, to the commandant; and this pass shall also contain the man's name, his age, with a description of his person, as also an exact inventory of his wearing apparel and other articles belonging to him, which he may carry with him. The protocol and decree respecting the person sentenced shall be forwarded to our lord-lieutenant in the county where the work-place is situated; if the man is possessed of money, such money shall be sent with the said documents.

S. 9. For the conveyance of the work-prisoner, travelling expenses shall be allowed in the same manner and rate as are enacted for other prisoners; and a work-prisoner shall not be secured in a more severe manner than circumstances may unavoidably require. The mode of passing the prisoner shall be determined by our lord-lieutenant, a description of which mode shall be inserted in the passport.

S. 10. On arriving at the work-place, the workman shall, together with the effects that accompany him, be delivered over to our lord-lieutenant or the commandant, as may be directed in the passport; and in case the man shall have been passed direct to our lord-lieutenant, the latter shall deliver him, together with his effects, to the commandant. The protocol and sentence forwarded to our lord-lieutenant respecting the workman shall also be delivered over to the commandant.

S. 11. Should any farmer or other person resident in the district be desirous to employ the labourer at any work which cannot be performed at the institution, such person shall state to the commandant for how long a time, and at what description of work, he wishes to employ the man. Should the person who may apply to hire the prisoner be found to have the means of employing him, and that his character is such that the prisoner may safely be entrusted to him, and the labourer has conducted himself so trustworthy that he may be set at large, the commandant shall then fix such wages as may be reasonable; and if the person consents to pay the same, the man shall be delivered over to him. The commandant shall, however, not suffer any person to be taken out of the institution to be placed at any work that may be considered injurious, nor shall less wages be agreed upon than those the man might have earned had he continued at the institution, provided the man himself shall not consent to work for less wages.

S. 12. The person who may take out a labourer from the institution in the manner mentioned in the 11th paragraph, shall be responsible for his travelling expenses to the place where the work is to be performed, and for his return to the institution when the term of labour shall have expired; and shall also, besides the wages agreed upon in the manner mentioned in the preceding paragraph, be bound to provide him with proper food and maintenance from the day he is taken out to the day he is returned to the institution. During the term of labour, the person who employs the man shall possess the authority of master, as prescribed by law. Should the labourer abscond while he is thus absent from the institution, the person who may have taken him out shall immediately communicate such circumstance to the commandant, and he shall adopt measures for public notice being given, as mentioned in the 21st paragraph. Should it be proved that the person who took out the man has neglected to take proper care of him, and has with design caused his escape, he shall pay all the expenses incurred in pursuing and reapprehending him.

S. 13. When the labourer who has been out at work is returned to the institution, the person who has employed him shall give a certificate how he has conducted himself; he shall also deliver to the commandant the wages that may be due to the man for the whole time of labour, to go to the credit of the man, as earnings saved; from this amount shall, however, be deducted, the money required for the procuring of necessary clothing for the man during the time he is hired out for private labour.

S. 14. The commandant shall give to the person who is desirous of employing the man, every information as to the particulars he has to observe by virtue of this enactment, before the man is delivered over to him.

S. 15. Should the labourer be able to produce a certificate from a responsible person, that such person is willing to take him into service, and provide him with constant work, or should such person offer himself in any other way to take care of his maintenance and support,

support, the man shall be entitled to go at large. The commandant shall make a report on such case to our lord-lieutenant, and the latter shall give orders for the man's release, without loss of time, granting him a passport for his place of destination.

S. 16. Should the labourer, after his arrival at the institution, either by means of his labour, inheritance, gift or by will, have acquired money to the amount of 30 rix dollars and 16 skillings banco, and he shall during the last three months have been observed to be industrious and orderly in his conduct, then our lord-lieutenant shall provide him with a certificate of his discharge. In this certificate his conduct during the time of his labour shall be particularly expressed.

S. 17. It shall be the duty of the commandant to give to whomsoever may desire it, an account of any labourer's conduct during the time he has been at the institution; he shall also, when a labourer may desire that letters may be written to other places, with a view to find means for his being accepted into service, or in any other manner find an opportunity for gaining his maintenance and support, grant the man such an assistance, and communicate to him the nature of the answer and information that may be received.

S. 18. Permission may be granted to a labourer who has distinguished himself for industry, and who may be deemed worthy of trust, to leave the institution for a certain time for a place that may be fixed upon, in order to look out for employment or other maintenance. The commandant shall in such case give the labourer a certificate as to his conduct, and our lord-lieutenant shall issue a passport for him, and at the same time make known to our lord-lieutenant in the district to which the man is proceeding, that he has been allowed to leave the institution, in order that superintendence may be had over the man's conduct. Should he succeed to obtain service, or other means for his maintenance, he shall report such circumstance to the nearest crown-bailiff in the neighbourhood, and this latter shall take measures to inform the commandant thereof; should he not succeed in obtaining employment or other means for his maintenance, he shall be bound to return to the institution when his leave of absence shall have expired; should he neglect to return, the commandant shall report the circumstance to our lord-lieutenant.

S. 19. When a labourer is entirely released from the institution, the surplus of his earnings, and what other property he may have acquired during his time of labour, as also the wearing apparel and other articles that he brought with him into the institution, shall be delivered up to him.

S. 20. Should a labourer be hired out in the manner stated in the 11th paragraph, by any person to perform work out of the institution, or he be permitted to go out for a limited time to look out for employment or for other means of support, the wearing apparel that he brought in with him shall be restored to him; and in the latter case likewise, so much of his earnings saved shall be given to him as may satisfy his wants while he is absent.

S. 21. If a labourer shall abscond from the institution, or one who may have left on leave of absence, but does not make his appearance at the institution at the time fixed for his return in the manner stated in the 18th paragraph, our lord-lieutenant shall cause such man to be advertised; and any person who shall apprehend him, and deliver him into safe custody, shall receive a reward of six rix dollars and 30 skillings, which shall be immediately paid by our lord-lieutenant in the county where the man is apprehended; and this charge shall be defrayed out of the man's earnings or resources, should he possess any.

S. 22. Should any person be dissatisfied with our lord-lieutenant's sentence, whereby he has been adjudged to be sent to the public-work institution, or upon his request to be released from the same, being refused, he shall have the right to make his humble appeal to us; such appeal to be delivered into our court of Judicial Review: from the city of Stockholm, on the 15th day; from the provinces of Upsal, Stockholm, Westmanland, Sodermanland, Orebro and Gefleborg, on the 20th day; from the provinces of Oster Gothland, Kopparberg, Jamtland and West Norrland, on the 25th day; from the provinces of Jonkoping, Kronoberg, Calmar, Blekenge, Chrestianstad, Malmohus, Halland, Gotheborg and Bohus, Elfsborg, Skaraborg, Wermeland, Westerbotten and Norrbotten, on the 30th, and from Gothland on the 45th day; in all cases before 12 o'clock in the day, not reckoning the day it can be proved the sentence was communicated to the party; if the period appointed falls on a Sunday or a holiday, the appeals shall be delivered in on the next succeeding working-day.

S. 23. Reference for appeal being made shall be inserted in the judgment, and be communicated to the person who may have received sentence; and it shall be the duty of our lords-lieutenants and the commandants, when required to do so, to receive the appeals, and forward them to our court of judicial review.

S. 24. The person sentenced to labour shall not be forwarded to a public work institution before we shall graciously have considered and decided upon his appeal.

S. 25. As in other respects regards the government of the public work institutions, the occupation of the workmen, their maintenance and treatment, and other matters, we have graciously made separate enactments.

This our gracious ordinance shall be put in force and take effect on the 1st of October next ensuing, which all whom it may concern have obediently to conform themselves. In further testimony, we have subscribed this with our own hand, and caused the same to be confirmed with our royal seal.—The Palace of Stockholm, the 31st of August 1819.

CHARLES JOHN. (L. S.)

Appendix (F.)

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KONGL. Maj: ts Nådiga Förordning, huru med förswarslöse personer förhållas bör.—
Gifwen Stockholms Slott den 29 Junii 1833.

Vi Carl Johan, med Guds Nåde, Sweriges, Norriges, Göthes och Wendes Konung, göre weterligt: att Wi, efter inhämtade utlåtanden ifrån Vårt Öfwer-Ståthållare-Embete i Stockholm och Våre Befallningshafwande i Landsorterne, samt med fästadt afseende å Rikets Ständers wid sistförflutne Riksdag i underdånighet gjorda hemställan, funnit nödigt, att, med uphåfwande af hwad hittills finnes stadgadt, angående behandlingen af sysslolöse och wanartade personer af bägge könen, i Nåder förordna som följer:

S. 1. Hwar och en, som icke ingått uti Vår och Kronans eller annan allmän tjänst, eller idkar med behörigt tillstånd fria konster eller studier, eller handel, fabriksrörelse, handtwerk, sjöfart eller annat lagligt näringsfång, jord- eller bergsbruk, antingen såsom ägare, arrendator eller brukare, eller bewisligen af föräldrar, anhörige eller andre personer underhålles, eller, enligt Församlingens uti Stocknestämman yttrade omdöme, är känd såsom den der årligen sig försörjer, antingen genom egna medel, eller genom arbete eller annan loflig sysselsättning, eller af allmän barmhertighets-anstalt njuter wård och understöd, ware pligtig att antaga sådan tjänst hos husbönder å Landet eller i Ståderne, som gällande Legohjonstadga samt Handels- Fabriks- och Handtwerks-Reglementen föreskrifwa. Den som tjänst ej erhålla kan eller underlåter att dermed sig förse, ställe borgen af en eller flera personer, med wedershåftighets-intyg af Pastor i Församlingen, eller i Stad af Magistrat samt å Landet af Kronofogde, ej mindre för egna och, om det är gift man, hans hustrus och hemmawarande barns utskylder för påföljande året, ån ock för utgifwandet af böter och den ersättning, som böra utgå, i fall samma person under ett år derefter, eller till dess han eller hon dessförinnan kommer i något af ofwansagde förhållanden, begår olofligt tillgrepp eller annan förbrytelse, hwaraf allmän säkerhet störes; dock att löftesmans ansvarighet för böter och ersättning icke öfwerstiger Femtio Riksdaler Banco. Sådan borgen skall, jemte upgift af de slags arbeten, hwarmed personen i fråga will till dess bergning sig sysselsätta, wanligen aflemnas wid mantalsskrifningen i den ort, der samma person har sitt hemwist, men kan personen jemwål affordras, närhelst deremellan fråga om laga förswar upstår; och bör borgen förnyas eller dylik anskaffas wid hwarje mantalsskrifning, så länge förhållandet med personen gör denna säkerhet erforderlig; kommandes den Tjensteman, som löftesskriften emottager, att densamma, i Stockholm till Öfwer-Ståthållare-Embetet, och i Landsorterne till Vår Befallningshafwande i Lånet skyndesammeligen insända.

Blifwer, i följd af ådömda böter och ersättning, löftesman sökt för omnämnde borgen, och dess belopp räcker till ersättningen, men ej till böterna, gånge den förra fullt ut och böterna warde, efter i Lag och Författningar stadgade grunder, till annan bestraffning förwandlade. Är beloppet otillräckligt till full ersättnings gäldande, blifwe det deladt, så långt det räcker, emellan de till ersättning berättigade, i mon af hwarderas fordran.

S. 2. Förswarslös person kallas den, hwilken ej befinnes i något af de förhållanden, som i 1. s. beskrifwas, och ej heller för sig ställt sådan borgen, som der omförmåles.

Under benämningen wanartad förstås i denna Författning person, som blifwit dömd och straffad för bedrägligt eller årerörigt förhållande, eller tjufnad, eller inbrott i afsigt att stjäla, åfwen ock den, hwilken, tilltalad för hwad brott som helst af gröfre art, antingen blifwit dertill saker fälld, eller, i brist af full bewisning, likwål funnits om brottet i den mån beswårad, att saken är åt framtiden lemnad.

Wanartad ware ej berättigad, att med den i 1. s. omnämnde borgen freda sig från skyldigheten att antaga årstjänst, utan så år, att Vår Befallningshafwande, efter inhämtande af erforderlige uplysningar och Församlingens hörande, pröfwar skåligt att sådant må kunna honom tillåtas.

S. 3. Den, som förswarslös person hos sig inhyser, åligge att densamma, enligt Tjenstehjonsstadgans föreskrift, wid der förelagdt answer, angifwa, i Stockholm, innan nästa dag tillåndalöper, hos Öfwer-Ståthållare-Embetet i Policeårender, och utom Stockholm, så snart ske kan, i Ståderne, hos Policekammare eller Magistrat, och å Landet hos wederbörande Kronofogde eller Lånsman. Är den förswarslöse weterligen wanartad, bör sådant tillika anmärkas. Policekammare, Magistrat, Kronofogde eller Lånsman, som sådan anmälan emottager, bör derom underrätta Vår Befallningshafwande i Lånet. Har tjenstehjon obehörigen öfwergifwit årstjänst eller annan stadig sysselsättning, och will husbonde det ej behålla, eller år det i wederbörig ordning för felaktigt förhållande utur tjänst wråkt, ware husbonde, eller den i hans ställe satt år, skyldig att, så fort sig göra låter, hos Öfwer-Ståthållare-Embetet eller Vår Befallningshafwande förhållandet anmäla. Will husbonde utom Stockholm håldre göra sådan anmälan, i Stad, hos Policekammare eller Magistrat, och å Landet hos Kronofogde eller Lånsman, hafwe dertill lof; och åligge sedan den, hos hwilken så beskaffad anmälan sker, att det tillkännagifna förhållandet hos Vår Befallningshafwande inberätta. Hwad om förswarslösa personers efterspanande samt deras angifwande wid och efter mantalsskrifningarne särskildt föreskrifwet år, blifwe åfwen hådanefter till laga werkan gällande.

S. 4. Våre Befallningshafwande åga, när förswarslös person hos dem angifwes, att, wid anställande förhör, eller genom infordrade uplysningar, om det beqwämligare ske kan, noga söka utreda, så wäl personens egenskaper och fråjd, som orsakerne till dess förswarslöshet, och derefter med sådan person widtaga de åtgärder, som denna Författning bjuder. Är sådan person okänd och wågrar uppgifwa namn, födelseort och lefnads omständigheter,

omständigheter, eller betrådes den, att hårutinnan hafwa osann upgift gjort, och kan rätta förhållandet ej genast utredas, warde försänd till allmän corrections-inrättning, att der i enskildt rum förwaras och, så widt sig göra låter, till sysselsättning hållas, intilldess personen tillförlitligen känd blifwer, i hwilket fall underrättelse derom genast skall meddelas wederbörande Wår Befallningshafwande, som då åger att vidare om personen förordna.

S. 5. Förekommer person, hwilken fört oförwitelig wandel, men blifwit förswarslös, icke genom ostadighet eller felaktigt förhållande, utan af orsaker, som ej skäligen kunna den till last föras, och saknas utwäg att sådan person till laga sysselsättning och näringsfång genast förhjelpa, eller till erhållande deraf säker anvisning meddela, samt gitter den samma icke ställa sådan borgen, som i 1. s. sågs, åge Wår Befallningshafwande, att, med afseende å årstiden, som för hand år, samt nästintråffande flyttningstids längre eller kortare aflågsenhet, förelägga den således förswarslöse wiss, efter omständigheterna lämpad, tillräcklig tid, beräknad antigen till den flyttning som förestår, eller, om den år närmare än behofwet af tid kråfwer, till den som näst derefter intråffar, och meddele, der så omtränger, Wår Befallningshafwande sådan person erforderligt pass att afgå till den ort inom eller utom Lånet, hwarest den tror sig kunna tjenst eller arbete till sitt uppehälle ernå. Å sådant pass, inrättadt efter den föreskrift 8. s. af Wår Nådiga Kungörelse den 18 Maji 1824 innehåller, skall finnas passinnehafwarens egenhändige namnteckning, om den kan skrifwa, eller i annat fall korrt anmärkning derom, jemte tryckt underrättelse, angående hwad innehafwaren för obehindrad fortkomst bör iakttaga, samt den påföljd underlåtenheten deraf medförer, hwilka underrättelser böra för den förpassade uprepas. De pass, som hår omtalas, böra ställas till upwisande hos Policekammare, om sådan finnes uti den Stad, dit den tjenstlöse åstundar att sig begifwa, eller hos Wår Befallningshafwande, om Lånsstyrelsen der har sitt säte, men i annat fall hos Borgmästaren eller Magistrats-Secreteraren, samt å Landet hos Kronofogden eller Lånsmanen i orten; och skall den således förpassade skyndesammelig till bestämd ort sig begifwa och genast efter ankomsten anmäla sig hos den i passet anwista Embetsmyndighet eller Tjensteman, samt derförutan hos wederbörande Församlings Pastor, till hwilken jemwål alltid ifrån nyssagde Embetsmyndighet eller Tjensteman, straxt sedan den förpassade ankommit, underrättelse derom afgår; börande bemålte Tjenstemån åfwen ofördröjeligen hos Wår Befallningshafwande den förswarslöses ankomst tillkännagifwa. Får personen ej inom en månad efter ankomsten utwäg till sin bergning, och har under tiden emot dess upförande ej warit att påminna, tage anteckning derom å sitt medhafwande pass, af wederbörande förutnämnde Embetsmyndigheter eller Tjenstemån, och åge rätt att begifwa sig till annan bestämd ort inom samma Lån, hwarom påskrift å passet meddelas bör. I hwarje Stad eller Socken inom Lånet, dit sådan person sedermera ankommer, iakttaga såwål denne, som på stället warande Embets- och Tjenstemån, hwad redan i denna s. stadgadt år. Finner den sökande ej någorstådes i Lånet årstjenst eller laga näringsfång, inom den i passet förelagde tid, och har den sin frihet ej missbrukat, anmäla sig, sedan wederbörande om förhållandet lemnat intyg å passet, så fort ske kan, hos Wår Befallningshafwande i det Lån, der den sysslolöse då wistas, och ware personen berättigad att förlängd tid erhålla, samt att i sådant afseende med nytt pass till bestämd ort blifwa försedd. Policekammare, Borgmästare, Magistrats Secreterare, Kronofogde eller Lånsman inberätte skyndesammelig till Wår Befallningshafwande hwad af dem i ofwännämnde afseenden blifwit åtgjort.

S. 6. Tjenstehjon eller annan förswarslös person, som egenwilligt öfvergifwit tjenst eller stadigt näringsfång och för sådant eller annat felaktigt förhållande blifwit lagligen utur tjenst wråkt, eller icke förrättar tjenst hos husbonde, som låtit personen hos sig mantalsskrifwas, eller såsom en följd af omständigheter, hwilka böra den förswarslöse sjelf tillräknas, kommit i saknad af laglig utwäg till sin försörjning, men icke år såsom wanartad att anse, ware pligtig att, i Stad inom fjorton dagar, och å Landet inom dubbelt så lång tid, med laglig sysselsättning sig förse. Brister den förswarslöse deri och kan den icke heller, med bestämd upgift om sitt hemwist, anskaffa den i 1. s. omförmålte borgen, må uppå Wår Befallningshafwandes pröfning bero, huruwida någon ytterligare bestämd tid kan så beskaffad person lemnas, till beredande af utwäg för sin bergning. Får den sådan tid, må personen, på sätt redan sagdt år, förpassas till wiss ort inom Lånet, der den tror sig kunna laga sysselsättning för sig anskaffa. Ware dock ej derföre fri från det answer, som husbonde eller allmän åklagare åger att, efter lag, i hwarje särskildt fall yrka.

S. 7. Förswarslös person, som icke mera än en gång år för enkel stöld straffad, bör af Wår Befallningshafwande föreläggas tid och meddelas pass, såsom i 6 s. föreskrifwas, att på fri fot söka tjenst eller laga förswar, der ej sådane särskilta förhållanden med personen intråffa, att dess qwarhållande i häckte, under den förelagda tiden, pröfwas wara för allmän säkerhet nödwändigt.

S. 8. Har sådan person, som, efter hwad uti 5. s. förmåles, erhållit förnyadt rådrum till förswars anskaffande, ändock förblifwit utan årstjenst eller annat laga näringsfång, och will den ej vidare annorstådes söka försörjning, eller har den öfwertrådt föreskrift, som i pass warit gifwen, och önskar mansperson ej håldre ingå i tjenst wid indeldt Regemente, Båtsmanshåll eller wårfwad Trupp, eller saknar han dertill erforderlige egenskaper, eller han ändock, efter af Wår Befallningshafwande, med bifogande af karlens beskrifning samt behöriga Prest- och Läkarebetyg, hos wederbörande Chefsembete skedd anmälan, icke till krigstjenst antages, må personen försändas till sysselsättning wid allmänt arbete, som i orten förhafwes, eller arbets-inrättning inom Lånet, intilldess annat tillfälle till bergning sig yppar; åge dock, enår uppsägningsdag intråffar, frihet intill nästa flyttningstid, att söka sig

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laga förswar hos den hans arbete inom Lånet kan behöfwa, under skyldighet att, om det ej erhålles, sig åter wid det allmänna arbetsstället infinna. Är allmänt arbete icke å orten att tillgå, eller finnes ej Lånet tillhörig arbets-inrättning, eller kan derstädes, för brist på nödigt utrymme, personen ej emottagas, warde förwist till allmän corrections-inrättning, för att der, utan sammanblandning med wanartade eller för brott straffade personer, förblifwa, intilldess utwäg till laga näringsfång för honom eller henne sig yppar, och med rättighet att, om dessförinnan upsägningsdag inträffar, åtnjuta den här förut nämnda frihet.

S. 9. De i 6. s. omförmålte tjenstehjon eller andra personer, som antingen icke ansetts böra åtnjuta förlängd tid, till anskaffande af laga näringsfång, eller, sådant oaktadt, icke kunnat dermed sig förse, ware förfallne till arbete, man wid Pionniercorps i Riket, och qwinna wid allmän corrections-inrättning. Är mansperson till Pionnier oduglig, warde i stället wid allmän corrections-inrättning anställd.

S. 10. Har sådan förswarslös, som i 7. s. nämnes, ej inom förelagd tid årstjenst eller laga näringsfång sig förskaffat, förfares med honom eller henne som i 9. s. är stadgad.

S. 11. Är förswarslös person förpassad, att söka sig tjenst eller arbete, och antråffas å annan wäg eller ort än den, hwarå passet lyder, eller är den i passet förelagda tid förfluten, warde insänd till Wår Befallningshafwande i det Lån, hwarest personen anhålles. Denne Wår Befallningshafwande pröfwe då omständigheterna, samt återsände personen till det Lån, dit den hörer, eller förfare med densamma efter de i 8., 9. eller 10. s. s. stadgade grunder.

S. 12. Frisk och arbetsför person, som utan pass eller wederbörligt tillstånd kringstryker, eller allmänheten med bettlande beswårar, warde genast gripen och öfwerlemnad, i Stockholm till Öfwer-Ståthållare-Embete, och i Landsorterne till den af Wåre Befallningshafwande, inom hwars Lån den antråffas, och åge Wår Befallningshafwande, att, efter inhämtade underrättelser, till utredande af personens fråjd och lefnadsomständigheter, med densamma widtaga den åtgärd, som wederbör. Är personen ej wanartad, förpassas då till sin hemort, med föreläggande att inom en månad efter ditkomsten wara med laga förswar försedd. Försittes denna tid, eller underlåtes passets skyndesamma upwisande för behörig Tjensteman, wid ankomsten till hemorten, ware den förswarslöse underkastad skyldighet, man att tjena wid Pionniercorps, och qwinna att hållas till arbete wid allmän corrections-inrättning. Med wanartad person förhållas som i 13. s. stadgas. De af Bruks- och Manufacturägare utsände uphandlings- eller försäljningsmän, som utöfwer förelagd tid begagna erhållna pass, dem missbruka, eller begifwa sig till ort, hwarå passet ej lyder, warde, om de sakna annat förswar än nyssberörde updrag, förfallne till tjenstgöring wid Pionniercorps eller, om de åro wanartade, till arbete wid allmän corrections-inrättning.

S. 13. Person, som i högre grad än i 7. s. sågs, är wanartad och saknar laglig utwäg till sin bergning, warde öfwerlemnad, i Stockholm till Wårt Öfwer-Ståthållare-Embete i Policeårender, och i Landsorterne till Wår Befallningshafwande i Lånet. Gitter sådan person genast upgifwa wålkånd och till tjenstehjons antagande behörig husbonde, som will densamma i tjenst hos sig antaga, samt om dess upförande sig wårda, aflemne husbonde till Wår Befallningshafwande skriftelig förbindelse, ej allenast att sådan wård iakttaga, utan ock att låta personen, om den ej förut i mantal antecknad är, hos sig skattskrifwas, samt att, i afseende på upsägning och afflyttning, såsom om tjenstehjon i allmänhet stadgad är, med personen förfara och, i händelse den tjensten förlöper, sådant ofördröjeligen hos Öfwer-Ståthållare-Embete i Stockholm, Policekammare eller Magistrat i andra Städer eller närmaste Kronobetjent å Landet anmäla; och warde, efter det så beskaffad förbindelse blifwit afgifwen, personen genast till husbonde aflemnad, eller på hans bekostnad hos honom inställd. Wisar icke sådan wanartad sig åga utwäg till årstjenst eller annat laga näringsfång, och finnas ej de särskilda omständigheter, i afseende på förhållandet med personen, inträffa, att Wår Befallningshafwande pröfwar densamma kunna utan åfventyr på fri fot lemnas, antingen emot den uti 1. s. beskrifne borgen, eller på korrt tid, för att söka förskaffa sig laga förswar, eller afwiker från husbonde sådan person, sedan han i tjenst antagen blifwit, eller anmäler, på sätt Tjenstehjonstadgan föreskrifwer, husbonde laga skål, hwarföre han personen ej behålla will, då skall den wara förfallen att genast afsändas till allmän corrections-inrättning, att der till sedlighet och arbete hållas; och bör i de fall, som nyss nämnde åro, efter derom af husbonde, i Stad hos Policekammare eller Magistrat, och å Landet hos Kronofodge eller Lånsman, gjord anmälan, den wanartade personen, om den på fri fot wistas, genast i förwar tagas, eller, om den begifwit sig på flykten, efterspanas och wid ertappandet hos Wår Befallningshafwande inställas, för att, till undergående af här stadgad behandling, warda befordrad.

S. 14. Förswarslös, som till sin person tillförlitligen känd är och, ehwad den kallas wanartad eller icke, för bristande näringsfång blifwit skyldig ansedd att afsändas till arbetsanstalt eller allmän corrections-inrättning, ware, enär laga näringsfång för personen yppas eller årstjenst hos wålkånd och behörig husbonde densamma erbjudes, i allmänhet berättigad att deraf sig begagna, under det willkor, i afseende på wanartads antagande i tjenst, som 13. s. bestämmer, ehwad tillfället till näringsfång eller tjenst yppas före eller efter afsändandet eller under wistelsen å arbets- eller corrections-inrättningen; men skulle förswarslös person, som till tjenst eller arbete utbegäres, wid inrättningen hafwa ådagalagt särdeles okynne och så wåldsamma eller brottsliga anlag, att dess personliga frihet kan anses wådlig för allmän säkerhet, åge inrättningens föreståndare, att, så länge anledningen emot personens frigifwande fortfar, wågra dess utlemnande till tjenst eller arbete, med mindre

mindre den blifwande husbonden hos föreståndaren ställer borgen för böter och ersättning, hwilka möjligen kunna komma att den utrequirerade personen ådömas, i följd af olofligt tillgrepp eller annan allmänna säkerheten störande förbrytelse, under ett år derefter, med iakttagande för denna borgen, så till belopp och villkor, som underskrift och wederbåfthighets-intyg, hwad i 1. s. om borgen blifwit föreskrifwet, dock utan skyldighet till borgens förnyelse. Öfwer föreståndarens åtgärd i sagde fall må försvarslös, åfwensom den, hwilken honom utbegärt, kunna klagan föra hos Styrelsen öfwer fångelser och arbetsinrättningar, som då pröfwar förhållandet och gifwer skrifteligt utslag derom, med hänwisning för den med beslutet missnöjde, att hos Oss i underdånighet sig beswåra och beswårsskriften å tid, som i 23. s. stadgas, aflemna till nämnde föreståndare, som densamma afskickar till Styrelsen, hwilken derefter skriften, jemte eget utlåtande, skyndesammeligen till Oss i underdånighet insänder.

I hwad fall som helst, må person, hwilken, för inom arbets eller corrections-inrättning begången förbrytelse, der blifwit uti särskildt fångelserum insatt, ej derifrån frigifwas, förrän personens, uti inrättningens fastställda Reglemente, för förbrytelsen bestämda arresttid tillåndalupit.

S. 15. Rymmer den, som till Pionniercorps anwist blifwit, förr än han dit ankommit, warde belagd med hälften af det straff, som finnes stadgadt för rymning ifrån corpsen. Föröfwar sådan person brott, som ej å lif går, och anses han i sistnämnde fall ej kunna i tjenst wid Pionniercorps antagas, ware, sedan han för brottet sitt straff undergått, förfallen att wid allmän corrections-inrättning i Riket sysselsättas. Rymmer den, som till allmän corrections-inrättning blifwit förwisad, efter det den till inrättningen ankommit, warde, efter ertappandet, nåpsad, på sätt som i det för inrättningen faststälde Reglemente finnes stadgadt. Har densamma under tiden föröfwat brott, som ej å lif går eller med listidsarbete belagdt år, ware ock, efter derföre undergången bestraffning, till corrections-inrättning försänd, så wida icke laga försvar eller näringsfång för honom år att tillgå.

S. 16. Åstundar pålitlig och wålkånd person, boende i orten der allmän corrections-inrättning år belågen, att begagna correctionister till arbete, som inom inrättningen ej kan verkställas, och har han tillgång att arbetet riktigt godtgöra samt arbetarne behörigen wårda, må Styrelsen öfwer fångelser och arbets inrättningar tillåta, att, på längre eller kortare bestämd tid, till honom utlemnas en eller flere för beskedligt upförande kände correctionister, hwilka dertill åro willige. Genom Styrelsens försorg upgöras då med requirenten sådana villkor, att de correctionister, som utlemnas, komma i åtnjutande af minst lika underhåll, med det de inom inrättningen erhålla, och att menligt arbete icke kan dem åläggas; ågande requirenten öfwer dessa arbetare, under den tid de hos honom förblifwa, husbonderätt och answar efter lag. Rymmer någon af dem, bör requirenten genast derom underrätta föreståndaren för corrections-inrättningen och jemwål, genom Kronobetjeningen, foga anstalt om den rymdes efterlysning. Har requirenten bewisligen i någor måtto främjat rymningen, gälde han kostnaden för efterspanandet.

Correctionist, som på omförmåldte sätt blifwit till arbete uttagen, warde, wid arbetstidens slut, till inrättningen återlemnad och medföre dit, öfwer sitt upförande, bewis af requirenten, hwilken för dess forslande till och ifrån corrections-inrättningen answarar.

S. 17. Styrelsen öfwer fångelser och arbets-inrättningar i Riket bör söka förskaffa årstjenst eller annat lagligt näringsfång åt de wid corrections-inrättning befintliga correctionister, som ådagalägga godt och påliteligt upförande. Nämnde Styrelse må åfwen åga frihet att dem till hemorten eller annan ort förpassa, för att, inom wiss förelagd tid, särdeles de tider på året, då tjenstehjon wanligen städjas, tjenst sig betinga, eller annat lagligt näringsfång sig bereda; hwarom wederbörande Wår Befallningshafwande bör af Styrelsen underrättas, på det personen må till corrections-inrättningen warda återförd, i fall han wid den föreskrifna tidens slut sysslolös befinnes.

S. 18. Hwar, som någon till arbete wid Pionniercorps, arbetsanstalt eller allmän corrections-inrättning dömd, men å flyende fot stadd person griper och dit eller till närmaste Kronobetjent aflemnar, erhålle derföre belöning af Sex Riksdaler 32 sk. Banco, för hwarje sålunda aflemnad person, hwilken belöning af Wår Befallningshafwande i det Lån, der personen ertappas, genast emot behörigt qwitto utbetalas, och warde denna utgift ersatt af personens tillgångar eller arbetsförtjenst, om sådana finnas.

S. 19. Ej må till Pionniercorps dömas annan, än frisk och arbetsför person, och ej till allmän corrections-inrättning någon, som för obotlig sjukdom, kroppsligheten, ålderdomsbräcklighet eller sinnesförvirring år till kroppsarbete oskicklig. Skulle detta oakadt, sådan person till allmän corrections-inrättning ankomma, bör den genast återskickas till den Embetsmyndighet, som personen ditsändt, för vidare förordnande efter gällande Författningar.

S. 20. Har försvarslös person minderårigt barn att wårda och hindras af omsorg för det, wid bristande tillgång å andra näringsmedel, att förskaffa sig årstjenst, eller skall sådan person till Pionniercorps, arbetsanstalt eller corrections-inrättning afföras, och finnes då, att barn saknar anhörig, som år i tillfälle att det till upfostran emottaga, wiss Församling ej heller åläggas kan, att om sådant barn draga försorg, samt allmän eller enskild barnhus-inrättning icke lemnar utwäg till barnets försörjning, åge Wåre Befallningshafwande, att, med Presterskaps och Kyrkoråds biträde, söka tjenliga fosterföräldrar, hwilka, emot åtnjutande af de förmåner, Tjenstehjonsstadgan erbjuder, eller, om ej annorlunda ske kan, emot lämpligt understöd årligen, till det belopp, som Wårt Seraphimer-Ordens-Gille-wanligen består eller stora Barnhuset i Stockholm, wid minderåriga barns uttingande till upfostran, i mån af barnens olika ålder, utfåster, barnen emottaga och christeligen upfostra, och wilje

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Wi, om utbetalning af sådane medel samt hwad i afseende derå vidare iakttagas bör, särskildt i Nåder förordna.

S. 21. Soldat, hwilken, ifrån Regementets rullor utstruken, är, jemlikt 11. cap. 7. s. Krigs-Artiklarne, till fästning förfallen, skall till Wår Befallningshafwande öfwerlemnas, att, utan afseende på arbetstillfällen, som för karlen yppas, afsändas till Pionniercorps att der tjena från tre till sex år.

S. 22. Då, utom hwad i nästföregående s. nämnes, fråga upkommer, huruwida förswarslös person gjort sig förfallen, att till Pionniercorps eller allmän corrections-inrättning afsändas, warde, så å Landet som i Stad, med undantag af de Städer, der Policekammare är inrättad, den församling, der personen senast varit mantalsskrifwen och bosatt, så skyndsamt som ske kan, i Sockneståmma hörd, angående personens förhållande, samt huruwida tillfälle är för dess användande till stadig sysselsättning hos pålitelig husbonde inom Församlingen. Behörigen justeradt protocoll deröfwer, innehållande hwad om personens fråjd och lefnadsomständigheter kunnigt är, bör till Wår Befallningshafwande fordarsamligen insändas, samt personen derstädes till förhör inställas. Policekammare i de Städer, der sådane finnas, drage der försorg om slike uplysningars infordrande, och warde personen derstädes förhörd. Wåre Befallningshafwande eller Policekamrarne låte i sitt protocoll uptagas: personens ålder, beskaffenheten af dess kroppsställning och utseende, helsotillstånd, grundadt, på behörig Läkares deröfwer infordrade yttrande, som ordagrant i protocollet införas bör, personens lefnadsomständigheter, om och för hwad brott den varit anklagad och dömd, hwad straff den undergått, för hwilka laster och oarter den egenteligen gjort sig känd, om och hwad handtwerk eller arbete den lärt och kan utöfwa, samt hwad i öfrigt af Sockneståmmo-protocoll eller personens egna uppgifter kan till närmare uplysning inhämtas. Sedan pröfwe Wår Befallningshafwande eller Policekamraren omständigheterna, afkunne beslut och gifwe, i händelse, efter hwad stadgadt är, personen anses till allmänt arbete skyldig, skrifteligt utslag, med skålen dertill, och låte innan tredje dagen, den oräknad då utslaget afkunnades, detsamma, med åtecknad fulständig hänvisning till beswårs anförande, personen bewisligen tillställas. Sådan förswarslös person, som icke är wanartad, ware på fri fot, så länge dess förvisande till Pionniercorps eller allmän corrections-inrättning icke är genom Wår Befallningshafwandes eller Policekamraren utslag bestämdt; men huruwida, då personen med utslaget ej åtnöjes, en sådan frihet än längre, eller intilldess sluteligt utslag faller, må kunna förtiara, samt om och i hwad måtto wanartade personer, sedan fråga upstått om deras försändande till corrections-inrättning, må tillåtas att längre eller kortare tid på fri fot wistas, derom äge förbemålte Embetsmyndigheter, att, efter omständigheterna, wid hwarje tillfälle särskildt förordna.

Will annan person, som saken rör, eller den förswarslöse, ehuru icke till arbete dömd, öfwer beslutet klaga, ware åfwen berättigad att utslaget, med åtecknad hänvisning till beswårs anförande, skyndesammeligen utbekomma.

Hwad i denna Författning Wåre Befallningshafwande till iakttagande föreskrifwes, lände Wårt Öfwer-Ståthållare-Embete i Stockholm och Policekammare i andra Städer till efterrättelse; dock utan rubbning af de, angående sättet att söka ändring i Policekamraren beslut, gällande föreskrifter.

S. 23. Den, som ändring i Wårt Öfwer-Ståthållare-Embetes eller Wår Befallningshafwandes utslag, rörande förswarslös person, söka will, ware skyldig att, innan klockan tolt på åttonde dagen, efter af utslaget erhållen del, den oräknad, då delgifwandet skedde, sina till Oss ställda underdåniga beswår hos Wårt Öfwer-Ståthållare-Embete eller Wår Befallningshafwande, som utslaget meddelt, behörigen ingifwa, eller, om den klagande häcktad är, genom den, som bewakningen omhänder har, ingifwa låta. Tarfwar den utur häcktet klagande biträde till beswårens författande, foge Wårt Öfwer-Ståthållare-Embete eller Wår Befallningshafwande anstalt, att han det erhåller. Försitter till allmänt arbete skyldig ansedd person föreskrifwen laga tid till beswårs anförande, eller åtnöjes med beslutet, gånge, efter förloppet af berörde tid, detsamma till verkställighet. Blifwa åter beswår i rättan tid ingifna, åligge Wårt Öfwer-Ståthållare-Embete eller Wår Befallningshafwande, att samma beswår, beledsagade af wederbörandes förklaring, om den tarfwas, samt till målet hörande handlingar och eget utlåtande, innefattande alla nödiga uplysningar, så fort ske kan, till Wår Justitie-Revisions-Expedition insända; och må, i sådant fall, hufwudsaklig verkställighet af öfwerklagadt utslag ej följa, innan beswåren blifwit af Oss pröfwade, samt Wårt Nådiga beslut till orten ankommit. Dock kommer den, som i häckte är eller af Öfwer-Ståthållare-Embetet eller Wår Befallningshafwande pröfwas dertill skyldig, att under tiden i häckett förblifwa.

S. 24. Person, hwilken till Pionniercorps, arbetsanstalt eller corrections-inrättning afföras skall, bör af Wår Befallningshafwande förpassas till den ort, som blifwit bestämd, och personens namn, ålder och utseende, jemte noggrann förteckning å kläder eller andra tillhörigheter, dem personen medför, i förpassningen utsättas. För sådane persedlars samt förpassningens wård och deras, jemte personens, behöriga aflemnande å den ort, som wederbör, ware den eller de, åt hwilka bewakningen under resan anförtros, hwar för sig ansvarige. Protocollet och utslaget, som personen angå, skola utan allt dröjsmål, med först afgående post, öfwersändas till Chef för Pionniercorps, Commandant eller föreståndare wid arbetsanstalt eller corrections-inrättning, dit personen afföras bör. Äger personen penningar, skola de nysnämnde handlingar bifogas.

S. 25. För förswarslös persons försändande till bestämd arbetsplats bestås skjuts och underhåll,

derhåll, efter den grund och det förhållande, som i allmänhet för fångar gällande är; och må sådan person ej hårdare fängslas, än omständigheterna kräfwä. Pröfningen och bestämmandet deraf tillhör Vår Befallningshafwande, som personen afsänder; och gifwes derom i förpassningen bestämmd föreskrift, med rättighet för Fång-gewaldiger, som medföljer, att, om under resan allwarsammare behandling blifwer för personens behöriga wård af nöden, derom gå i författning och låta samma behandling fortfara, intilldess, wid ankomst till nästa Landshöfdingesäte, Vår Befallningshafwande derstädes pröfwat och förordnat huru personen föras bör. Sådan person, som till Pionniercorps, arbetsanstalt eller allmän corrections-inrättning afföres, skall under forsslandet dit, så widt ske kan, skiljas från fångar, som för brott straffade äro, eller, i annat fall, från samtal och gemenskap med dem afhållas.

Denna Vår Nådiga Förordning kommer att med nästinstundande November månads början blifwa gällande och till verkställighet befordras. Skolande Våre Befallningshafwande särskildt underrättas om Pionniercorpsens närwarande station och de ställen i öfrigt, till hwilka sysslolöse personer böra försändas. Det alle, som wederbör, hafwe sig hörsammeligen att efterrätta. Till yttermera wisso hafwe Wi detta med Egen Hand underskrifwit och med Wårt Kongl. Sigill bekräfta låtit.—Stockholms Slott den 29 Junii 1833.

CARL JOHAN. (L. s.)

(Translation.)

HIS Majesty's gracious Ordinance respecting the Treatment of unprotected Persons.
Given at the Palace of Stockholm, the 19th of June 1833.

WE, Charles John, by the Grace of God, King of Sweden and of the Goths and Vandals, make known: That We, after having received the reports of the officer executing the office of Our chief stadtholder at Stockholm and our lords-lieutenants in the provinces, and with a fixed attention to the representations humbly made by the States of the kingdom assembled at the last diet, have found it necessary to annul the enactments hitherto made in respect to the treatment of unemployed and evil-disposed persons of both sexes, and are graciously pleased to order and enact as follows:

S. 1. Every person who has not entered into Our service and that of the crown, or any other public service, and who does not under proper permission pursue the liberal arts or studies, or is not engaged in commerce, manufactures, trade, navigation or any other lawful occupation, or in the cultivation of the soil or mining, either as owner, leaseholder or manager, or cannot be proved to derive his support from parents, relations or other persons, or who, according to the opinion given by the vestry of his parish, is not known as a person who does honestly obtain his livelihood, either by his own means or by labour or by other lawful occupation, or does not derive his maintenance and support from any public charitable institution, shall be bound to accept of such employments from masters in the towns and in the country places as the law now in force for hiring of servants and the regulations for trade, manufactures and handicrafts, prescribes. Any person who cannot obtain employment, or neglects to provide himself with any, shall procure as sureties one or more persons, provided with a certificate from the clergyman of the parish as to their responsibility, or if in a town, from the magistracy, and if in the country, from the crown bailiff, not only for the payment of his own taxes and rates, and if he be a married man, also for those of his wife and children residing at home, but also for the payment of such fines and compensation that will be levied in case the same person during one year afterwards, or until he or she shall before the expiration of this period have been placed in one of the above capacities, shall commit any unlawful acts of violence or other offence, whereby public security may be disturbed; the bondsman's liability for such fines and demands shall however not exceed 50 rix-dollars banco. Such security, together with the description of the work with which the person in question intends to occupy himself for his maintenance, shall usually be delivered at the time the assessments and registrations are made, at the place where he has got his residence; but such person may also be demanded whenever in the interval any question shall arise as to his legal protection; and such bond shall be renewed, or a similar one procured, at each time of assessment and registration, so long as the situation of the person shall render this security necessary; it being the duty of the functionary who may receive this bond to forward the same without delay, if in Stockholm, to the office of Our chief stadtholder, and if in the provinces, to our lord-lieutenant of the district.

Should the bondsman, in consequence of the person being adjudged to pay fines and compensation, be sued for the amount of the above-mentioned bond, and the sum shall be sufficient to cover the compensation, but not the fines, the former shall be paid in full, and the fines shall, according to the principles laid down in law and the enactments, be changed into another mode of punishment. Should the amount be insufficient for the full discharge of the compensation, the sum shall be divided, so far as it may go, between the parties entitled to compensation, in proportion to the amount of each claim.

S. 2. A person is called unprotected who is not found to be of any of the capacities which are described in the first paragraph, and who neither shall have obtained the security for himself, as is therein mentioned.

Under the denomination of evil-disposed persons, mentioned in this enactment, is to be understood a person who has received judgment and been punished for some fraudulent and dishonest conduct, or for theft, or burglary with a view to steal; as also any person

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who may have been accused of any crime soever of an heinous nature, or has received judgment, or who for want of complete evidence, has however been found so deeply implicated in the crime, that the case has been left for future investigation.

An evil principled person shall not be entitled by means of the security mentioned in the 1st paragraph, to release himself from the obligation to accept of yearly service, unless Our lord-lieutenant, after obtaining requisite information, and hearing the parishioners on the subject, shall judge it reasonable that he may be permitted to do so.

S. 3. Whoever receives into his house an unprotected person, shall, according to the enactment respecting servants, and on pain of the penalty therein mentioned, be bound to report such person; if in Stockholm, at the office of the chief stadtholder for matters relating to police affairs, before the end of the next day, or if out of Stockholm, as early as may be possible; if in other towns, at the police offices or magistracy, and in the country, to the concerned crown bailiff or under bailiffs. Should the unprotected be known to be evil principled, such circumstance should also be mentioned. The police officers, magistracy, crown officers or under bailiff, who may receive such a report, shall give information thereof to Our lord-lieutenant of the district. If servants shall improperly leave their yearly service, or any other constant occupation, and the master is not willing to retain them, or if they are in due form discharged from the service for misconduct, it shall be the duty of their employer, or whoever may be authorized to act in his place, to report the circumstance to the office of chief stadtholder or lord-lieutenant. If a master residing out of Stockholm, should prefer to make such a report to the police office or magistracy in a town, or if in the country, to the crown bailiff or under bailiff, he shall be permitted to do so; and it shall be the duty of the person who may receive such a report to communicate to Our lord-lieutenant the particulars that have thus been received. What is separately enacted respecting the tracing of unprotected persons, and reporting them at the time of making the assessments and afterwards, shall also henceforth remain in full legal force.

S. 4. Our lords-lieutenants shall, when an unprotected person is reported to them, be bound to endeavour exactly to ascertain both the person's qualities and general conduct, and also to discover the causes of his being unprotected, by instituting an examination and by collecting every information respecting him, and shall afterwards adopt such measures with respect to him as are prescribed in this enactment. Should the person be unknown, and he shall refuse to state his name, the place of his birth and circumstances of his life, or should it be ascertained that he has made a false statement in this respect, and the real state of the case cannot be immediately ascertained, he shall be sent to a public correction institution, to be confined there in a separate room, and, as far as may be practicable, to be kept employed until the person shall become really known, in which case information respecting the case shall be immediately forwarded to Our lord-lieutenant, who shall have the power to give further directions as to the disposal of such person.

S. 5. Should any person appear, who has led an irreproachable life, but who has become unprotected, not through an unsteady or reprehensible conduct, but from causes which cannot reasonably be laid to his charge, and there should be no opportunity to assist such a person immediately to any lawful occupation, and the means of support or a sure reference cannot be given him for such a purpose, and he should be unable to give the security which is mentioned in the first paragraph, Our lord-lieutenant shall have the power, with a due regard to the season of the year, and with regard also to the greater and less distance there may be to the next moving time, to grant the person thus unprotected a sufficient time suitable to the circumstances of the case, reckoned either to the moving time that may be at hand, or if the same should be nearer at hand than the want of time requires, in that case, to the next succeeding moving time; and Our lord-lieutenant shall, if it is so required, grant such a person a requisite passport to proceed to such a place, either within or without the county where the person may consider it likely for him to get into service or obtain work for his support. In this passport, which must be made out in conformity with the rules prescribed in Our gracious ordinance of the 18th of May 1824, shall be inserted the personal signature of the bearer of such passport, if he is able to write, or in the contrary case, a short annotation to that effect, together with a printed information respecting the particulars the bearer has to observe, with a view to obtain an unmolested progress, and the consequences that will attend a neglect on his part to comply with the same; which particulars shall be repeated to the person obtaining the passport. The passports, which are here above mentioned, shall stipulate that it is required to exhibit the same at police offices, if there be any in the town, where the person out of employment is desirous of proceeding to, or to Our lord-lieutenant, if the provincial government is established there, but otherwise to the burgomaster or the secretary of the magistracy, and if in the country, to the crown bailiff or under bailiff in the district, and the person who has thus obtained a passport shall proceed, without loss of time, to his place of destination, and immediately on arrival there shall appear before the authorities or functionary, as signed in the passport, and also before the officiating clergyman of the parish, to whom in all cases notice shall be sent from the last-mentioned authorities or functionary immediately on arrival of the person mentioned in the passport, acquainting him with the circumstance; it being also the duty of the said functionaries to acquaint Our lord-lieutenant, without any loss of time, of the arrival of such unprotected person. Should the person not within one month after his arrival find means for his subsistence, and there shall have been nothing to observe against his conduct during that time, such a circumstance shall be inserted in the passport he carries with him, by the proper authorities

or

or functionaries beforementioned, and he shall then be at liberty to proceed to any other place within the same county that may be fixed upon, of which circumstance an endorsement shall be made on the passport. In any other town or parish within the county where such person shall afterwards arrive, both he as well as the authorities and functionaries residing at the place shall observe all what is already enacted in this paragraph. Should the applicant nowhere in the county be able to obtain yearly employment or lawful occupation within the period specified in the passport, and he shall not have abused the liberty granted him, he shall, after the proper authorities have certified on the passport the state of the case, apply as soon as possible to Our lord-lieutenant in that county, where the unemployed person then may be, and the said person shall then be entitled to a prolongation of time, and with this view be furnished with a fresh passport to the place of destination fixed upon. Police officers, burgomasters, secretaries of magistracy, crown bailiffs or under-bailiffs shall be bound to report to Our lords-lieutenants without any delay, all that has been done by them in the above-mentioned respects.

S. 6. Servants or other unprotected persons who have of their own accord relinquished their service or constant employ, and by means of such or other reprehensible conduct have been legally turned out of their employ, or who do not perform service with the master or mistress who has allowed such person to be rated and registered with them, or who, in consequence of circumstances which ought to be ascribed to the unprotected person himself, shall become deprived of their lawful means of support, but who may not be considered as evil-disposed persons, shall be bound to provide themselves with lawful occupations within 14 days, if it be in a town, and within double that number of days if it be in the country. Should the unprotected person not be able to accomplish this, or, on giving a true account of his residence, not be able to procure the sureties mentioned in the 1st paragraph, it shall depend on Our lord-lieutenant how far he may deem it expedient to grant a further extended time, for a limited period, to a person thus circumstanced, in order to procure himself means for his subsistence. If the person should obtain such an extension of time, a passport may be granted to him, in the manner already mentioned, to any specified place within the county where he may consider it likely to obtain some lawful occupation. He shall however not on this account be released from the responsibility which his employer or any public complainant may by law have to urge against him in each separate case.

S. 7. To an unprotected person who shall not have been punished more than once for theft, Our lords-lieutenants shall grant time and passport, as prescribed by the 6th paragraph, with a view that he may, unmolested, endeavour to obtain service or legal protection, unless there shall be some special circumstances with respect to the person that may render his detention in prison during the prescribed period absolutely necessary for the public security.

S. 8. Should any person who, agreeably to what is mentioned in the 5th paragraph, has obtained an extension of time for procuring protection still remain without yearly employment or other lawful means of support, and he should not be willing to try in other places to gain the means of support, or shall have transgressed the orders that may have been given him in the passport; and if such person (being a male person) should not rather prefer to enlist in the service of any raised regiment, or as a sailor in the royal navy or troop of recruits, or he should not possess the requisite qualifications for that purpose, and he should, notwithstanding the representation made by Our lord-lieutenant to the concerned commander-in-chief, with a description of the man, and accompanied with proper clergyman's and doctor's certificates, still not be accepted into the war service, the person shall be sent to be employed on such public works as may be going on in the neighbourhood, or to a work institution within the county, until such time as another opportunity may offer for his maintenance; he shall however be at liberty, when the usual notice-day arrives, and until next moving time, to try to obtain legal protection with any person within the county who may require his services, under the obligation to return to the public work institution in the event of his not succeeding. Should there be no public work to be had in the neighbourhood, or the person cannot, for want of necessary room, be admitted, he shall be sent to a public house of correction, and remain there, without however being mixed with evil-disposed persons or such as may have been punished for crimes committed, until some means may be found for him or her to obtain a lawful maintenance, and with the permission, if the day for giving warnings before that time arrives, to enjoy the liberty here above mentioned.

S. 9. Such servants or other persons mentioned in the 6th paragraph as may either not have been considered to be entitled to an extension of time for procuring lawful maintenance, or who, notwithstanding such permission, have not been able to provide themselves with the same, shall be liable to do work, if a man, at any of the corps of pioneers in the kingdom, and if a woman, at a public house of correction. If the man is unfit for a pioneer, he shall in lieu thereof be sent to a public house of correction.

S. 10. Should such unprotected person as is mentioned in the 7th paragraph not have within the time specified procured himself yearly service, or other lawful maintenance, he or she shall be proceeded with in the manner enacted in the 9th paragraph.

S. 11. If an unprotected person has received a passport for the purpose of obtaining service or labour, and should be discovered on any other road, or at any other place than the one which is stated in the passport, or the time specified in the passport shall have expired, he shall be sent to Our lord-lieutenant in that county where the person may be detained: that Our lord-lieutenant shall then inquire into the circumstances, and send the person

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back to the county to which he may belong, or proceed with the same according to regulations enacted in the 8th, 9th and 10th paragraphs.

S. 12. A person in health and able to work who may be found strolling about without having a passport or proper permission, or who may burthen the public by begging, shall be immediately taken into custody and delivered over to the office of chief stadtholder, if in Stockholm, or to Our lord-lieutenant, if it be in the country, within whose county the person may be found, Our said lord-lieutenant possessing the power, after obtaining such information as may explain the character and circumstances of the life of the person, to adopt such measures with regard to him as may be deemed proper. Should the person not be evil disposed, a passport shall be granted to him to proceed to his place of abode, with an injunction that he must, within a month after his arrival there, be provided with legal protection. Should this time be exceeded, and the person should neglect to exhibit the passport to the proper authorities on arrival home, such unprotected person shall be bound, if it be a man, to serve in the corps of pioneers, and if a woman, to be kept at labour in a public house of correction. An evil-disposed person is to be proceeded against as prescribed in the 13th paragraph. Persons sent out by proprietors of works and manufactories for the purchase and sale of goods, who may make use of the passports granted to them beyond the stipulated time, or else abuse them or proceed to another place than is mentioned in the passport, shall, if they are not provided with other protection than the above-mentioned agencies, be liable to serve in a pioneer corps; or if they be evil disposed, in that case to labour in a public house of correction.

S. 13. A person who may be in a higher degree evil disposed than is mentioned in the 7th paragraph, and who is in want of the lawful means for his subsistence, shall be delivered over to the office of Our chief stadtholder for affairs of police, if it be in Stockholm, and to Our lord-lieutenant of the county, if it be in country places. If such a person can immediately give up the name of an employer who may be well known and qualified to keep servants, and who is willing to accept such person into service, and take care of his or her conduct, such employer shall deliver in to Our lord-lieutenant a written undertaking that he will not only take care of such person, but also to have him or her rated and registered with him, in the event of such person not being already rated, and that he shall, with regard to such person, observe the enactments made with regard to warnings, removals, and the treatment of servants generally, and in the event of such person deserting the service, to report such a circumstance without any loss of time to the office of chief stadtholder, if at Stockholm, or to the police officers or the magistracy, if in other towns, or to the nearest crown bailiff, if in the country; and when an engagement to the above effect shall have been entered into, the person shall be immediately delivered up to his employer, or be at his expense forwarded to him. Should such an evil-disposed person be proved not to possess the means of procuring himself yearly service, or other lawful means of subsistence, and should not the particular circumstances connected with the situation of the person warrant Our lord-lieutenant in setting such person at large without risk, either upon such security being given as is described in the 1st paragraph, or for a short period to enable such person to procure for himself legal protection, or should such person abscond from his employer after being accepted into such service, or the employer should in manner prescribed in the enactments regarding servants report and adduce legal reasons why he is no longer willing to retain such person in his service, then such person shall be liable to be sent forthwith to a public house of correction, there to be kept to labour and good moral behaviour, and shall in such cases as have been just mentioned, upon a report being made by the employer to that effect to the police-office or the magistracy, if in a town, or to the crown bailiff or under-bailiff, if in the country, the evil-disposed person, if he be at large, be immediately apprehended, or if he has fled, be traced and pursued, and on being apprehended, be brought before Our lord-lieutenant, in order to be forwarded to undergo the punishment here above enacted.

S. 14. An unprotected person whose character is well known, whether he may be considered as evil disposed or not, who for want of necessary means of subsistence has been deemed liable to be sent to a work institution or a public house of correction, shall, when an opportunity offers for him to obtain the lawful means of maintenance, or when yearly service may be offered to him from a well known and duly qualified employer, be generally entitled to avail himself of such opportunities, under the conditions that are enacted in the 13th paragraph with regard to the taking of evil-disposed persons into service, whether such an opportunity for procuring his maintenance, or a situation as servant, shall offer prior to or after his being sent to or during his stay at the work institution or house of correction; but should the person who is required to be taken out of the institution either for service or labour have, while at the institution, exhibited such immorality and such violent and criminal propensities, that his personal liberty may be considered dangerous to the public safety, the superintendent of the institution shall be empowered, so long as the cause for not liberating the person shall exist, to refuse his being hired out for service or work, unless the proposed employer shall give security to the superintendent for the fines and compensation to which the person required to be taken out of the institution may possibly be adjudged, in consequence of any unlawful act or other crime inconsistent with the public safety which he may commit during the space of one year afterwards, observing, on accepting this security, the conditions prescribed in the 1st paragraph respecting bonds, both as regards the amount and conditions as well as the execution of the same, and certificates as to responsibility, without however the liability of renewing the bond. Against the decision of the superintendent in such cases, the unprotected person, or the person who may

may require to take him or her out of the institution, shall have the right to complain to the board for the management of prisons and work institutions, which board shall then inquire into the circumstances of the case, and make a written report respecting the same, and the person who may be dissatisfied with the decision shall be recommended to make his humble appeal to Us, and to deliver such appeal to the said superintendent within the period prescribed in the 23d paragraph, who shall forward the same to the said board for the management of prisons and work institutions; after which, the said board shall without delay humbly forward the said appeal to Us, with its own opinion on the case.

In no case whatever shall any person who has committed any crime within the work institution or house of correction, or who may have been sent to a separate prison room, be liberated from such place until the time of confinement for such crime, in conformity with the prescribed regulations of the institution, has expired.

S. 15. Should the person who may have been assigned to a pioneer corps run away before he shall have arrived at the station of such corps, he shall be awarded half of the punishment that is enacted for deserting from such corps: should such a person commit a crime which may not affect his life, and he is in the lastmentioned case considered ineligible to be accepted in the service of the pioneer corps, he shall, after having undergone the punishment awarded for his crime, be liable to be sent to a public house of correction in the kingdom. Should the person run away who has been consigned to a public house of correction, after such person shall have arrived at such an institution, he shall upon being apprehended be punished in the manner prescribed in the regulations enacted for the institution. Should the person during the time of his absence have committed a crime, which may not affect his life or subject him to labour for life, he shall also, after having undergone the punishment awarded to him for the same, be sent to the house of correction, provided a legal protection or maintenance cannot be obtained for him.

S. 16. Should any trustworthy person of well known character, resident in the neighbourhood where the house of correction is situated, be desirous of employing the prisoner at work, which cannot be performed within the limits of the institution, and he possesses the means of regularly paying for the work, and of taking proper care of the labourers, the board for the management of prisons and work institutions may permit one or more prisoners who may have distinguished themselves for propriety of conduct, to be delivered up to such person for as long or as short a period as may be fixed upon. Under the management of the board stipulations shall then be entered into with the requirant, that the prisoners who are to be hired out shall at least enjoy as good a maintenance as they would receive within the institution, and that no injurious work shall be assigned to them; the requirant shall have over these prisoners, while they remain in his service, the authority of a master, and responsibility according to law. Should any of them run away, it shall be the duty of the requirant to give immediate information of such circumstance to the superintendent of the institution, and also, with the assistance of the crown bailiff, adopt measures for the tracing of the runaway person. Should the requirant be proved to have connived in any way at the escape of the person, he shall pay the expenses incurred in the pursuit and apprehension of such person.

A prisoner who may, in the manner here above described, have been taken out for work, shall when the time stipulated for labour shall have expired, be returned to the institution, accompanied with a certificate from the requirant, as to his conduct, who shall be responsible for the payment of the travelling expenses incurred for such person to and from the institution.

S. 17. The board for the management of prisons and work institutions shall endeavour to procure yearly service or other lawful means of maintenance for such prisoners at the house of correction who evince a good and trustworthy conduct; the said board shall also be at liberty to grant them passports for a certain stipulated period to their native or other places, with a view to obtain situations, or to provide means for other lawful maintenance for themselves, especially at those seasons of the year when servants are usually hired, of which circumstance the board shall inform Our lords-lieutenants, in order that the person may be sent back to the house of correction, in case such person should at the expiration of the time limited be found to be out of employ.

S. 18. Any one that shall apprehend a person who may be sentenced to perform work in a pioneer corps, or at a work institution or public house of correction, but who may attempt to make his escape, shall receive a reward of six rix-dollars and 32 skillings banco for each such person delivered up, which reward shall be immediately paid, against a proper receipt, by Our lord-lieutenant in that county where the person may be apprehended, and this charge shall be reimbursed out of the means or earnings for labour of such person, if there be any.

S. 19. No person shall be sentenced to a pioneer corps other than such as are healthy and are able to work; nor any one to the house of correction who from incurable diseases, bodily affliction, infirmities of age, or insanity, may be unfit for manual labour. Should, notwithstanding this, such a person arrive at a public house of correction, such person shall immediately be sent back to the authorities who may have sent him thither, in order to be disposed of according to the existing laws and regulations.

S. 20. Should an unprotected person have a child under age to take care of, and is on account of such care prevented from procuring yearly service, or other means be wanting for the support of such a person, or should such a person be sent to a pioneer corps, work institution, or house of correction, and it should then be ascertained that the child has no relation who is in a situation to receive it, and provide for its support and education, and no certain parish can be compelled to take care of such a child, and public or private in-

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stitutions for children do not afford the means for the support of such child, Our lords-lieutenants are empowered to endeavour by the assistance of the clergy and churchwardens to find adopted parents for such child, who on being allowed the advantages the enactment respecting servants offer, or, if it cannot otherwise be done, on payment of the amount which the chapter of Our order of Seraphim usually allows, or on the terms granted by the great orphan house at Stockholm, on children under age being placed out for support and education, in proportion to the different ages of the children, would be willing to receive and educate such children in the doctrines of the Christian religion, and as regards the payment of such means, or any other matters which ought to be observed in respect thereof, We will graciously make separate enactments.

S. 21. Any soldier who may have been struck off the regimental muster-rolls, is, according to the 7th paragraph of the 11th chapter of the articles of war, liable to fortress labour, and shall be delivered over to Our lord-lieutenant, who without any consideration as to the opportunities that may offer for the man to procure work, shall send him to a pioneer corps, in order to serve in the same from three to six years.

S. 22. When, independent of what is mentioned in the preceding paragraph, a question shall arise how far an unprotected person may have made himself liable to be sent to a pioneer corps, or a public house of correction, the parish, whether it be in the country, or in a town in which the man last has been rated and resident, shall, with the exception of such towns where police offices are established, be heard in vestry respecting the man's conduct, and also how far there may be an opportunity for his obtaining constant employ with any responsible master or mistress resident in the parish. A duly adjusted protocol which is to be made of the proceedings, containing the particulars that may be known respecting the man's character and his circumstances of life, shall without loss of time be forwarded to Our lord-lieutenant, and the person sent to him for examination. Superintendents of police offices in the towns, where such are established, shall take care to demand similar informations, and have the person examined before them. Our lords-lieutenants or superintendents of police shall cause to be inserted in their protocols the age of the person, the height, and a description of his personal appearance, his state of health, founded on the opinion procured from proper medical men, which must, word for word, be inserted in the protocol, the circumstances of the person's life, and also whether he has been accused and sentenced for any and for what crime, what description of punishment he may have undergone, and for what crimes and malpractices he has especially rendered himself conspicuous, whether he has been taught any and what trade or work, and whether he is able to exercise the same, or any other particulars that can be collected from the protocol of the parish vestry, or the person's own statement, for further information. Our lords-lieutenants, or the superintendents of police, shall afterwards consider the circumstances of the case, and communicate their decision in writing to the person, in the event of his being, according to the enactments made, liable to perform public labour, together with the reasons for such decision, which shall be delivered to him in the presence of witnesses within three days, exclusive of the day on which the decision was made known to him, with ample and circumstantial instructions written thereon for making an appeal. Such unprotected person as may not be considered evil disposed shall be allowed to be at large until such time as the decision of Our lord-lieutenant or superintendents of police for his being sent to a pioneer corps or house of correction shall have been received; but in how far such liberty may, when the person is dissatisfied with the decision, be still further continued, or be extended until the final decision is come to, as also whether and to what degree evil-disposed persons, after a question has arose respecting their being sent to the house of correction, may be permitted to be at large for a shorter or longer period, it shall be in the power of the abovementioned official authorities to settle and determine, according to the nature of each particular case.

If any other person concerned in the matter, or the unprotected person himself, should, although he may not be sentenced to labour, be desirous to complain respecting the decision, they shall be entitled to obtain the decree without delay, with instructions written thereon how to make the appeal.

The orders prescribed in this ordinance for the observance of Our lords-lieutenants shall also serve as a guide for the officer executing the functions of chief stadtholder at Stockholm, and the superintendents of police in other towns, without however disturbing the existing regulations respecting the mode of proceeding in order to obtain an alteration in the decisions made by the superintendents of police.

S. 23. Any person who may be desirous of having the decision of the officer executing the functions of Our chief stadtholder, respecting an unprotected person, revised, shall be bound before 12 o'clock on the eighth day after the decision shall have been communicated to such person, exclusive of the day the communication was made, duly to deliver in their humble appeals, addressed to Us, to the officer executing the functions of Our chief stadtholder or Our lord-lieutenant, who may have communicated the decree, or if the complainant be imprisoned, to the officer having the charge of him. Should the person thus imprisoned be in want of assistance for the purpose of drawing up the appeal, the officer executing the functions of Our chief stadtholder, or lord-lieutenant, shall adopt measures for his receiving the required assistance. Should a person who may have been considered liable to public labour neglect to make his appeal within the time prescribed by law, or be satisfied with the decision respecting him, the same shall, after the expiration of the said time, be carried into effect. Should, on the other hand, the appeals be delivered in within the proper time, it shall be the duty of the officer executing the functions

functions of Our chief stadtholder, or Our lords-lieutenants, to deliver in the said appeals as soon as possible to Our court of judicial review, accompanied with the explanations of the parties concerned, if such should be necessary, and also with the requisite documents for the hearing of the case, and with these functionaries' own opinion on the same; and in such a case the decision complained of shall not, in its main objects, be carried into effect until the appeal has been considered by Us, and Our gracious decision has been received at the place. The person who may be imprisoned, or may be considered by the officer executing the functions of chief stadtholder, or our lord-lieutenant, as liable to confinement, shall during the interval remain in custody.

S. 24. To the person who shall be sent to a pioneer corps, work institution, or house of correction, a passport shall be granted by Our lord-lieutenant to the place that may have been fixed upon, and the name of the person, his age, and a description of his person, together with an exact inventory of the wearing apparel or other articles he may carry with him, shall be specified in the passport. The officer or officers to whom the charge of such a person may be confided during the journey, shall have the care of the passport and such wearing apparel, and shall each separately be responsible for the due delivery of the same, as well as of the person himself, at the place appointed. The protocol and the sentence that concern the person, shall without any delay and by the first post be forwarded to the chief of the pioneers, or to the commandant or superintendent at the work institution or house of correction where the person is to be sent. Should the person possess money, such money shall accompany the aforesaid documents.

S. 25. For the transport of unprotected persons to the work place appointed, the same coach hire and support shall be allowed as are fixed for prisoners in general; and such a person shall not be secured in a more severe manner than circumstances may require. The nature and mode of securing the person shall rest with Our lord-lieutenant to determine who may forward the said person, and of which specific instructions shall be given in the passport, with power to the keeper who accompanies the prisoner to adopt measures for a more severe treatment, if such should during the journey be rendered necessary, for duly securing such person, and to continue such new treatment until he shall arrive at the seat of the next provincial government, and Our lord-lieutenant at such place shall have ascertained the state of the case, and have given directions how and in what manner the said person is to be conducted. Such person as may be sent to a pioneer corps, work institution or house of correction, shall, while being conveyed to such a place, be as far as may be possible kept separate from prisoners that may have been punished for crimes, or otherwise be kept from conversation and communication with them.

This Our gracious Ordinance shall be put in force at the commencement of the month of November next ensuing, and be then carried into effect. Our lords-lieutenants shall be separately informed of the present station of the pioneer corps, and generally be made acquainted with the places to which unemployed persons shall be sent. To which all whom it may concern shall obediently conform themselves. In further testimony, We have subscribed this with Our own hand, and caused the same to be confirmed with Our royal seal. The palace of Stockholm, the 29th of June 1833.

CHARLES JOHN. (L. S.)

LETTER from J. A. D. Bloomfield, Esq. to Sir George Shee, Bart.

Sir,

Stockholm, November 29th, 1833.

LORD Howard de Walden acknowledged, on the 25th October, Mr. Backhouse's circular of the 12th August, requesting information as to the legal provision which exists in Sweden for the support of the poor, and mentioned that he had delivered a memorandum on this subject to M. de Hartmansdorff, the Secretary of State for Ecclesiastical Affairs. I have now the honour to transmit a copy of M. de Hartmansdorff's Memorandum, marked No. 1, and two Tables, marked Nos. 2 and 3; and have drawn up the following observations, containing a further explanation of the different points; which, I trust, will convey all the information required by Lord Palmerston.

The first query of the circular, "*What legal provision exists in Sweden for the support and maintenance of the poor,*" is answered by Enclosure No. 1, which states the mode and sources of the legal provision. It shows that the general system is not unlike that of England, though (*vide* Paragraphs 8, 10 and 11, in No. 1,) the mode of levying, as well as employing the poor rates, may somewhat vary in the different parishes, according to their respective ability to pay either in money or in kind; if in kind, the poor are billeted for food and lodging on the different householders, or otherwise relieved by them in proportion to the other taxes, contributed by each householder to Government.

The poor establishments are divided into two distinct classes.

The first class consists of foundling and other hospitals, lazarettos and mad-houses. The number of them is adequate to the want. They are built (if not by private endowment) by the State, but their current expenses defrayed by the parish.

The second class comprises all work and correction houses. They are built and maintained, and their expenses are defrayed by the State.

It may here be remarked, that permanent magazines of food, wood, and clothes, to meet particular emergencies, form a part of the provision for the poor.

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As to the second point of the circular, "*The principles on which the provision is founded*;" they appear to be, "That the infant, sick, infirm and aged poor (to the exclusion of able-bodied vagrants of both sexes), ought to be educated, relieved and housed at the expense of their fellow citizens, the share contributed by each being regulated by the amount of other taxes paid by him to Government."

The third point of the circular, "*The manner in which the provision is administered*," is clearly elucidated by Enclosure No. 1, which, after premising that every parish must educate and support its own poor, defines the different sorts of hospitals, almshouses and schools, and the description of poor which are admissible to each. It states the manner in which the Boards for the administration and control of the poor-rates are formed, the objects to which the funds are applied, and the principal heads of the vagrant and mendicity laws. (*Vide* paragraphs 18, 19, 20, in Enclosure No. 1.)

As to the fourth point of the circular, "*The mode of raising, and amount of the provision*;" the mode of raising it is clearly detailed in Enclosure No. 1, of which, *vide*

Par. 4. For madhouses and hospitals for incurables.

Par. 5. For lock hospitals.

Par. 6. For asylums for orphans and the destitute aged.

Par. 7. Public contributions and collections, and certain fines and penalties come in aid of the poor.

P. 370.

As to the amount, it will be seen from Enclosure No. 2 (a *Résumé* of all the Tables concerning the affairs of the poor throughout Sweden), that during 1829, out of a population of 2,780,132 souls, 65,348 (about $\frac{1}{42}$) required relief; and that the sum employed for this purpose was 960,903 riks dollars (about 73,915*l.* sterling), of which the capital arising from legacies and private endowments, 347,830 riks dollars (about 26,756*l.* sterling) forms a considerable part. During the same year 5,832 children were educating in 807 poor schools distributed over Sweden.

As to the fifth point of the circular, "*The practical working and effect of the actual system upon the comfort, character and condition of the people*;" it may be remarked, that the bare adequacy of the means of Sweden to provide for the support of the poor, imperatively requires the exclusion of the idle from any share of the poor-rates, but that the system, from its extreme simplicity and facility of supervision, works easily, and is well suited to the state of the country. The number of the poor since its institution has increased in proportion to the population. There is not, however, much appearance of abject poverty throughout the country. Thirst for amusement, want of emulation or industry, are the principal features of the Swedish character. The Swede is patient under privation and suffering; his wants are but few, and can easily be supplied; and his feeling of pride generally prevents him from making an unnecessary demand for parish relief.

Sir George Shee, Bart.,

&c. &c. &c.

I have, &c.

J. A. D. Bloomfield.

Enclosure, No. 1.

1. It is not permitted to go about asking alms, either in town or in the country.
2. Every person who is not in need of assistance is obliged to contribute to the support of indigent old persons, and to the education of poor children.
3. Every parish is bound by law to support its poor, and to maintain an almshouse to receive the aged, sick and infirm.
4. Those who are affected by madness, or incurable diseases, are received at the public hospitals for a moderate sum, payable by their parish. These hospitals are of two kinds; either madhouses maintained by the State or legacies throughout the country, or infirmaries erected for each county by donations and voluntary contributions of the inhabitants.
5. For the cure of venereal diseases hospitals are to be found in each county, supported by a poll-tax of one to five skillings banco ($1\frac{1}{2}$ *d.* to 2 *d.*) on each taxable person: infected poor are there received gratis.
6. The destitute aged who do not belong to any parish are received at the hospitals; and destitute children are brought up in the orphan asylums, which are maintained by the State in certain parts of the country.
7. Every parish has a pecuniary fund for the poor, raised and maintained either by voluntary contributions on solemn occasions, such as marriages, baptisms, funerals, &c., or by the produce of certain fines and penalties. These funds cannot be employed for other purposes without the especial permission of the King.
8. Every parish regulates within itself, at meetings of the parishioners, the mode of levying, as well as employing the poor-rates. The resolutions then taken by the voters are considered as fully obligatory, if not contrary to law. They are sometimes submitted to the confirmation of the King.

9. Towns containing several parishes have, in some points, a common management of the affairs of the poor; but every parish has its own almshouse, and is subjected to especial taxes for its maintenance.

10. In default of mutual agreement, the rates are levied, in the country in proportion to the taxed value of the landed estates, (whether they are the property of a landholder, a leaseholder, or a freeholder;) and in towns, commonly in proportion to the contributions levied on houses for other wants of the community. Non-proprietors are commonly assessed for the support of the poor in proportion to the sum paid by them to the government in taxes.

11. The poor, whether received at or only maintained by the poor-houses, are relieved in different ways; partly by allowances in money, victuals, wood, clothes and other things; partly by billeting them, for a certain number of days, on the different landowners; or by placing them as boarders (to the lowest bidders), by whom they are variously employed according to their capacities. In towns they are sometimes sent to the houses of correction.

12. The administration of the poor fund is committed to the clergyman, aided by the churchwardens, or a special committee of governors, called the church-council. They are elected in the country at general meetings, by the landholders among themselves, according to the confidence generally reposed in them; in towns, commonly by the rector of the parish and the board of aldermen. The length of time they remain in this office is not determined by law. In some places the churchwardens are exempted from some common duties, but they usually serve without remuneration.

13. The members of the parish have a vote at the meetings, according to the value of their houses in town, or landed estates in the country. The clergyman is always president.

14. Every poor person is considered as belonging to that parish where he has last held any estate, or where he has been inscribed on the lists of contribution, as tenant, servant or boarder.

15. No infirm person is allowed to take service in a parish, nor any vagrant to settle as cottager or boarder, without the consent of the parishioners.

16. The poor when ill used, as well as the parishioners when too heavily taxed, have their appeal from the decisions of the meetings to the governor of the province, from him to the superior court of assessments, and thence again to the King, if the question concerns a parish in the country. In town the appeal is made from the governor of the province directly to the King.

17. The inspection over the management of the poor funds belongs, in towns, to the governor, the clergy and the board of aldermen; in the country, to the clergy and the governor of the province. The decision of the governor is carried into effect in the country by the bailiffs, serjeants or constables of the district, and in towns by the police.

18. Beggars are seized and brought back by public conveyances to their own parish, upon which the expense of their removal falls.

19. Vagrants are liable to be employed in public works within the province, or pressed into military service in certain corps; or in default of other means of subsistence, obliged to work in the public houses of correction, where, commonly, punished criminals and other infamous persons in want of lawful employment find means of earning their bread.

20. Every one is considered as a vagrant who cannot produce a certificate of service, or an evidence of means of independent livelihood, or a security of 50 riks dollars banco (3*l.* 15*s.* sterling), for a given time, during which he is allowed to procure work or service.

21. The public houses of correction for criminal poor are maintained at the expense of the State.

Enclosure, No. 2.

RESUME of all the TABLES concerning the ADMINISTRATION of the AFFAIRS of the Poor throughout the Kingdom of Sweden, for the Year 1829.

DIOCESE.	Population.	POOR.		Sex not given in.	Taken Care of.		AMOUNT of the Poor's Chest.		Different Donations as Capital.	Assigned Yearly by Individuals.
		Males.	Fem.		In the Poor-house.	Out of the Poor-house.	R. dol.	s.		
Upsala - - -	284,331	1,334	4,227	1,307	926	5,942	155,436	16	62,784	16
Linköping - - -	285,194	1,853	4,120	801	1,467	5,307	165,437	-	65,629	-
Skara - - -	237,402	2,113	3,914	953	1,281	5,699	66,967	40	17,377	16
Strengnäs - - -	204,419	1,030	2,490	1,097	1,114	3,503	116,602	-	25,211	32
Westeras - - -	238,476	1,051	2,927	2,156	347	5,787	91,702	8	42,897	40
Wexjö - - -	210,759	882	2,054	371	538	2,769	85,241	8	8,934	8
Lunds - - -	432,384	2,260	4,893	668	1,478	6,343	121,601	-	17,487	24
Göteborgs - - -	308,252	2,667	5,270	1,555	603	8,889	57,608	8	70,908	-
Calmar - - -	97,534	281	815	47	106	1,037	24,575	-	363	24
Carlstads - - -	233,597	2,650	4,384	1,163	130	8,067	38,315	32	14,607	32
Hernösands - - -	210,131	1,100	1,830	505	110	3,325	24,410	-	20,138	8
Wisby - - -	37,653	65	271	244	34	546	13,007	-	1,491	24
Total - - -	2,780,132	17,286	37,195	10,867	8,134	57,214	960,903	16	347,830	32
		65,348			65,348					

* continued below

* continued from above.

DIOCESE, continued.	Value of the Yearly Contributions to the Parishes.		Magazines for The Poor.			Poor Chests belonging to Magazines.	INVALID FUNDS.							
	R. dol.	s.	No	Barrels.	1/32	R. dol.	s.	Invalid Funds.	Work house.	Foundling Hospital.	Hospital.	Thereto belonging.		
												Poor Chests.	Assigned Yearly.	
	R. dol.	s.				R. dol.	s.	R. dol.	s.				R. dol.	s.
Upsala - -	43,151	4	41	6,197	11	5,605	24	4,029	24	1	1	2	21,190	-
Linköping - -	29,933	16	32	2,416	14	866	24	3,522	24	1	1	1	4,233	16
Skara - -	16,001	32	32	2,089	12	803	24	2,242	8	1	-	1	500	-
Strengnäs - -	20,235	40	18	1,443	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	2	-	-
Westerås - -	17,684	24	6	584	16	139	24	-	-	1	1	1	333	16
Wexjö - -	15,201	-	8	753	1	657	24	1,454	-	-	-	-	-	-
Lunds - -	34,502	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	1	1	-	-
Göteborgs - -	49,477	-	2	133	8	10	-	-	-	1	2	3	-	-
Calmar - -	6,415	24	1	80	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Carlstads - -	30,456	-	8	2,414	16	1,097	24	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
Hernösands - -	8,883	40	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
Visby - -	899	16	15	1,822	-	5,488	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-
Total - -	272,891	8	163	17,933	14	14,668	8	11,248	8	11	6	14	26,256	32

* continued below.

* continued below

DIOCESE, continued.	POOR SCHOOLS.				Thereto belonging.		For the Objects.		
	CHILDREN.				Poor Chests.	Assigned.	Suffi- cient.	In- sufficient.	Not given in.
	No	Males.	Females.	Sex not given in.					
Upsala - - -	114	-	-	701	69,419 -	908 4	210	35	-
Linköping - - -	43	150	122	290	37,088 12	635 28	162	45	-
Skara - - -	86	-	-	469	7,072 16	488 16	236	116	12
Strengnäs - - -	70	154	94	141	21,144 -	302 40	142	27	3
Westeras - - -	61	10	14	708	28,918 16	1,895 -	61	60	-
Wexjö - - -	31	24	13	110	26,438 -	51 42	127	60	-
Lunds - - -	255	25	157	853	18,421 36	636 16	305	117	1
Göteborgs - - -	27	4	14	1,503	5,462 29 4	10,732 21	133	119	6
Calmar - - -	14	-	-	-	2,550 16	757 -	48	15	-
Carlstads - - -	31	-	-	-	6,705 16	476 32	106	30	-
Hernösands - - -	8	4	2	75	4,466 32	20 -	90	63	-
Wisby - - -	67	120	30	45	-	238 24	81	8	-
Total - - -	807	491	446	4,895	227,686 29 4	17,142 30	1,701	695	22
		5,832							

Enclosure, No. 3.

TABLE grounded on the Accounts of the Administration of the Poor Funds of the Parishes of *Stockholm*, and on the collective Census made of those Relieved in the Poor Houses, and other similar Establishments, in *Stockholm*.

	Population of 1830.	Constant Poor for 1830.		Expenses of the Poor House.		Expenses of the Relief House.*		Income of the Poor House.		Average from 1812 to 1828.		Contribution from the Inhabitants to the Poor's Chest.		Average from 1812 to 1828.
		At the Poor House.	At the Relief House.*	1829.	Average from 1812 to 1828.	1829.	Average from 1812 to 1828.	1829.	Average from 1812 to 1828.	1829.	Average from 1812 to 1828.	1829.	Average from 1812 to 1828.	
				R.dol. s. r.	R.dol. s. r.	R.dol. s. r.	R.dol. s. r.	R.dol. s. r.	R.dol. s. r.	R.dol. s. r.	R.dol. s. r.	R.dol. s. r.	R.dol. s. r.	
Parishes within the Bridges	11,805	254	33	11,914 47 -	8,987 41 10	1,581 20 7	1,948 28 10	19,036 38 6	10,576 9 -	1,500 - -	1,594 4 -			
Clara Parish	9,885	180	-	7,901 1 -	6,115 21 8	- - -	- - -	8,904 26 2	5,669 37 6	825 - -	717 32 -			
James and John's Parish	10,342	163	43	6,074 20 9	4,837 20 8	1,827 29 9	1,687 30 4	4,539 15 -	4,011 17 10	1,500 - -	1,500 - -			
Magdalen Parish	11,343	150	45	4,128 32 11	3,583 26 4	3,221 21 1	2,998 43 8	3,775 5 5	3,989 5 10	2,500 - -	2,505 42 -			
Catharine's Parish	13,418	173	48	6,169 28 6	4,184 26 6	5,386 7 4	4,400 39 6	7,041 8 4	4,659 22 -	4,000 - -	3,941 8 -			
Ulrica Eleonora's Parish	3,223	52	-	1,235 13 1	925 9 -	3,326 - 10	1,977 34 6	2,448 22 8	1,587 17 4	2,000 - -	1,770 28 -			
Hedveg Eleonora's Parish	13,521	69	80	3,159 39 4	2,030 6 -	4,530 10 1	4,080 32 -	3,182 39 4	2,380 30 4	4,000 - -	3,882 18 -			
Adolphus Frederic's Parish	7,138	78	41	2,125 34 7	1,872 4 -	2,775 25 5	2,895 41 8	2,792 40 8	2,369 17 8	2,800 - -	2,670 28 -			
TOTAL	80,675	1,119	290	42,709 25 2	32,536 12 -	22,648 19 1	19,990 10 6	44,721 4 1	35,243 13 6	19,125 - -	18,582 16 -			

* *Relief Houses*—a place in each parish where wood, clothes, cheap soups, blankets, &c. are either given or sold very cheap to the poor; a certain number of poor having daily gratuitous relief from them for their lives.

Total
Widya
Hemölands
Carlskrona
Calmar
Göteborg
Lands
Wexio
Westera
Strängnäs
Skara
Linköping
Upsala

Total
Widya
Hemölands
Carlskrona
Calmar
Göteborg
Lands
Wexio
Westera
Strängnäs
Skara
Linköping
Upsala

* continued from above

* continued from above

Appendix (F.)

LETTER from J. A. D. Bloomfield, Esq. to Sir George Shee, Bart.

Sir,

Stockholm, April 9th, 1834.

IN compliance with Lord Palmerston's instructions conveyed to me in your circular despatch of the 30th November 1833, I have the honour to return enclosed one of the sets of questions, drawn up by the Poor Law Commissioners, relative to the condition of the poor, and to the legal or charitable provisions for their support within the kingdom of Sweden, with the most accurate and comprehensive answers which I have been able to obtain.

I have the honour also to subjoin translations of an extract from M. Forsell's Swedish Statistics, published last year, which relates principally to the condition of the poor; a memorandum detailing the regulations for the support of the poor in the parish of St. Jacob and St. John, in Stockholm; dietary at the southern house of correction, at Stockholm, for males; dietary at the northern house of correction, at Stockholm, for females; and dietary at the city prison, at Stockholm, called "Castenhof."

Sir George Shee, Bart.,
&c. &c. &c.

I have the honour, &c.
J. A. D. Bloomfield.

Enclosure, No. 1.

VAGRANTS.

1. To what extent and under what form does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?—The extent is trifling, and not to be ascertained. Mendicant vagrants are principally farm servants and journeymen tradesmen out of employ, disbanded soldiers and sailors.

2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country, seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded, and under what regulations?—None, except to journeymen tradesmen seeking work, during their apprenticeship, who receive 9 *d.* per man, in each town, from the trade they belong to, for the purpose of continuing their journey. There are also in some districts landed estates, granted by the Crown, the rents of which are distributed to journeymen tradesmen by the parish clergyman. Persons without passports are arrested, and sent to hard labour, unless they can obtain respectable securities for their good conduct.

DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

There is no legal provision for this class of persons.

IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there almshouses or other institutions for the reception of those who, through age, are incapable of earning their subsistence?—In most parishes there are alms or workhouses endowed by private individuals, or supported by the parish. The clergyman and vestry alone have the direction of them, and the power of selecting the inmates.

2. To what extent and under what regulations is relief in food, fuel, clothing or money afforded them at their homes?—To the amount of from 1 *l.* to 2 *l.* a year; sometimes in money; sometimes in food, fuel or clothing, to the above amount.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—They are only boarded when quartered or billeted.

4. To what extent and under what regulations are they quartered or billeted on the householders?—In most parishes they are quartered or billeted amongst the parishioners, who take the pauper into their house for a week or a longer time, according to the rate of their assessment for Crown taxes, and at the expiration of the term (always fixed by the clergyman and vestry), the pauper is transferred to another parishioner.

5. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking part of their families?—Relatives are not compelled to assist them in a greater degree than the other parishioners are.

SICK.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there district institutions for the reception of the sick?—At Stockholm there are two hospitals capable of accommodating 300 patients. At the chief town of each of the 24 districts (or provincial governments) there is an hospital, where from 12 to 24 patients can be received. These hospitals are for all complaints. They are supported principally by grants of land from the Crown, by a capitation tax of 1 *d.* on each person above the age of 16, and by a portion of fines on penal offences. Each province defrays the expense of its hospital. In large towns, and at forges and sawing establishments, there are generally hospitals, which are supported entirely by private individuals.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are surgical and medical relief afforded to the poor at their own homes?—In every province there is a provincial doctor, who is obliged to attend the sick when sent for, and on payment of his travelling expenses alone. In cases of epidemy, the provincial doctor is ordered by the authorities to attend the sick and supply medicines, both *gratis*.

3. To

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick?—The provincial and parish hospitals and almshouses supply food, fuel and clothing to the patients whilst there, but not after their departure, and in no case money. The food granted to the inmates of these establishments is so insufficient, that unless they are able to collect from friends or others 3*d.* a day, they can scarcely subsist. The parish establishments are supported by a parish rate.

4. To what extent and under what regulations is assistance given to lying-in women at their homes, or in public establishments?—The only lying-in hospital is at Stockholm, where about 230 women are annually delivered *gratis*. It is supported by municipal contributions.

5. To what extent and under what regulations are there any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick?—No other modes exist than those above mentioned.

CHILDREN :

Illegitimate.

1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall ; wholly upon the mothers, or wholly upon the fathers ; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations?—The expense falls partly on the one, partly on the other. When the father acknowledges paternity, the law compels him to contribute according to his means. When a woman swears a child, and the man denies it on oath, the magistrates collect the best evidence they can, and, if appearances are against the man, condemn him, on pain of imprisonment on bread and water, to pay a certain annual sum for the support of the child.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards?—They are in no case compelled by law.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?—There are no public institutions for the reception of illegitimate children, except one at Stockholm and one at Gottenburg. At each a fixed sum (about 5*l.*) is paid on entry for every child, without any ulterior charge. At Stockholm, there are about 2,000 children on the list of the establishment, of which number three-fourths are distributed in the country with peasants willing to receive and support them, for about 3*s.* 2*d.* each per month. At the age of 15, the children cease to be a charge on the establishment ; they must then provide for themselves, and usually become farm or house servants, sailors, or they learn some trade. These establishments are supported by grants of land from the Crown, by endowments by individuals, and by municipal contributions and fines.

Orphans, Foundlings, or Deserted Children.

4. To what extent and under what regulations are they taken into establishments for their reception?—There are no express establishments for their reception. They are generally received in those which accommodate the impotent through age.

5. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders? 6. Or boarded with individuals?—On the same condition as the impotent through age.

7. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—Their relatives are not legally compellable in a greater degree than other parishioners are.

CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

Cripples are considered as impotent through age, received at the same establishments, and treated in the same way.

The deaf and dumb are for the most part under the same regulations as the impotent through age ; but near Stockholm there is an establishment for the accommodation of 30 or 40 inmates. The expenses of the establishment are defrayed by a grant from the State of 420*l.* a year, by endowments and by voluntary contributions.

The blind are received and treated as impotent through age.

IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception?—There are 12 asylums for idiots and lunatics, which contained last year 842 patients. The expenses are mainly defrayed by royal and private endowments. When a parish wishes to send a patient to an asylum, it must pay about 2*l.* 10*s.*, without any ulterior charge on the parish.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders? 3. Or boarded with individuals?—They are billeted, quartered and boarded with householders, under the same regulations as the impotent through age.

4. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—They are not compelled to support them in a greater degree than other parishioners.

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

You are requested to state whether the receipt, or the expectation of relief, appears to produce any and what effect?

1st, On the industry of the labourers?—It makes them less industrious.

2d, On their frugality?—Less frugal.

P.L. (F.)

3 c 3

3d, On

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.

SWEDEN.

3d. On the age at which they marry? And 4th, On the mutual dependence and affection of parent, children, and other relatives?—No perceptible effect.

5th, What, on the whole, is the condition of the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, as compared with the condition of the person subsisting on alms or public charity? Is the condition of the latter, as to food and freedom from labour, more or less eligible? (See p. 261 and 335 of the Poor Law "Extracts.")—The able-bodied self-supporting labourer of the lowest class is in a better condition than the person subsisting on alms or public charity. The destitute able-bodied labourer subsisting on charity is in a worse condition than the self-supporting labourer as to food. The destitute able-bodied labourer, not being supported by the parish, no comparison can be drawn between his condition and that of the self-supporting labourer.

LABOURERS, &c.

Agriculturists.

Artisans.

1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month, or the year, with and without provisions, in summer and in winter?

-- The skilled male labourer can earn between 7d. and 8d. a day; the unskilled between 3d. and 4d.; both without provisions.

-- The carpenter, bricklayer, smith, &c. earns on an average 1 s. 7d. a day, during nine months, without provisions. In winter, in-door labourers nearly the same sum, but out-door labourers nothing.

2. Is piece-work general?

-- It is so far general, that proprietors agree with labourers for an annual sum, for which they engage to perform certain duties and works; and in the neighbourhood of large towns it is not uncommon.

-- It is becoming general.

3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?

-- About 11 l. a year.

4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?

-- Annual expenditure of a labourer and family, about 11 l. The expenditure for schooling, &c. cannot be calculated, but it is exceedingly trifling.

-- In Stockholm, a mechanic is supposed to expend 45 l. a year for himself, wife and four children, and the religious teaching of the latter.

5. Is there any, and what employment for women and children?

-- Women and children are employed in farming and spinning, and weaving at home.

6. What can women, and children under 16, earn per week, in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed?

-- In summer, a woman can earn 4d. a day; children under 16, 2d. In autumn and winter they spin and weave at home to an uncertain amount, but usually sufficient to supply the family with linen and blankets, and sell some.

-- The wife, 8 l. a year; boy of 14, 4 l. 10 s.; children, of 11 and 8, 2 l.; child of 5, 0.

7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8, and 5 years respectively, (the eldest a boy,) expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?

-- The wife, 5 l. a year; boy of 14, 2 l. 10 s.; children, 11 and 8, 10 s. each; child of 5, 0.

8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children; and if so, on what food?

-- It could. In the southern provinces, on potatoes and salt fish; in the northern, on porridge and rye bread.

-- It could; on better food than the agriculturists, with coffee, and occasionally fresh meat.

9. Could it lay by any thing, and how much?

-- Very little, if anything.

-- Can lay by from 2 l. to 8 l. a year.

10. The

10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?—From one to five acres.
11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations?—The nobility, iron-masters, landed proprietors and farmers.
12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale?—The rent of a labourer's habitation and a few acres of land is usually paid by work done for the owner of the estate, at the rate of two or three days' labour per week, according to agreement. The price on sale of a free labourer's habitation may be estimated at 20*l*.
13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—Sometimes lands are let on condition of work, and a small rent (usually paid in kind.) The quantity, one to fifteen acres. The rent may be calculated at 5*s*. an acre.
14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?—Population in 1825 amounted to 2,771,252. Proportion of annual deaths, 1 in 41 $\frac{1}{2}$.
15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?—Medium from 1815 to 1830, 1 in 29.
16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?—One to 117 $\frac{1}{2}$.
17. The average number of children to a marriage?—From 3 $\frac{6}{10}$ to 4 $\frac{1}{8}$.
18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?—In 1749, 1 in 49; from 1775 to 1795, 1 in 27; from 1795 to 1800, 1 in 20; 1800 to 1805, 1 in 17; 1805 to 1810, 1 in 15; 1810 to 1820, 1 in 14; 1820 to 1825, 1 in 13 $\frac{3}{10}$; 1825 to 1830, 1 in 16.
19. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year?—One to 6 $\frac{1}{4}$; legitimate, 1 to 6 $\frac{1}{13}$; illegitimate, 1 to 3 $\frac{15}{17}$.
20. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 10th year?—Not known.
21. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 18th year?—Not known. Thirteen twenty-ninths die before the 16th year.
22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—Males, 27. Females, 23.
23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—1st. The clergyman's advice occasionally given not to marry without means to support a family. 2d. Impossibility of a marriage being solemnized by the clergyman without satisfactory evidence that the parties are unmarried. 3d. Consciousness of want of means to support a family, owing to the difficulties of obtaining a livelihood, and to the absence of legal provision for the destitute able-bodied. 4th. The little shame attached in the middle and lower classes to having bastards.
24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried, 2d, the married, save?—The unmarried, seldom anything. The married are more provident, but extent not to be ascertained.
25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—In savings banks, of which there are 35.

GENERAL REMARKS.

Private charity displays itself, in Sweden, not so much in institutions of any kind, as in frequent voluntary relief to destitute individuals, sometimes in money, but chiefly in food. The collections made every Sunday at the parish churches amount to inconceivably little.

The main defect of the charitable institutions consists in a very imperfect control over the application of their funds, the parish not being accountable for their distribution to any superior authority. This is so much felt, that new regulations are contemplated for bringing parish affairs more under the inspection of a central board. Another great evil is, that each parish manages its affairs quite independently of any other, and frequently in a totally different manner; and there is no mutual inspection among the parishes, which, it is supposed, would check abuses. Again, parishes are not consistent in affording relief; they often receive and treat an able-bodied impostor (who legally has no claim on the parish) as an impotent or sick person, whilst many of the latter description remain unaided. The Swedish artisan is neither so industrious nor so frugal as formerly; he has heard that the destitute able-bodied are, in England, supported by the parish; he claims similar relief, and alleges his expectation of it as an excuse for prodigality or indifference as to saving.

All the prisons are under the superintendence of the prison direction, which apportions to each prison the means destined for it, which are levied by the governors of the respective provinces.

Enclosure, No. 2.

REMARKS on the Poor, the Correction Houses and the Prisons. Extracted from

Colonel Forsell's Swedish Statistics, published in December 1833.

THAT the number of the poor has lately increased in a far greater progression than before, is indeed a deplorable truth. Sweden, in that respect, resembles most other countries. To explain satisfactorily the causes of this sudden augmentation, is by no means easy. Economical regulations may have contributed to that effect, and in this country especially, the, perhaps too far extended, principle of personal liberty,

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and settlements on too small portions of land^(a), may have rather encouraged than counteracted vagrancy^(b); but other causes may have powerfully contributed thereto. The frequent failure in late years of the harvests, must have had a most deplorable influence on the outlay of the working class. To this must be added, that pretensions to the enjoyment of a multitude of the conveniences of life have increased in a far greater proportion than the means of providing for the outlay and subsistence of the working classes, and consequently the limits between those living comfortably and those who struggle against poverty and indigence, are every day growing more and more palpable.

Among the causes of the ruin of many a poor family in Sweden, are to be reckoned the wild beasts, such as bears and wolves. In the year 1827 they killed in the whole country 502 reindeer, 714 horses, 4,025 horned cattle, 28,616 sheep and goats, and 2,755 hogs. Be the causes of the increase of the poor what they may, it is still a cheering circumstance, that the better orders are beginning to regard it as a duty to obtain means of employment for the working classes. Wherever one travels in Sweden, one hears of newly established schools for the children of the peasantry, and of many institutions for promoting the education, industry and support of the lower orders. If that spirit were more general, and if thereby the good-old Swedish law, prescribing a certain portion of land as necessary for the support of a household, were revived, and earnestly acted on, it might be hoped, that the rapid increase of population, far from exciting apprehensions, would rather tend to increase the power, the happiness, and the respectability of the country.

The number of poor in Sweden, in the year 1825, according to the returns of the Tabellary Committee, amounted to no less than 544,064 souls. Consequently, on an average, every fifth person cannot maintain life without assistance from others^(c).

At Stockholm, in the year 1737, the number of poor was 930^(d). In 1825, there were reckoned 15,000 indigent persons. Their support, in 1731, cost 9,000 dollars (daller). In 1825, nearly 500,000 rix-dollars banco were employed in alms, donations and pensions. Perhaps these facts explain why, in Stockholm, every year, about 1,500 individuals more die than are born, although the climate and situation of this capital is by no means insalubrious^(e); for the same may be said of almshouses as is said of foundling hospitals and similar charitable establishments, that the more their number is increased the more they are applied to^(f).

In London, with a population twice that of Paris, between the years 1819 and 1823, 153 foundlings were picked up, and 4,668 bastards were received into its 44 workhouses, and of that number one-third were sustained at the cost of their parents. In Paris, during the same period, no less than 25,277 children were received as foundlings, and all were supported at the expense of the state.

In the little and carefully governed city of Orebro (in Sweden), the number of poor during the year 1780 was no more than 70 or 80 individuals, and in the year 1832 it was 400! In the parish of Nora, in the province of Nerike, the alms given in the year 1814 were 170 rix-dollars, 4 sk., and in 1832, 2,138 rix-dollars, 27 sk. and so on, at many other places in the kingdom. That the case was otherwise in Sweden formerly, is proved by history. Botin, in his History of the Swedish People, says, "that a laborious life, abhor-

(a) The new regulation against vagrancy, published a few months ago, is of a nature to check this disproportion.

(b) In the governor's quinquennial report on Jemtland for 1833, it is said, "Experience has proved the mischief of dividing lands and farms in too small portions, wherefore it is my duty to declare that the regulated minimum is far too little to confer the name of landowner or farmer, especially in this parish." A multitude of poor cottages are rising in this manner, whose possessors have no other means of subsistence than their labour; and should that even nourish them in good years, yet in each year of dearth they are liable to the greatest distress. To entitle the possessor to the name of landowner, an extent of from nine to fifteen Swedish acres is requisite, so that the labourers may draw their subsistence from it. Such a portion of land should feed a horse or a pair of oxen, three or four cows, and five or six sheep or goats. Yet a statute of the 19th December 1827 permits that a landowner may possess only half an acre, if it is situated within three English miles from any town.

(c) To be indigent, and to be totally poor or destitute, is not the same thing. The number of poor in Sweden of this latter kind forms not one seventy-seventh of the whole population.

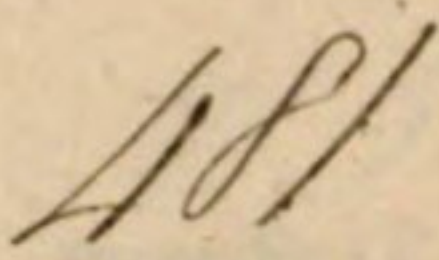
(d) The real poor, or such as were supported by alms and charity-houses, were in 1830 no more than 1,124. Their subsistence cost 49,752 dollars banco.

(e) The great mortality in Stockholm is very remarkable. During the quinquennium of 1825 to 1830, according to official reports, in the first regiment of guards, 800 strong, 294 died, that is, on an average, every 14th man each year, although the men were in the prime of life; no epidemic existed, and they were in nowise neglected. During the year 1820, no less than 6,648 men, according to the usual reports, were returned sick, that is, every soldier had fallen sick three times in the year. By dissections made in the garrison hospital in Stockholm, it has been observed, that the insides of the bodies of those who had been known to use spirituous liquors to excess, have been so disorganized, that it excited astonishment they could have lived so long. Generally speaking, they did not reach the age of 40.

(f) It seems that the numerous charitable institutions and almshouses in Stockholm, are a reason why there are so many poor. In Stockholm are no less than 83 different boards for affording relief to the poor, and independent one of the other, so that it happens often that a beggar receives alms at three, four or five different places.

An English acre =
0.820 of a Swedish.

A dollar banco =
1 s. 7 d. sterling.



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rence of idleness and fear of poverty, was the cause why indigent and destitute persons could be found, but no beggars. Each family sustained its destitute and impotent, and would have deemed it a shame to receive support from others."

When the accounts required from the secretary of state for ecclesiastical affairs, regarding the number of and institutions for the poor, shall be reduced to order, and issue from the press, they must impart most important information. By the interesting report on this subject by the of Bishop of Wexio, we learn, that the proportion of the poor to the population is as 1 to 73 in the government of Wexio, and as 1 to 54 in that of Jönköping. The assessed poor-taxes are, on an average, for every farm (hemman), eight kapper corn in the former government, and 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ in the latter. With regard to the institutions for the poor, it is said, the more we give the more is demanded, and instead of the poor-rates being regulated by the want, the want is regulated by the profusion of charities and poor-taxes.

8 kappar = 1 bus
The price of 8 kappar = 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ doll. or
2 s. 5 d.

In the bishopric of Wisby (Island of Gottland), the proportion between the poor and those who can maintain themselves, is far more favourable than in that of Wexio; for in the former only one in 104 inhabitants is indigent, and in 22 parishes there is no common almshouse at all. Among 40,000 individuals, no more than 17 were unable to read.

One of the axioms of political economy is, that if the foresight, prudence and circumspection of the people do not lay restraints on the rapid increase of population, it must be checked by famine, distress, crime and misery. Nothing indeed sounds more natural, than that it is not only allowable, but even commendable, to bring up children to the service of their king and for the defence of their country; but if these children are called into existence without any other support than the immediate aid of Providence, or without the slightest calculation as to a probable capability of feeding and educating them properly, then indeed the merit of those so calling them into existence is very doubtful, for if disease or want of employment arise, penury takes his station at the door, and the poor children must either perish from want and misery, or be a burthen on the parish.

If in new settlements due precautions were taken, population would not indeed increase so rapidly as it now does; but according to all sound political principles, it is far better that the country should be inhabited by a smaller population in easy and comfortable circumstances, than by one so large, that a constant struggle is necessary to nourish it and hold it within the limits of obedience; nor may the day be far distant when the Government will be obliged to use as much caution to repress the rapid increase of population, as it now has employed to provoke it.

Among all the institutions of Sweden, the provincial administration is one of the best imagined and most perfect: its organization is simple, its action rapid and immediate, but it still wants the necessary groundwork on which a provincial government ought to repose. A lawful, mild, sufficient and cheap expedient for counteracting increasing poverty and immorality, an expedient founded on the customs and wants of the people, and thereby the only one applicable (in the opinion of the author) is, that the church-council (kyrkoråd) should be extended into a municipal institution of a nature more exclusively directed to the wants and business of the multitude, than it has hitherto been (s). Under the direction of this municipal institution ought to be placed all affairs concerning the church, the morality of the people, and the hospitals; school establishments, poor institutions, the magazine of the parish, the making up of litigated cases, the sharing of farms, new establishments and settlements, and all such economical matters as may be of general application. To the church-council, in which the curate always presides, every intended marriage ought to be announced, and no public attestation of it ought to be accorded, without the curate or some other member of the church-council previously informing himself minutely whether the means of the parties are sufficient for their immediate support and future existence.

To inculcate from the pulpit, and to foster the morality of the people, is obligatory on the clergy; but it may be asked how it is possible for that order to acquire accurate notions of the state and means of living of the lower classes, in parishes so populous as those of the capital, the parish of Ladugårdsland having more than 14,000 inhabitants, that of St. Catherina, 13,000, Maria, 11,000; or as the parish of Skellefteå in Westerbotten, with 9,570 inhabitants, Leksand, in the province of Delecarlia, with 9,015, &c. By this means a focus would be established where the knowledge of the morality and wants of the people would be concentrated. I think, therefore, that these municipal institutions ought to be placed under the care of the church, and not under that of the police or civil authorities. Both through the governors and the consistories the Government has a way of communicating with these authorities.

If the church-council divided among its members the inspection of the parish, so that every cottage or household, were it ever so wretched, should be visited four times in the year, or oftener if necessary, by the same member of the church-council, who should endeavour to inform himself minutely of the state of the household, and on whose opinion it

(s) About 40 years ago, a similar institution existed in Stockholm, in the parish of the cathedral, to the great advantage of the parish. A royal ordinance of the 20th February 1742, enacted, that according to the wishes of the States of the realm, there should be elected in every parish, one or more instructed and intelligent men, who were bound to assist the Government with information regarding the economical state of the parish, and to aid their parishioners by their efforts and advice.

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it should afterwards depend how great a part of the alms ought to be adjudged to each family, such a proceeding would indeed have a wholesome influence on society in general, and especially on the morality of the lower classes. The certainty of receiving visits of a member of the church-council, might perhaps sustain the courage of many a woman struggling with the misfortune of being united with a drunken, idle and depraved husband, and with the poverty and distress consequent thereon. For the little children, who, as the church-council might perceive, were not duly taken care of by their miserable parents, and were not compelled to attend the parish school, another place of refuge might perhaps be procured. The certainty of the lower classes not being left without inspection, has perhaps a more favourable effect on their condition than immediate alms. The bonds of connexion between the higher and lower classes thus established, would certainly be of a mightier influence than the alms given by the rich, by which the rich man, as it were, purchases the freedom from any obligation to think or act further in the affairs of the poor. Were it a regulation, that a member of these parish unions should observe how, for example, every manufacturer or artisan provides for his workmen, or how the landowners treat their peasants and cottagers, such a regulation would certainly have a great moral as well as economical effect. The parishes might thereby, in some degree, be secured against a great abuse of latter times, that of being forced to receive a multitude of labourers or cottagers (stat-torpare), sometimes without the possibility of calculating how they are to be provided for under a change of circumstances; whence it often happens, that they become an additional burthen on the poor institutions of the parish, without the slightest obligation on him who has had their services and encouraged their settlement on his lands, to pay a proportionably greater poor-tax than he paid before he threw them on the parish.

It is possible that the author is mistaken in his view of the effect and utility of these municipal institutions, but the project has at least the merit of not being expensive.

England, France and Holland are solicitous about their poor institutions. England, in 1795, adopted the erroneous principle, that every indigent household is entitled to receive from the more wealthy individuals of the parish, what may be wanted for their subsistence. The fallacy of this principle is evident from the fact, that if a wealthy man were to yield up his whole fortune to the poor, reserving for himself barely enough for the necessities of life, there would nevertheless still be found some wretch, to whom it would seem that even a minuter subdivision ought to take place. It is a duty to point out and correct erroneous opinions, which are of so dangerous a tendency. In England, too, it is said, that the poor, far from being grateful for the assistance they receive, are insolent and dissatisfied, thinking that they always receive too little. They have lost all sense of honour, and feel no shame in being a burthen on their fellow-creatures.

As a consequence of the revolution of 1789, the land in France has been divided into portions so small as to be quite inadequate to provide for the most pressing wants of a family. The number of poor is also greatly increasing there, so that the Government has under consideration the establishment of poor colonies on a very considerable scale.

As to Holland, the poor colonies there established since the year 1818, have attracted the attention of all Europe. Many able authors have stated, that these colonies are not only able to support themselves, but even to pay both the interest and capital of their establishment within a period of 16 years. Mr. Gyllenhaal (a Swede) having lately visited them, has proved, that these settlements, though enjoying many hundred thousand florins as annual revenue, both from the state and from many towns and corporations, nevertheless cannot succeed.

In the year 1829, the number of persons confined in the provincial prisons in

Sweden was	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,185
In the prisons of the city of Stockholm	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	79
In the fortress of Waxholm	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	19
Landskrona	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	147
Christianstad	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	81
Warbey	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	102
Carlskrona	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	92
Gothenbourg	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	13
New Elfsborg	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	97
Carlsten	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	140
In the fortress and correction-house of Malmö	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	527
In the southern correction-house of Stockholm, men	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	647
In the northern - ditto - ditto - women	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	320
In the correction-house of Norköping	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	205
Gothenbourg	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	44
Carlskrona and the fortress of Kungsholm	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	400
TOTAL	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4,098

Of these, 138 were imprisoned for murder, 143 for assault, 100 for child murder, 317 for drunkenness and bad habits, 147 in commutation of fines, 1,616 for theft and pilfering, and 1,282 for begging and want of securities for good behaviour. If from those imprisoned for theft and confined for want of some one to answer for them, were subtracted 468, who have undergone their punishment, and who ought, consequently, to be referred to those confined for begging and want of security for good conduct, that number would be 2,067, and the remaining 2,031, those who ought to be regarded as the real criminals. This number is the $\frac{1}{1427}$ of the whole nation; but if we compare the greater number, viz. 4,098, with the whole population, about one in 700 are confined in the prisons or correction-houses.

The state of the lower classes is nearly connected with the want of enlarged prisons and correction-houses. The latter establishments, as the invention of modern times, belong to a state of high civilization, and prove at the same time, both how strenuously society is exerting itself to recal to order and industry the idle and mischievous, and its impotence to attain its object. It is too true, that the number of those who have no sense of that honour, for the maintenance of which our ancestors were so solicitous, namely, to be independent of others, and to earn one's livelihood by one's own exertion, is increasing to an alarming extent. This indisputable fact results from bad crops, want of labour, difficulty of paying taxes, or from stupidity, idleness, drunkenness and immorality. If to this be added the annual loss to the state on these institutions, which is by no means inconsiderable, and which must probably increase continually in the same proportion as the institutions, the necessity that every man of honour should seek to alleviate, in this respect, the cares of government, will be evident. In 1816, the transport, maintenance and clothing of prisoners cost 108,225 rix-dollars, and in 1831, 363,539 rix-dollars, according to the report of the state exchequer. The public money appropriated to such purposes is 160,000 rix-dollars. The resolution taken at some parish meetings, that no person within their limits should receive an individual from the house of correction into his service, tends directly to counteract the regulations of the government, and is deserving of blame. Of what use are efforts to establish habits of industry and order, and in many instances, of workmanlike skill, among such persons, if no one will employ them?

He who has taken the pains to observe in what manner the greater part of the common people of Sweden live (that is, the small landowners and cottagers), may safely assert, that they would like to exchange their condition, as to food, cleanliness, order and care of the sick, with that of the correctionists at Stockholm. This is by no means alleged in a censorious spirit; but the author, with every one who informs himself concerning the houses of correction, cannot but do justice to the efforts of their directors, to promote a spirit of order, industry and morality in these institutions. It is however to be wished, that their management may be so ordered, that the expenses may not much exceed their incomes^(h). They were in the year 1830, as follows:

	IN STOCKHOLM.		In NORKO- PING.	In GOTHEN- BOURG.	TOTAL.
	In the Southern Correction house.	In the Northern Correction house.			
Number of prisoners -	622	290	200	46	1,158
Incomes - - rix ds.	36,000	16,000	4,151	1,267	56,418
Expenses - - rix ds.	58,033	27,974	14,215	4,508	104,730
Deficit - rix ds.	21,411	12,684	10,064	3,241	48,312

In

^(h) It was, for example, not until a few months ago (this was written in 1831), that bränvin (whiskey) was withheld from the correctionists, as not only superfluous but even injurious. Let no one however believe that the correctionists are in an enviable situation, for in the southern establishment they work from five o'clock in the morning till eight o'clock in the evening; and in the northern institution, from four o'clock in the morning till eight in the evening, every day, with but few intervals*, both in summer and winter.

The number confined in the southern correction-house was, during the last year, about 1,000, but is now only 800. The number in the whole country in 1831 was 1,831; namely, in the southern correction establishment at Stockholm, 764; in the workhouse of Malmö, 371; in the workhouse of Carlskrona, 194; at Kungsholm, near Carlskrona, 196; in the Admiralty prison in the same town, 49; total, 1,574 men. Of women, there were in the same year, in the northern correction-house in Stockholm, 280; in the correction-house at Norrköping, 90; in that of Gothenbourg, 25; total, 395 women.

* Half an hour to breakfast, an hour for dinner, and half an hour for supper.

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In the correction-house at New York, the income was, from the prisoner's labour, 40,545 dollars; the expenses, 36,266; revenue, 4,319 dollars.
By way of comparison, a kind of specification of the costs for the support of our correctionists may not be without interest.
In Stockholm, at the southern correction-house, with 622 prisoners, the expenses for their yearly nourishment (including eight gaolers), amounted to 27,087 rix dollars; their clothing to 9,003; fuel and lighting, 5,303; articles purchased, 229; medical care, 996; several extraordinary expenses, 2,140; payment to those correctionists who had performed full work, 4,004; payment to the civil officers, 4,257; payment to the attendants, 488; payment to the garrison, 4,522; total, 58,033 rix dollars.

According to a more specific account, per diem :

A Swedish dollar
is divided into 48
skillingar, a skilling
into 12 runstycken.
A skilling Swedish
= 1½ farthing.

	Cost per Diem for the Nourishment of each Person in sk. and rst.	Expenses per Diem for the Care and Clothing of each person in sk. and rst.	Total Expenses per Diem for each Person, in sk. and rst.	Total Expenses per Year for each Person, in rix drs. and sk.
In Stockholm, the southern correction house, 622 men	5 7½	4 8¾	12 3¼	93 15
Ditto - the north correc- tion house, 290 women -	5 5¼	2 11⅒	12 7	95 38
Norrköping, 200 persons -	4 9¼	2 3	9 4½	71 4
Gothenbourg, 46 ditto -	6 1¾	2 3¼	12 10⅔	98 3

That a full-sized man can live throughout the year on 4 sk. 9½ rst. per diem, as in Norrköping, or on 5 sk. 5¼ rst., as in Stockholm, where the food of the correctionists is very good, may indeed excite the surprise of many. Malthus, Say and others regard it is an evil to the working classes, when the portion of food for each individual is at too low a price, because the price of his daily labour is generally thereby depressed, and less adequate to procure for the workman the many commodities besides food which are objects of almost equally pressing necessity.

5½ skill. = 2 d.
11¾ skill. = 4½ d.
146⅔ rds. = 11 l.

It appears that the daily sustenance of every correctionist amounts, on an average, to 5½ sk., and when clothing, care and all costs are reckoned together, they amount to a sum of 11¾ sk. daily. The support of a cottager's household, consisting of husband, wife and three children, in the middle part of Sweden, costs yearly about 146⅔ r. d., according to the prices of last year; the husband being occupied during the whole year, and his wife having enough to do with the care of her children, so that neither she nor her husband can calculate on any additional earnings.

1 lb. = 20 lbs.
English.

The labourer receives 2½ barrels of rye, or in money 16 r. d. 32 sk.; 1 barrel of corn, 5 r. d. 16 sk.; half barrel of pease, 3 r. d. 16 sk.; half ditto of malt, 2 r. d. 32 sk.; 2 ditto potatoes, 2 r. d.; 1½ lb. salt, 32 sk.; 4 lbs. herrings, 2 r. d. 16 sk.; 1 lb. of butter, 4 r. d. 16 sk.; 3 lb. of hops, 1 r. d.; 1½ pint of sweet milk per day, 10 r. d. 16 sk.; 3 pints of sour milk during the summer, 4 r. d. 16 sk.; 9 gallons of bränvin (a kind of whisky), 5 r. d. 16 sk.; lodging and fuel, 16 r. d. 32 sk.; annual wages in money, 44 r. d.; earnest, 3 r. d. 16 sk.; contributions, 3 r. d. 16 sk.; sundries, 6 r. d. 34 sk.: total banco, 146 r. d. 32 sk. That is, on an average, 29 r. d. 16 sk. annually for every individual; and daily, 3 sk. 10½ rst.

On a gentleman's estate in the neighbourhood of Stockholm, the following was given last year: annual pay in money, 33 r. d. 16 sk.; ¼ barrel of wheat, 2 r. d. 32 sk.; 4 barrels of rye, 24 r. d.; 2 barrels of corn, 9 r. d. 16 sk.; 2 ditto potatoes, 2 r. d.; 10 heads of white cabbage, 32 sk.; ½ barrel of herrings, 4 r. d. 32 sk.; 1 lb. salt, 21 sk.; 2 lb. of meat, 2 r. d.; 1 lb. of bacon, 2 r. d. 32 sk.; 1 lb. of hops, 16 sk.; 2 pairs of shoes, 3 r. d. 16 sk.; sweet milk, 10 r. d.; sundry expenses, 5 r. d.; lodging, wood, earnest, taxes, 25 r. d.: equal to 123 r. d. 21 sk. Were that sum divided among five persons, 25 r. d. 29 sk. would accrue to each; and daily, 3 sk. 3 rst.

The household of a cottager belonging to this estate, about 10 English miles from Stockholm, was bound, according to a written contract, for 10 years to perform the following labour for the estate or landowner; namely,

	R. d.	Sk.
208 days' work for a man - at 21 sk. 6 rst.	93	8
40 - ditto - for a woman, at 10 sk. 8 rst.	8	42
14 journeys to Stockholm, 1 r. d.	14	-
To mow and get in 14 acres of meadow	10	32
To cut down and carry home 5 sawn timbers	2	32
Ditto - - ditto - - 4 fathoms of firewood	5	16
Ditto - - ditto - - 100 pairs of stakes	2	-
To put out fishing-lines	3	-
To keep in order a portion of the main road	2	-
Ditto - - ditto - - bye-road	6	-

To

	R. d.	Sk.
To spin for wages - - - - -	2	-
To gather berries - - - - -	-	32
Sundry accidental jobs - - - - -	3	-
Total R. d. banco - - - - -	143	18

Foreign
Communications.

SWEDEN.

In Stockholm, a poor mechanic's household, consisting of husband, wife and 4 children, can hardly be supported on less than 546 r. d. banco annually, as follows:

	R. d.
Bread, meal, salad, potatoes and other vegetables - - -	120
Meat, butter, cheese, herrings and other fish - - -	176
Milk, beer, bränvin (or whiskey) - - - - -	26
Candles, coals, wood - - - - -	24
Clothes - - - - -	60
Rent and furniture - - - - -	50
Taxes, medicines and sundries - - - - -	24
Total - - - - -	R. d. 546

Hence will be seen that the master of such a family must earn daily, during the whole year, nearly 2 r. d. banco, and consequently no masons, carpenters, smiths, &c. can be included in this class. If the husband, wife or children are sick for any length of time, the state of such a family is far more deplorable than that of the agricultural peasantry of Sweden.

Enclosure, No. 3.

MEMORANDUM, detailing the Regulations for the support of the Poor in the Parish of *St. Jacob and St. John, Stockholm.*

THE number received in the poor-house of the parish of St. Jacob and John, is at present 166, who enjoy, besides lodging and firing, a monthly support of 1, 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 rix-dollars banco for each person, and the sick and infirm receive 32 skillings banco per month in addition thereto. They are to provide themselves with food, which they have an opportunity of doing by a dietary held in the establishment. The person who keeps it enjoys certain advantages, such as free rooms, 11 fathoms of wood, 1 lb. of candles, free use of kitchen utensils belonging to the poor-house, and the compensation of 50 dollars banco annually for the restrictions made in regard to the sale of brandy. On the other hand, this person is bound to supply the poor with food, at the reduced prices of 8 r. d. 1 sk. and 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ skillings banco for each portion.

It is seldom that any person is admitted in the poor-house for life under 60 years of age.

Besides this poor-house, there is another establishment in the parish for the care of the poor, where all poor, sick or infirm persons of whatever age, are temporarily received, and enjoy nursing and attendance till their recovery, or becoming able to support themselves, and are then discharged to make room for others. These persons, to the number of 47, receive in the establishment besides house-room and firing, a monthly support of 32 sk., 1 dollar, 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ dollar, 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ dollar, up to 2 dollars banco, and are entitled to food at the dietary, at the same reduced prices as the others.

There is a separate hospital for the poor of the parish who have not the means of being attended to at their own homes, into which hospital they are admitted free of expense for medical attendance and medicines. For the rest, all poor of the parish who are sick have the right of applying to a doctor, paid for such purpose by the parish, and they are furnished with needful medicines, and many of them receive a monthly support for rent and fuel.

The persons received into the poor-houses are allowed to keep for themselves what they can earn by work, and for this purpose the parish keeps a workhouse from whence raw materials are delivered for them to take to their own home, or to make up in the workhouse, such as flax, tow, cotton and wool. This workhouse was intended in the beginning only for supporting the poor of the parish, but is now extended to all parishes in the north part of the town. On an average of the last year, 517 persons were monthly at work, and produced in the course of the year 10,272 lb. of linen yarn, 12,602 lb. of tow yarn, 459 lb. of cotton yarn, and 40 lb. of woollen yarn; further, 817 pairs of stockings of wool and cotton.

Besides these manufactures, 140 ells of linen have been woven in the workhouse, and about 200 cwt. of flax hackled.

The payments for the labour herewith, amounted to 4,166 rix-dollars banco. There is always a loss on the sale of these productions, which falls to the charge of the hospital.

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.

SWEDEN.

For the sick poor taken temporarily into the poor-house, there is no dietary established. They get for food herrings and potatoes, besides daily a portion of Rumford's soup.

Stockholm, 30th January 1834.

N. B. In reference to the Swedish money above alluded to, the value in sterling at the present exchange would be about as follows:

	s.	d.
Of 8 rst. or $\frac{2}{3}$ ds of a skilling	0	$\frac{4}{13}$
1 skilling	0	$\frac{4}{10}$
$1\frac{1}{3}$	0	$\frac{53}{100}$
32	1	$\frac{3}{5}$
1 rix-dollar	1	7
$1\frac{1}{3}$	2	$1\frac{1}{2}$
$1\frac{1}{2}$	2	$4\frac{1}{2}$
2	3	2

Enclosure, No. 4.

DIETARY at the Southern House of Correction at *Stockholm*, for Males.

For a Prisoner in Health.

Sunday.				Tuesday and Thursday.			
Dinner:				Dinner:			
Fresh meat	-	-	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ oz.	Salt meat	-	-	8 oz.
Wheat flour	-	-	1 -	Wheat flour	-	-	1 -
Potatoes	-	-	5 -	Potatoes	-	-	20 -
For vegetables	-	-	$\frac{1}{12}$ bco. sk.	For vegetables	-	-	$\frac{1}{6}$ bco. sk.
Evening:				Evening:			
Rye grits	-	-	5 oz.	Rye grits	-	-	5 oz.
Butter	-	-	$\frac{1}{2}$ -	Butter	-	-	$\frac{1}{2}$ -
For the whole Day:				For the whole Day:			
Bread	-	-	1 lb.	Bread	-	-	1 lb.
Beer	-	-	1 quart.	Beer	-	-	1 quart.
Salt	-	-	1 oz.	Salt	-	-	$\frac{1}{2}$ oz.
Monday and Friday.				Wednesday and Saturday.			
Dinner:				Dinner:			
Salt pork	-	-	1 oz.	Herring or strömming	-	-	5 oz.
Peas	-	-	$\frac{1}{2}$ pint.	Treacle	-	-	$\frac{3}{4}$ -
Wheat flour	-	-	1 oz.	Beer for ale soup	-	-	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ quart.
Strömming or herring	-	-	4 -	Wheat flour	-	-	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ oz.
Evening:				Evening:			
Barley grits	-	-	5 oz.	Barley grits (Wednesday)	-	-	5 oz.
Butter	-	-	$\frac{1}{2}$ -	Rye grits (Saturday)	-	-	5 -
For the whole Day:				Butter	-	-	$\frac{1}{2}$ -
Bread	-	-	1 lb.	For the whole Day:			
Beer	-	-	1 quart.	Bread	-	-	1 lb.
Salt	-	-	$\frac{1}{2}$ oz.	Beer	-	-	1 quart.
				Salt	-	-	$\frac{1}{2}$ oz.

The cost of allowance for a whole day is fixed by the prison regulation at 6 sk. banco (about 2 $\frac{1}{3}$ d. sterling), but varies according to the prices of provisions. The average of 1833 was 5 $\frac{11}{12}$ sk. banco.

For a Prisoner under Sickness.

Every Day in the Week.				Monday, Friday and Wednesday.			
Dinner:				Evening:			
Oat grits	-	-	2 oz.	Oat grits	-	-	3 oz.
Butter	-	-	$\frac{3}{4}$ -	Milk	-	-	$\frac{1}{4}$ pint.
Sunday, Tuesday, Thursday and Saturday.				Every Day.			
Evening:				Evening:			
Rye grits	-	-	3 oz.	Bread, fresh	-	-	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ oz.
Milk	-	-	$\frac{1}{4}$ pint.	Salt	-	-	$\frac{1}{2}$ -

For a Convalescent.

Sunday.				
Dinner:				
Fresh meat	-	-	-	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ oz.
Wheat flour	-	-	-	1 -
Potatoes	-	-	-	5 -
For vegetables	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{12}$ bco. sk.
Evening:				
Rye grits	-	-	-	5 oz.
Milk	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{4}$ pint.

Monday and Friday.				
Dinner:				
Fresh meat	-	-	-	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ oz.
Oat grits	-	-	-	1 -
Evening:				
Barley grits	-	-	-	5 -
Milk	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{4}$ pint.

Tuesday and Thursday.				
Dinner:				
Salt meat	-	-	-	4 oz.
Oat grits	-	-	-	2 -

Tuesday and Thursday—continued.				
Dinner—continued.				
Butter	-	-	-	$\frac{3}{4}$ oz.
For vegetables	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{12}$ bco. sk.
Evening:				
Rye grits	-	-	-	5 oz.
Milk	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{4}$ pint.

Wednesday and Saturday.				
Dinner:				
Fish, strömming	-	-	-	4 oz.
Treacle	-	-	-	$\frac{3}{4}$ -
Beer	-	-	-	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ quart.
Wheat flour	-	-	-	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ oz.
Evening:				
Barley grits (Wednesday)	-	-	-	5 oz.
Rye grits (Saturday)	-	-	-	5 -
Milk	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{4}$ pint.

Daily.				
Bread, fresh	-	-	-	1 lb.
Salt	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{2}$ oz.

N.B.—The weights and measures herein alluded to are English.
At the present exchange the Swedish skilling banco is worth, in sterling, about $\frac{1}{10}$ ths of a penny.

Enclosure, No. 5.

DIETARY at the Northern House of Correction at Stockholm, for Females.

For a Prisoner in Health.

Sunday.				
Dinner:				
Fresh meat	-	-	-	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ oz.
Wheat flour	-	-	-	1 -
Potatoes	-	-	-	5 -
For vegetables	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{12}$ bco. sk.

Evening:				
Rye grits	-	-	-	5 oz.
Butter	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{2}$ -
For the whole Day:				
Bread, fresh	-	-	-	1 lb.
Beer	-	-	-	1 quart.
Salt	-	-	-	1 oz.

Monday.				
Dinner:				
Fish, herring or strömming	-	-	-	4 oz.
Grits for soup	-	-	-	1 $\frac{3}{4}$ -
Salt pork	-	-	-	1 -
Wheat flour	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{2}$ -
Evening:				
Barley grits	-	-	-	5 oz.
Butter	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{2}$ -

For the whole Day:				
Bread, fresh	-	-	-	1 lb.
Beer	-	-	-	1 quart.
Salt	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{2}$ oz.

Tuesday and Thursday.				
Dinner:				
Salt meat	-	-	-	5 oz.
Wheat flour	-	-	-	1 -
Potatoes	-	-	-	20 -
For vegetables	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{6}$ bco. sk.
Evening:				
Rye grits	-	-	-	5 oz.
Butter	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{2}$ -

Tuesday and Thursday—continued.				
For the whole Day:				
Bread, fresh	-	-	-	1 lb.
Beer	-	-	-	1 quart.
Salt	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{2}$ oz.

Friday.				
Dinner:				
Salt pork	-	-	-	1 oz.
Peas	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{2}$ pint.
Wheat flour	-	-	-	1 oz.
Herring or strömming	-	-	-	4 -
Evening:				
Barley grits	-	-	-	5 -
Butter	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{2}$ -

For the whole Day:				
Bread, fresh	-	-	-	1 lb.
Beer	-	-	-	1 quart.
Salt	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{2}$ oz.

Wednesday and Saturday.				
Dinner:				
Tripe	-	-	-	3 $\frac{3}{4}$ oz.
Turnips	-	-	-	1 piece.
Treacle	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{2}$ oz.
Beer for soup	-	-	-	1 quart.
Wheat flour	-	-	-	1 $\frac{1}{4}$ oz.

Evening:				
Barley grits (Wednesday)	-	-	-	5 -
Rye grits (Saturday)	-	-	-	5 -
Butter	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{2}$ -

For the whole Day:				
Bread, fresh	-	-	-	1 lb.
Beer	-	-	-	1 quart.
Salt	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{2}$ oz.

Appendix (F.)

DIETARY for a Sick Prisoner at the Northern House of Correction at *Stockholm*, for Females.

Foreign Communications.

SWEDEN.

Under attack of Fever.

Every Day in the Week.

Dinner:					
Oat grits	-	-	-	-	2 oz.
Butter	-	-	-	-	$\frac{3}{4}$ -

Sunday, Tuesday, Thursday and Saturday.

Evening:					
Rye grits	-	-	-	-	3 oz.
Milk	-	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{4}$ pint.

Monday, Friday and Wednesday.

Evening:					
Barley grits	-	-	-	-	3 oz.
Milk	-	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{4}$ pint.

Daily:					
Bread fresh	-	-	-	-	1 lb.
Salt	-	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{2}$ oz.

For a Convalescent.

Dinner: Sunday.

Fresh meat	-	-	-	-	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ oz.
Wheat flour	-	-	-	-	1 -
Potatoes	-	-	-	-	5 -
For vegetables	-	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{12}$ bco. sk.

Evening:					
Rye grits	-	-	-	-	5 oz.
Milk	-	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{4}$ pint.

Monday and Friday.

Dinner:					
Fresh meat	-	-	-	-	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ oz.
Oat grits	-	-	-	-	1 -

Evening:					
Barley grits	-	-	-	-	5 -
Milk	-	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{4}$ pint.

Tuesday and Thursday.

Dinner:					
Salt meat	-	-	-	-	4 oz.
Oat grits	-	-	-	-	2 -
Butter	-	-	-	-	$\frac{3}{4}$ -
For vegetables	-	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{12}$ bco. sk.

Tuesday and Thursday—continued.

Evening:					
Rye grits	-	-	-	-	5 oz.
Milk	-	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{4}$ pint.

Wednesday and Saturday.

Dinner:					
Tripe	-	-	-	-	3 $\frac{1}{4}$ oz.
Turnips	-	-	-	-	1 piece.
Beer for soup	-	-	-	-	1 quart.
Treacle	-	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{2}$ oz.
Wheat flour	-	-	-	-	1 $\frac{1}{4}$ -

Evening:					
Barley grits (Wednesday)	-	-	-	-	5 -
Rye grits (Saturday)	-	-	-	-	5 -
Milk	-	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{4}$ pint.

Daily:					
Bread, fresh	-	-	-	-	1 lb.
Salt	-	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{2}$ oz.

N.B.—The weights and measures herein alluded to are English.

At the present exchange the Swedish skilling banco is worth, in sterling, about $\frac{1}{16}$ ths of a penny.

Enclosure, No. 6.

The City Prison, called *Castenhof*, at *Stockholm*.

EACH prisoner receives daily one basin of broth, and an allowance of 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ skilling banco (about 1 $\frac{3}{4}$ d.), for which he can obtain, through the gaoler, a sufficiency of bread, salt herrings, and potatoes, and occasionally meat, for his sustenance.

GOTTENBURG.

Gottenburg.

REPLIES to the QUERIES of the Poor Law Commissioners.

VAGRANTS.

1. To what extent and under what form does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?—The extent of mendicity is not great; there are very few beggars to be seen in Sweden. Persons do apply for relief at the houses of individuals, but notorious mendicity and repeated importunate applications are punishable by law; and the system of passports being strictly enforced, the poor are much confined to their native places.

2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country, seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded and under what regulations?—There is no such relief.

DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are they, or any part of their families, billeted or quartered on householders?—In towns, they are not billeted on householders; but in the country, one such person is billeted on each householder in turn for a week: he must bear a certificate from the clergyman; and all destitute able-bodied, of both sexes, when thus provided for, are required to labour.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—They are not boarded with individuals.

3. To

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there district houses of industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families, and supplying them with food, clothes, &c., and in which they are set to work?—There are no district houses of industry.

4. To what extent and under what regulations do any religious institutions give assistance to the destitute, by receiving them as inmates, or by giving them alms?—There is no assistance given by religious institutions.

5. To what extent and under what regulations is work provided at their own dwellings for those who have trades, but do not procure work for themselves? 6. Or in agriculture or on public works?—No work is thus provided.

7. To what extent and under what regulations are fuel, clothing or money distributed to such persons or their families; at all times of the year, or during any particular seasons?—I believe that neither fuel, clothing nor money is in general thus distributed.

8. To what extent and under what regulations are they relieved by their children being taken into schools, and fed, clothed and educated, or apprenticed?—The institutions of Sweden provide gratuitous education for the children of indigent persons; and sometimes a dinner, consisting of broth and bread, as well as, if absolutely necessary, certain articles of clothing. It is asserted, on respectable authority, that there is not one in 1,000 of the common people who cannot at least read. The clergy are the chief instructors. In one or more schools of the freemasons children have been apprenticed. The poor, as a body, are not relieved in this manner.

9. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are the relatives of the destitute compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking charge of part of their families?—The relatives of the destitute are not compelled to assist them.

10. To what extent and under what regulations are they assisted by loans?—They are not assisted by loans.

IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there almshouses or other institutions for the reception of those who, through age, are incapable of earning their subsistence?—In the country, such persons, and all persons unable to support themselves, are billeted on householders, as described, No. 1, "*Destitute able-bodied*." In some of the cities there are poor-houses, as in Gottenburg, the "General Poor-house," No. 1 & 2, "District Houses," and the "Barrack," or common poor-house. Admission into the first is granted to persons impotent through age, or otherwise objects; they being citizens, widows, or children of citizens, or else servants, of both sexes, born in Gottenburg, having been 12 years in one service. The present number of inmates is 110. Admission into the two district houses is granted to old decayed lightermen, their wives or widows, old female servants, watchmen, porters at the iron wharf, their wives or widows, all of good character. These houses have now 153 inmates. Admission into the barrack is general; in it are 230 inmates, and they are compelled to work for the benefit of the house.

2. To what extent and under what regulations is relief in food, fuel, clothing or money afforded them at their homes?—Relief in money is afforded at the rate of 6*d.* to 4*s.* or 5*s.* per month: except in cases of extreme distress, this relief is only afforded during the severe weather. Bread is also distributed, 6 lbs. per month, made of rye, and in winter a small quantity of fuel. I do not find that clothing is given. The greater proportion of the funds must be expended on out-pensioners, and in the purchase of bread and fuel. I am speaking with reference to Gottenburg, where the levy for the poor in 1833 amounted to banco rix ds. 20,000, or 1,500*l.* sterling, and the population to 17,116.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—They are not thus boarded.

4. To what extent and under what regulations are they quartered or billeted on the householders?—Not in towns, but in the country they are billeted, as described under No. 1, "*Destitute able-bodied*."

5. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking part of their families?—Their relations are not compelled to assist them.

SICK.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there district institutions for the reception of the sick?—There are no district institutions for the reception of the sick, but there are district doctors, appointed by the crown, who administer gratuitous relief to the poor. The districts in the country are very large, some perhaps equal to such a county as Essex. At Gottenburg there is an hospital, endowed by private charity, into which persons are admitted on payment of 6*d.* per day; the indigent, gratis.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are surgical and medical relief afforded to the poor at their own homes?—There appear to be no regulations on the subject; members of the profession afford relief to the poor, gratis.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick?—There are no such institutions.

4. To what extent and under what regulations is assistance given to lying-in women at their homes, or in public establishments?—No assistance is given at their houses. In Gottenburg they are admitted into the hospital.

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.

SWEDEN,

Gottenburg.

5. To what extent and under what regulations are there any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick?—There are no other modes; if a malignant disease prevailed, like the cholera, the government would, no doubt, send medical men to the infected districts. The number of surgeons and physicians is small, and the population being widely spread, I apprehend that many people die annually from want of assistance. Pepper and the common potatoe-brandy are the specifics of the people for all disorders.

CHILDREN:

Illegitimate.

1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall; wholly upon the mothers, or wholly upon the fathers; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations?—The father is obliged to support such children, the rate being according to his circumstances, say from 2s. to 7s. per month, until the child has attained the age of 15.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards?—They are not compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?—They are not supported at the public expense. I apprehend that the mothers are compelled to support bastards, when the fathers are unable. In deciding cases of bastardy, the oath of the man is preferred to that of the woman. He may thus escape the responsibility by the denial of connexion. The pregnancy of a young female in service seldom occasions the loss of her place, nor does it spoil her prospects of marriage. An instance occurred some time ago, and many might be cited, of a young girl having had a child by another, and being afterwards married to a clergyman from the country, who was aware of the circumstance.

Orphans, Foundlings, or Deserted Children.

4. To what extent and under what regulations are they taken into establishments for their reception? 5. Or billeted or quartered on householders? 6. Or boarded with individuals? 7. Or are their relatives compelled to support them?—I answer these questions in the negative. Orphans, foundlings and deserted children would be admitted into the poor-house.

CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception? 2. Or billeted or quartered on householders? 3. Or boarded with individuals? 4. Or are their relatives compelled to support them?—I answer these questions in the negative. Such objects would be admitted into the poor-house.

IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

—Common harmless idiots would be admitted into the poor-house. Dangerous lunatics would be confined in a mad-house, of which there is one in the vicinity of Gottenburg.

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

You are requested to state whether the receipt, or the expectation of relief, appears to produce any and what effect?

1st. On the industry of the labourers? 2d. On their frugality? 3d. On the age at which they marry? 4th. On the mutual dependence and affection of parent, children, and other relatives? 5th. What, on the whole, is the condition of the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, as compared with the condition of the person subsisting on alms or public charity? Is the condition of the latter, as to food and freedom from labour, more or less eligible? (See p. 261 and 335 of the Poor Law "Extracts.")—No person able to work is likely to prefer the support of the public charitable institutions to an independent subsistence. The allowance of victuals in those institutions is so small, as not to render it an object of desire. I am, therefore, of opinion, that the effects inquired into, under Nos. 1, 2, 3 and 4, have not been produced. In regard to question No. 5, the condition of the able-bodied self-supporting labourer of the lowest class is, I think, infinitely better than that of him subsisting on alms. The allowance of victuals has been noticed, and the allowance of money to out-pensioners is always insufficient to keep them in any degree of comfort. In the country, the poor billeted on their neighbours are perhaps better off; still (wages and employ being good) they exert themselves to remain independent.

LABOURERS, &c.

1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month, or the year, with and without provisions in summer and in winter?—Able-bodied agricultural male labourers earn at the rate of 6d. to 9d. per day, without provisions, throughout the year. In towns, labourers earn from 10d. to 1s. per day, and good artizans from 1s. 6d. to 2s. per day, without provisions.

2. Is

2. Is piece-work general?—Piece-work is general in the country, but not in towns.

3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—An average agricultural labourer may expect to earn in a year 153 dollars currency, or about 7*l.* 13*s.* sterling. Farm servants, however, generally reside with their employers, by whom they are fed and clothed. The peasants possess much of the land; but small farmers often hold of the landlord by the tenure of giving day's work. Strictly speaking, there are in Sweden few labourers on the same footing as in England.

4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?—The expenditure of an agricultural labourer may be taken at from 5*l.* to 6*l.*; of a skilful artisan, at from 15*l.* to 20*l.* annually. Poor children are instructed in schools *gratis*.

5. Is there any, and what employment for women and children?—In towns, women are employed in weaving. In the country, in agricultural labour.

6. What can women, and children under 16, earn per week, in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed?—In towns, women may earn, during summer, from 6*s.* to 9*s.*, during winter, from 4*s.* to 6*s.* per week; children under 16, may earn, in harvest, from 2*d.* to 3*d.* per day.

7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8 and 5 years, respectively (the eldest a boy), expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?—A labourer's wife and four such children may expect to earn 60 dollars currency, or about 3*l.* in a year.

8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children, and if so, on what food?—Yes; on the following food, viz. 11 bushels of rye, cost 1*l.* 5*s.*; 4 $\frac{3}{4}$ bushels of barley, 8*s.*; 4 $\frac{3}{4}$ ditto of pease, 5*s.*; 4 $\frac{3}{4}$ ditto of malt, 4*s.*; 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ ditto of potatoes, 3*s.* 2*d.*; 19 lbs. of salt, 1*s.*; 75 lbs. of herrings, 3*s.* 6*d.*; 19 lbs. of butter, 6*s.* 6*d.*; 3 lbs. of hops, 1*s.*; 19 lbs. of stock-fish, 2*s.* 3*d.*; 19 lbs. of pork, 4*s.* 6*d.*; half a cow, 15*s.*; about three pints of sweet milk daily, 15*s.* 2*d.*; and six pints of sour milk, in summer, daily, 6*s.* 6*d.*; 42 bottles of potato-brandy, 8*s.* 3*d.*; lodging and wood, 1*l.* 5*s.*; taxes, 5*s.*; sundries, 10*s.*; wages about 3*l.* 10*s.*, or, in the whole, say 10*l.* 18*s.* 10*d.* The above statement applies to a small farmer; reduce it about one-third, and it may apply to a common (married) labourer in the country.

9. Could it lay by anything, and how much?—Seldom lay by anything.

10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?—About perhaps an English acre.

11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations?—The proprietors of the soil.

12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale?—In the country they pay no rent; their huts can be but of little value, say from 1*l.* to 2*l.* sterling, though warm and comfortable. In towns the rent would be about 2*s.* per month.

13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—No.

14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?—The average annual proportion by the last census of the quinquennium (1826 to 1830) was about 1 to 40. The same average annual proportion is given in the answers to the succeeding questions, Nos. 15 to 22 inclusive.

15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?—Was about 1 to 30.

16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?—Was as 1 to 131.

17. The average number of children to a marriage?—Was about 4 $\frac{1}{16}$ th.

18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?—Was as 1 to 16.

19. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year?—Was as one to five.

20. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 10th year?—As 1 to 2 $\frac{1}{2}$.

21. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 18th year?—Not calculated; deaths between the ages of 10 and 15, as 1 to 56.

22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—Married under 20 years 1,819; between 20 and 30, 65,574; between 30 and 40, 22,062; between 40 and 50, 4,307; above 50, 1,623.

23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—Want of means to support a wife, or sometimes want of the clergyman's certificate of the man or woman having duly taken the Sacrament within the year. The clergy, I have no doubt, exert their influence to prevent improvident marriages. A notorious bad character, not being admitted to the Sacrament, of course, cannot marry.

24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried; 2d, the married, save?—I cannot answer this question.

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Communications.

SWEDEN.

Gottenburg.

25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—Savings are generally kept in a private box, or deposited in the savings' banks. At Gottenburg, the sum of 276,735 rix-dollars banco, or 20,755 £., was in deposit on 31st December 1833. The number of depositors was about 4,000. The bank has been established 12 years.

Gottenburg, 23 February 1834.

Henry Thomas Liddell, Consul.

POOR-HOUSE (FATTIG HUS) FOR DECAYED CITIZENS, &c.

Daily Allowance to Men and Women.

Sunday.—1 lb. 6 ½ oz. of rye bread, and 2 ⅔ pints of soup, composed of 5 oz. 10 drs. of beef, and a small quantity of vegetables and meal. The meat is weighed before boiling, and the soup being ready, the piece is then cut up, according to the allowance.

Monday.—1 lb. 6 ½ oz. of rye bread, 1 oz. 14 drs. of butter, 2 ⅔ pints of milk and barley porridge, 1 ½ pint of small beer.

Tuesday.—1 lb. 6 ½ oz. of rye bread, 1 oz. 14 drs. of butter, 2 ⅔ pints of porridge (barley or oatmeal), 1 ½ pint of small beer.

Wednesday.—1 lb. 6 ½ oz. of rye bread, 2 oz. 5 ½ drs. of salt or fresh pork, 2 ⅔ pints of pease, 1 ½ pint of small beer.

Thursday.—1 lb. 6 ½ oz. of rye bread, 5 oz. 10 drs. of salt herrings, 2 ⅔ pints of porridge (barley), and 2 ⅔ pints of small beer.

Friday.—The same as on Wednesday.

Saturday.—1 lb. 6 ½ oz. of rye bread, 5 oz. 10 drs. of herrings, 2 ⅔ pints of soup, made of milk and beer, 2 ⅔ pints of small beer.

DISTRICT HOUSES, No. 1 and No. 2.

Men and Women are not compelled to work.

The daily allowance is 2 ⅔ pints of soup of bones, or bones not being procurable, of 1 oz. 14 drs. of beef or pork, allowed to each person, 15 oz. of bread. On Friday evening, one herring and 2 ⅔ pints of small beer.

IN THE BARRACK.

Men and Women compelled to work.

The daily allowance is, Breakfast: 1 ½ pint of small beer, 5 oz. 10 drs. of rye bread. Dinner: 1 ½ pint of soup made of bones, or of 15 drs. of beef or pork, to each 5 oz. 10 drs. of bread. Supper: 1 ½ pint of barley porridge, 5 oz. 10 drs. of bread. On Friday evening, half a herring and 2 ⅔ pints of small beer. And when at hard work, the people are allowed extra, at 4 p. m., 1 ½ pint of small beer, and 3 oz. 10 drs. of bread.

H. T. L.

IN THE HOUSE OF CORRECTION FOR WOMEN, INMATES 150.

Compelled to work for the benefit of the House.

Sunday.—Dinner: Beef, 7 ½ oz., wheaten meal, 15 drs., boiled up (this allowance to each as soup), and a few potatoes and greens. Supper: Rye meal, 5 oz. 10 drs., butter, 7 ½ drs., salt, 15 drs.; the daily allowance of bread is 15 oz. (half barley, half rye); small beer, a quart every day.

Monday.—Dinner: Salt herrings, 3 oz. 12 drs., cabbage or sour crout, 1-9th of a head, pork, 15 drs., wheaten meal, 15 drs. Supper: Barley meal, 5 oz. 10 drs., butter, 7 ½ drs., salt, 7 ½ drs.

Tuesday and Thursday.—Dinner: Salt beef, 7 ½ oz., wheaten meal, 15 drs., and a few vegetables. Supper: Rye meal, 5 oz. 10 drs., butter, 7 ½ drs., salt, 7 ½ drs.

Friday.—Dinner: Pork, 15 drs., pease, half pint, wheaten meal, 15 drs., salt herrings, 3 oz. 12 drs. Supper: Barley meal, 5 oz. 10 drs., butter, 7 ½ drs., salt, 7 ½ drs.

Wednesday

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SWEDEN.

Gottenburg.

Wednesday and Saturday.—Dinner: Pickled pork, 2 oz. 15 drs., sirop, 7 ½ drs., some turnips, beer, two pints, wheaten meal, 1 oz., salt, 7 ½ drs.

On Wednesday evening, barley meal, 5 oz. 10 drs.

On Thursday evening, rye meal, 5 oz. 10 drs, with 7 ½ drs. of butter each evening.

IN THE CASTLE AT ELFSBORG.

About 150 inmates, generally the worst description of offenders; such as in England would be transported for life, with hard labour.

Allowance of bread daily, 1 lb. 14 oz., and about 1 d. in money for necessaries. Not compelled to work, but they are allowed to dispose of any articles that they can manufacture.

MEMORANDUM.

The allowance of bread and beer in the poor-house, for decayed citizens (*Fattig-huset*), is in general more than the inmates consume; they often sell the excess. In the district-houses, Nos. 1 & 2, the allowance is complained of. At present, 15 oz. of excellent wheaten bread may be purchased for 1 ½ d. sterling, and of rye bread for ½ d. sterling. The use of wheaten bread is confined to the higher classes.

I may remark that money payments to the out-door poor form, in Gottenburg, a heavy item of the expenditure. The system of making such payments is, I think, censured by intelligent Swedes from the country, where the poor are billeted on their neighbours. The people, however, are moderate in their habits. Even in Gottenburg, a luxurious commercial place, servants do not eat the same food as families. The wheaten bread, beef and mutton of the dining-room are respected in the kitchen, in which rye bread, fish, milk, and as a treat, coffee, are only to be found.

The poor institutions of Gottenburg, are not of more than about 35 years standing, and some persons are of opinion that they tend to encourage applications and idleness. I am not competent to say. But one effect of public institutions must have been to ascertain the extent of want and misery. Claims are now made on the funds, which, in former days, were unheard of, or, if admitted and relieved by charitable individuals, were probably unrecorded.

The great moral curse of the population throughout Sweden, is the immense distillation of spirit from potatoes. Any man may distil, and an ordinary wine bottle of this coarse spirit does not cost, in Gottenburg, above 2 d. sterling. Measures will be proposed in the diet, now sitting, to restrict this distillation. On the whole, it may be said that the lower classes of Swedes are, generally, well-disposed; accustomed to hardships and a scanty diet, to the authority of masters who may administer corporal punishment, and brought up altogether by the established clergy (dissent not being permitted, or even thought of), they are respectful to their superiors, and convinced of the moral and religious propriety of self-exertion.

Gottenburg, 23 February 1834.

Henry Thomas Liddell, Consul.

I must apologize for not having mentioned the county prison, at Gottenburg, in which the inmates are allowed 2 d. sterling per diem for necessaries.

H. T. L.

Sunday.—Dinner: Beef, 7 ½ oz., wheaten meal, 15 drs., boiled up (this allowance to each as soup), and a few potatoes and greens. Supper: Rye meal, 5 oz. 10 drs., butter, 7 ½ drs., salt, 15 drs.; the daily allowance of bread is 15 oz. (half barley, half rye); small beer, a quart every day.

Monday.—Dinner: Salt herring, 3 oz. 12 drs., cabbage or sour cream, 1-oth of a head, pork, 15 drs., wheaten meal, 15 drs. Supper: Barley meal, 5 oz. 10 drs., butter, 7 ½ drs., salt, 7 ½ drs.

Tuesday and Thursday.—Dinner: Salt beef, 7 ½ oz., wheaten meal, 15 drs., and a few vegetables. Supper: Rye meal, 5 oz. 10 drs., butter, 7 ½ drs., salt, 7 ½ drs.

Friday.—Dinner: Pork, 15 drs., pease, half pint, wheaten meal, 15 drs., salt herring, 3 oz. 12 drs. Supper: Barley meal, 5 oz. 10 drs., butter, 7 ½ drs., salt, 7 ½ drs.

P. L. (F.)

Appendix (F.)

HAMBURGH.

Foreign
Communications.

HAMBURGH.

REPLIES to the QUERIES of the POOR LAW COMMISSIONERS.

I. VAGRANTS.

QUESTION 1. To what extent and under what form does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?—Answer to Q. 1. Mendicity is prevented in Hamburgh by the interference of the police, who are instructed to arrest all beggars. The number of beggars in the streets does not exceed 200 to 300 annually. Begging through the means of petitions, and by personal application at houses, is resorted to, but does not go to a great extent. Parents sometimes employ their children to beg in the streets; but the vigilance of the police prevents this practice from being extensive. In the territory out of Hamburgh mendicity does not prevail to be an object of any notice.

The police restrains mendicity as much as possible. The beggars are taken up, imprisoned, and, according to circumstances, sentenced to the tread-mill or other punishments; and then the foreign ones are sent to their native place. Home beggars, after punishment, are again set free, except some of the miserable ones, who are placed in the poor-house. However, as there is a want of room in our houses of correction, we are often obliged to limit the number of prisoners, as well as the time of their imprisonment; therefore, on account of the shorter time of punishment, these beggars cannot be kept to any work, except the tread-mill, during the time of their arrest. A workhouse, very necessary for us, has been hitherto wanting.

By our Poor Laws no one must give alms to a beggar; but the good nature of the inhabitants of Hamburgh does not adhere strictly enough to this, and thereby they encourage mendicity.

Begging-children are in the same manner arrested and punished. On repeated arrests, they are placed in the poor-house and house of correction, where there are schools established for them.

The fechten (begging) of journeymen (an expression peculiar to this country, signifying a solicitation by journeymen of all trades at the doors for a trifle to help them on their journey) is not so frequent in the town as in the country.

The workhouse and poor-house are supported by the produce of interest of money, collections and contributions from the Treasury.

2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country, seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded, and under what regulations?—Persons travelling for work, passing through Hamburgh, are allowed to remain a short time at the houses frequented by their trades: here they receive some relief, if they require it, and when obliged to proceed, the police assists them with a little travelling money.

When foreign journeymen come to Hamburgh, they must present themselves at their meeting-houses or houses of call, and at the police office, where their travelling books will be inspected, and a stay of a few days will be allowed them to seek for work, during which time they must live in their houses of call only. Should they not in the time prescribed find work, the travelling book is returned to them, and therein noted where they must go, and they must then depart immediately. In some guilds they receive a travelling penny, some of them also from the police. For those totally incapable the guilds provide during the time they are permitted to stay. When foreign journeymen who have had work, have been out of work for a certain period, they must also travel farther. For this reason the houses of call are under the particular control of the guilds and police authorities. By late legal regulations, all servants, male and female, are placed under the control of the police, and the foreign ones who are out of place are, according to circumstances, sent away. To other persons who are without means of subsistence, a short stay is also permitted by the police, if they can give a sufficient reason for their coming here.

Those who are entirely destitute seek their lodgings in the house of call for beggars. When these must again go away, they often receive a viaticum out of the police funds. Otherwise the stay of foreign beggars is prevented as much as possible; they are taken up, punished with imprisonment, and sent to their homes. In these houses of call another class of people has nestled itself, who, as they are natives, cannot be sent away. An attempt has been made to provide them with clothes and work, but with most of them of no lasting effect; comparatively speaking, the cholera has removed but very few of them. As already mentioned, room is wanting for them in the poor-house, and therefore we must leave them in the houses of call for beggars, and suffer them to seek for their support. On the other hand, we are obliged to tolerate these houses of call, as their inhabitants remain pretty much under the inspection of the police, and if any excesses be committed, the search after them is facilitated. The inmates, in some cases, belong to the most abandoned class.

II. DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are they, or any part of their families, billeted or quartered on householders?—Poor are never quartered upon private people; but some of them, when they are compelled to leave their dwellings, and cannot find any others, are received into the workhouse for a short time (I. 1.)

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—With grown-up persons this is not the case.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there district houses of industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families, and supplying them with food,

food, clothes, &c., and in which they are set to work?—Some older ones not yet quite incapable, are received into the work and poor-house, where they are supplied with nourishment, and must work according to their strength; but this only happens after an inquiry by the police.

4. To what extent and under what regulations do any religious institutions give assistance to the destitute, by receiving them as inmates, or by giving them alms?—Besides the poor-houses, Hamburgh has the Hospital of the Holy Ghost, the Gast Haus, the Hospital of St. Job, the Widow House, Kaland Hospital, and many other institutions, in many of which the people must pay a small sum for admission, or bring furniture with them; besides, they are almost all assigned for old people; few for men, the most of them for women; the relief is for the most part confined to free dwelling; food or pecuniary assistance is given only in a few of them.

5. To what extent, and under what regulations is work provided at their own dwellings for those who have trades, but do not procure work for themselves?—The institution for the poor has the clothing for children, which it distributes, made by the poor, but only a few tailors are thereby employed; whereas it puts several women in active employment, by making shirts and knitting.

6. To what extent, and under what regulations is work provided for such persons in agriculture or on public works?—Hamburgh itself has no agriculture; however, about 300 or 400 men are employed at the expense of the city, in making the roads and working on the ramparts, but only citizens; no foreigners.

7. To what extent, and under what regulations are fuel, clothing or money distributed to such persons or their families; at all times of the year, or during any particular seasons?—To healthy persons of both sexes, and under 60 years, as soon as they stand alone, no assistance is given; if there is more than one child with a woman, or with a widower, or with a man and wife three children or more, and it appears that their earnings are insufficient, a small weekly support is allowed them, particularly in consideration of the children, but commonly for the winter months only, which consists of 2s. 3d. in money, 1s. 3d. in soup tickets. Clothes are not given to grown-up persons, except a few shirts, poor beds and coverlets. In a severe frost turf is distributed. The institution for the poor draws its money from the interest of its capital, some collections, and considerable advances from the Treasury.

8. To what extent and under what regulations are they relieved by their children being taken into schools, and fed, clothed and educated, or apprenticed?—In church schools, and schools founded by wills, 1,500 free scholars are received. Besides this, the institution for the poor causes about 3,200 children from six years of age to their confirmation to be sufficiently instructed in its schools. The girls are also taught knitting and sewing. Most of the children receive clothing; for nourishment the parents themselves must provide; regard being had to the pecuniary support granted them. After the confirmation, the institution assists the parents in placing the children in service and apprenticeship. In the Sunday schools about 400 children receive instruction; but as Hamburgh has few manufactories in which the children are employed, most of them are all the week idle, or carry on a business which is nearly allied to begging. Therefore, with most of them, the instruction is insufficient.

By charitable contributions waste schools have been established (where the children are taken care of during the day, while their parents are out at work from home), and supported by the same. Therein about 300 children from three to six years are received, but the parents must pay a small sum for school-money weekly. Therefore these waste schools are designed more for the children of women, who are thereby enabled to work from home.

9. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are the relatives of the destitute compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking charge of part of their families?—Parents, brothers and sisters, and children of the poor are required to render them assistance, and men who have deserted their wives must pay them weekly or monthly aliment; but if a real sense of duty and good-will do not prevail, a promise is seldom to be obtained, as their own poverty and bad way of life render them incapable of doing so. Otherwise the parents are bound to maintain their children, and children their parents.

10. To what extent and under what regulations are they assisted by loans?—There exists here an institution for making private advances in money, which, with a small capital, has done much good. The borrower must rather legitimate himself in regard to his honesty by a security, and must repay the money weekly in small instalments, but without interest.

III. IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there alms-houses or other institutions for the reception of those who, through age, are incapable of earning their subsistence?—In Hamburgh, the poor-house (I. 1.) and other institutions (II. 4.) mentioned.

2. To what extent and under what regulations is relief in food, fuel, clothing or money afforded them at their homes?—On the part of the poor institution, by weekly pecuniary assistance, and soup tickets; in a severe cold, by a distribution of turf; in clothing, only shirts, straw sacks, and woollen coverlets; for dwelling they must themselves provide.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—There are no regulations for boarding the older people.

4. To what extent and under what regulations are they quartered or billeted on the householders?—We have nothing to do with quartering or billeting.

5. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are their relatives compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking part of their families?—Vide II. 9.

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.

HAMBURGH.

IV. SICK.

1. To what extent, and under what regulations are there district institutions for the reception of the sick?—We have our general hospital for the sick, which will contain 1,200 patients, the poor gratis; others pay a moderate sum, according to their capacity. Several guilds have their own sick funds, out of which the cure of the sick is paid for to the hospital. The sick residing on the Hamburg territory are also received.

The hospital is supported by the interest of its capital, collections, and advances from the Treasury.

In the Cur-haus (cure-house), a part of the poor-house, which is designed for sick prisoners, other sick are, in some cases, also received.

The Freemasons' Hospital can maintain but few sick; there exist some sick unions. The Jews have rooms for their sick.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are surgical and medical relief afforded to the poor at their own homes?

In the institution for the poor, the tending of the sick forms a considerable branch; physicians and surgeons are appointed; many persons who are otherwise not supported by money, receive free cure, free medicines, bandage, soup for the sick, if necessary, sick money for some weeks, and some few shirts and beds.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick?

We consider it our duty to afford this assistance quickly, as by this momentary relief many a one is prevented from becoming poor.

4. To what extent and under what regulations is assistance given to lying-in women at their homes, or in public establishments?—Married lying-in women incapable of providing for themselves are delivered gratis by the institution for the poor, and receive sick money for four weeks. The unmarried are sent to the delivery-room, which is under the management of the poor-house; after their recovery they must provide for their children themselves.

5. To what extent and under what regulations are there any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick?—There are some private female societies which provide for lying-in women and sick persons, but their operations are confined.

Several guilds have journeymen's funds, to which every one must contribute, out of which in case of sickness the cure and sick money are paid.

V. CHILDREN:

Illegitimate.

1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall; wholly upon the mothers, or wholly upon the fathers; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations?—The fathers as well as the mothers are obliged to support illegitimate children; however, the father seldom acknowledges the child if he has not really the intention to marry the mother; if the father is able, the mother is generally settled with before the justice for a sum of money, and then she alone has to provide for the child.

It often happens, however, that the father does not acknowledge the child, and then the care of it falls upon the mother alone.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards?—Never, unless by way of an amicable accommodation.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?—The Poor Institution provides for illegitimate children when the mother is incapable; however, it follows the principle, that the mother must in every case provide for the child, if she is not very sickly. The assistance afforded consists, (a) in free schooling only; (b) a grant of a weekly support; (c) in taking away the children, who are put out to board in the country; when they are so far grown up, provision is made for their instruction, and afterwards for their confirmation. The children are taken at the earliest age.

The placing them in the country has always proved very beneficial. The children grow up healthy in body and mind, and are almost always employed in agriculture.

Illegitimate children are also received into the Orphan House, but only when they are not foundlings, for a considerable sum of money for board, which is paid at once.

Orphans, Foundlings, or deserted Children.

4. To what extent and under what regulations are they taken into establishments for their reception?—The Orphan House

(a) Provides only for legitimate children of citizens of the city and its territory. If one of the parents is living, it only takes a part of the children, but none of the children to be received must be above ten years of age. No sick child is received.

(b) It must receive foundlings when their parents are not known.

(c) Deserted children are received only when they are legitimate.

The Orphan House is supported by the interest of its capital, some collections, and advances from the Treasury.

The Poor Institution, on the contrary, receives, (a) Orphans, without particular regard to their being legitimate or illegitimate, or their ages; sick children are also taken care of. (b) Foundlings belong to the Orphan House; (c) also deserted children, when the Orphan House will not receive them.

5. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?—We have no billeting or quartering of children. Only in particular cases are children

children delivered by the Poor Institution to persons in the city, but for a bonification, until they can be ultimately provided for.

6. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—The manner of placing the children in the country by the Poor Institution is stated in V. 3. The Orphan House also sends the children into the country till their sixth year.

7. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—Grandfathers and grandmothers must provide for their grandchildren, if they are able.—See V. 2.

VI. CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception?—
(a) Cripples are received into the general hospital, if there is a probability that their situation can be bettered by medical treatment. If they are found incurable, they are discharged; and if they cannot support themselves, either assistance is afforded them by the Poor Institution, or a provision is made for their reception into the poor-house, or some other institution. Sick crippled children are also placed in the country by the Poor Institution, where, as experience shows, their situation is perceptibly improved, particularly with those who are scrophulous and have crooked legs; however, a few already grown up are left in the country, as they can be supported there at a less expense than in the city.

(b) For deaf and dumb children we have an institution supported by charitable contributions, in which their capacities are called into action as much as possible, and they are enabled to obtain their subsistence. A part of the children lives in the institution. For grown-up ones the Poor Institution provides.

(c) We have also an Asylum for the Blind, founded and supported by charitable contributions. The children therein are taught as much as possible, but they have only instruction, no dwelling and food. The Poor Institution supports some young blind children in the country. For grown-up ones the Poor Institution must provide, if they are otherwise destitute.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?—We know nothing of quartering or billeting.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—Already answered by VII. 1. a. b. c.

4. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—See V. 2. 7.

VII. IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception?—
(a) Idiots are received into the General Hospital to attempt their recovery. After their discharge, the Poor Institution assists them, if necessary; they are also in some cases received into the poor-house.

(b) Lunatics are sent to the General Hospital. By the careful treatment of the physicians, they are often so far recovered that they can be returned to their families. The incurable remain in the General Hospital, if the families can afford to pay a moderate sum for their support there.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?—We know nothing of billeting and quartering.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—There is no arrangement on the part of a public institution for boarding them. However, there are some private institutions where persons of property can be placed at board, the proprietors of which also endeavour to effect their recovery.

4. To what extent and under what regulations, and in what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—Vide V. 2.

VIII. EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

1st. On the industry of the labourers? } The active and industrious want no assistance,
2d. On their frugality? } nor do they calculate upon any. Many an unfor-

fortunate or thoughtless person is saved from utter ruin; but he who has once given himself up to idleness and drinking, cannot be reformed, even by punishment. The assistance to those who can still earn something is, therefore, as sparing as possible; on the other hand, the Poor Institution is less strict in granting free schooling to the children, and most ready in affording medical assistance and medicine.

3d. On the age at which they marry?—Among the lower classes, marriages before twenty-five or thirty years are seldom, therefore the assistance which it may become necessary to afford is not brought into consideration. The thoughtless unlawful connexions, concubinage, and their consequences, need not, in this question, be mentioned.

4th. On the mutual dependence and affection of parent, children and other relatives?—The parental feeling appears to be preserved among the well disposed. This is also mostly the case with the children, as the dependence and affection of parents and relations is, by better instruction, increased; but among grown-up children, we often discover that they are not ashamed to suffer their parents to fall upon public charity.

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5th. What, on the whole, is the condition of the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, as compared with the condition of the person subsisting on alms or public charity? Is the condition of the latter, as to food and freedom from labour, more or less eligible? [See p. 261 & 335 of the Poor Law Selections.]—The self-supporting labourer must, it is true, work hard for his bread, as living in Hamburg is dear; nevertheless it is not made easier to those who obtain support, as this is limited as much as possible, and he is besides compelled to endeavour to get employment. The situation of the latter is therefore not preferable. The idle beggar, properly speaking, commonly leads a very miserable life, and is accustomed to pass many a day without nourishment; however, he has most difficulty in denying himself spirituous liquors; but it is notorious that he does not fail to enjoy himself if the harvest has been abundant.—The remaining statistical questions, and particularly those relating to agriculture, I am for the most part unable to answer properly.

IX. LABOURERS, &c.

As Hamburg has no agricultural population that can properly be so called, and few artisans, most of the following questions do not apply to the state of Hamburg; those that do apply to it, are answered as accurately as the information to be obtained will allow. The labourers of Hamburg are chiefly in the character of porters, who are employed in the transport and care of merchandize, and whose wages and earnings greatly exceed and admit of no comparison with the wages of agricultural labourers.

1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month or the year, with and without provisions, in summer and in winter?—

2. Is piece-work general?—

3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—

4. State, as nearly as you can, the annual average expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?—

5. Is there any and what employment for women and children?—

6. What can women, and children under 16, earn per week, in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed?—

7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8 and 5 years, respectively (the eldest a boy), expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?—

8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children, and if so, on what food?—

9. Could it lay by any thing, and how much?—

10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?—

11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations?—

12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale?—

13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—

14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?— $3\frac{5}{8}$ per cent.; Number of deaths, 4,764; population, 130,000.

15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?— $3\frac{3}{4}$ per cent., exclusive children born dead, amounting,

Born living	-	-	-	4,867
„ dead	-	-	-	315 to about $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent.

5,182 = 1 to 25.

16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?—1,721 marriages in population of 130,000, or 1 in $75\frac{5}{10}$.

17. The average number of children to a marriage?—3,731 children born in wedlock; about $2\frac{1}{2}$ to a marriage.

18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?— $4\frac{5}{8}$ to 1.

19. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year?—770, on a population of 130,000 souls, or 1 in $168\frac{8}{10}$.

20. Proportion of children that die before the end of their tenth year?—1,707, on a population of 130,000 souls, inclusive of those who died before the end of their first year, or 1 in $76\frac{1}{10}$.

21. Proportion of children that die before the end of their eighteenth year?—162 between 10 and 20; therefore, total under 20 years, 1,869, or 1 in

22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—Unknown.

23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—Unknown.

24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried; 2d, the married, save?—Unknown.

25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—Chiefly in the Savings Bank.

PARTICULARS of the DIETARY: translated from the "Account of the
GENERAL HOSPITAL in *Hamburgh*," page 74.

THE general consumption of victuals is prepared in the kitchen; the dinner hour of the invalids is 12 o'clock; that of the inspectors, who are partly employed in distributing the provisions, is at 2 o'clock, because many dishes are prepared for them which would not suit invalids.

The provision for the invalids is divided into the General Hospital Diet, and the so-named extra provision. Every invalid who gives nothing, or at least very little, for his board, receives the former as soon as the physician thinks it is suitable, as well as all the attendants, nurses, workmen, &c.; the latter every invalid receives as soon as the physician orders it, without reference to board and lodging-money, and other circumstances; besides which, every boarder receives it daily whose board amounts to more than 7 marcs a week. The former (hospital diet) is prepared in cauldrons, and the latter (extra provision) on the hearth in the little kitchen.

The dinner of the usual hospital diet consists of weak broth, with barley or rice, sometimes with potatoes, and of beef and vegetables. The vegetables consist of potatoes, potatoes and carrots, sourcroot, cauliflower, turnips, and different kinds of pulse, such as white beans, yellow pease, grey pease, green pease, with roots; in summer it is varied with fresh vegetables, different according to the season.

If fresh vegetables are cooked, they are done quite plain; but if dried ones are given, potatoes are cooked with them.

The breakfast, which is distributed at 7 in the morning, is meal soup, made of wheaten meal, with some butter; the evening meal, given at 6 o'clock, consists of grits, either oat-meal, barley, or buckwheat, or in one or both cases, warm beer, according to the physician's orders.

The usual beverage of the inhabitants of the hospital is weak brown beer, which is distributed in the morning.

Particular bakers in the city make the bread from wheat flour, for the especial use of the hospital. Several of the workmen receive pure rye bread.

In regard to particular provisions for the invalids, the physicians are certainly bound to prescribe according to the greatest cheapness, but at all events not too limited. To the usual prescriptions of this extra-provision belong, to the dinner, water soup, soups of dried fruit (such as cherries, plums, prunes, apples, bilberries), oat soup, milk, meats, sago with wine or milk, rice balls with wine or milk, veal soup, strong beef soup with or without rice, boiled eggs, boiled fresh-water fish, roasted veal, veal fricassee, potatoes, young fresh vegetables, dried plums, apple sauce, &c. In this case the breakfast consists of warm beer, the same for the evening, or sago, and fruit soups for those severely ill.

The distribution of the provisions and beverage is done in the kitchen, where a bell, placed at the back of the administration's building, assembles the attendants and nurses at particular hours in the day for this purpose. The beverage, as well as the morning and evening meals, are given out by the superintendents in the requisite number of portions; the superintendents are personally present in the kitchen with their servants at the distribution of the dinner, and receive the daily maintenance of the establishment according to their account books.

These account books contain, according to the number of the rooms and of the beds in the same, next to the name of the invalid or other inhabitant of the station, the prescribed diet for the latter; next to the usual hospital diet, the quantity of the portion; next to the extra-provision the special statement of the same. According to this account book, each superintendent takes the division of the eating to each room of his station; from this he makes every evening an extract, which contains the consumption of the hospital diet, according to the portions of different sizes, and an accurate account of the extra-provision given out, as well as the account of the victuals and beverage distributed to the boarders and inspectors. These extracts are laid the following morning, from all the stations, before the hospital physician, for his signature, and then sent to the provisor, who is charged with the care of the economy.

The whole portions consist of $1\frac{1}{2}$ pound of bread, 4 ounces of meat, 1 measure of soup, 1 measure of vegetables; three quarter portions, 18 ounces of bread, 3 ounces of meat, 1 measure of soup, 1 measure of vegetables; half portions, 12 ounces of bread, 2 ounces of meat, 1 measure of soup, 1 measure of vegetables; the quarter portions, 6 ounces of bread, 1 ounce of meat, 1 measure of soup, 1 measure of vegetables. The eight portions, 3 ounces of bread, 1 measure of soup; besides which, 1 measure of meal soup or grits is given each time, morning and evening. The bread and meat are cut into different portions in the kitchen. The daily portion of beer consists in a whole bottle for the attendants and workmen, and a half one for the invalids.

The portion of the particular beverages is each time one jug full, which contains about $1\frac{1}{2}$ bottle. Every attendant and workman receives besides, daily, one-eighth bottle of brandy; if the same is ordered for an invalid, the portion consists of one-sixteenth of a bottle. Wine is only given out at the special order of the physician, in which case the kind of wine to be given, as well as the daily portion, is determined by the physician; the superintendent informs the provisor of the order, and receives the wine from him, and which he himself distributes.

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The hospital gives tea, coffee, sugar and butter only to those boarders whose board amounts to the above mentioned sum; cheese is also given at the physician's orders; these several articles are distributed in fixed weekly and monthly quantities. The other invalids are, however, not denied the enjoyment of these things as soon as they are either brought to them by their relations, or that they can procure them by their own means, provided the physician's permission has been obtained.

But in order in this respect to avoid any communication beyond the hospital, there are two little grocers' shops established in the latter, in each wing one; they are situated in the front part of each wing, on the ground floor, with a window looking into the lobby; the stores are procured by the provisor, and the sale is made at the fixed prices of other grocers for the account of the hospital, and the grocers, at the sale of these stores, are obliged to give in an account of them: the following articles are in these shops; coffee, black tea, sugar, butter, tobacco, snuff, pipes, and besides many articles for writing and sewing. With regard to these beverages, hot water is given out at different periods during the day in the kitchen. After every distribution in the kitchen, as well as after the utensils in the rooms have been used, both must be immediately cleaned by the attendants. Those persons, such as the upper cook, men cooks, women cooks, bread cutters, char women, &c., who are appointed to look after the work in the kitchen, have been already mentioned above. The superintendence over these persons is managed by the housekeeper. The different distributions in the kitchen are, according to what has been just quoted, daily, as follows:

Morning	6 o'clock	-	-	-	Tea.
—	7	—	-	-	Meal, soup and warm beer.
Noon	- 12	—	-	-	Dinner for invalids.
Afternoon	2	—	-	-	Dinner for the inspectors.
—	4	—	-	-	Tea.
Evening	6	—	-	-	Grits and warm beer.
—	7	—	-	-	Beverage and tea for invalids.

In the maintenance of about 1,300 persons, the consumption of the General Hospital Diet was daily the following; (from which return the proportion observed in preparing the same will be seen)—

460 portions of warm beer for breakfast, require 44lbs. of wheat and rye bread, 18lbs. of treacle and one cask of beer.

551 portions meal soup require 50lbs. of flour, 6lbs. butter, 12lbs. salt.

460lbs. of beef and veal which, when cleared from the bones and sinews, gives 1,100 portions; of these 460lbs., 300 lbs. are taken for soup, and 600 portions of strong beef soup boiled from it, which is given at the order of the physician to the invalids, morning, noon and evening; the rest of the meat is roasted.

To 720 portions of the usual hospital soup are added the remains of the meat and bones of the day before, the surperfluous fat of boiled meat, about 2lbs., which is chopped very fine, and 30lbs. of rice or 24lbs. of barley; besides this are added the remains of potatoes and roots of the previous day.

As for the vegetables, 12 sacks of potatoes contain about 1,000 portions, to which are added 16lbs. butter or fat and 6lbs. of salt; if pulse is given at the same time, then only six sacks of potatoes are used.

550 portions fixed for the evening meal, require 70lbs. of grits, 6lbs. of butter, 2lbs. of salt. If barley in milk is given, 80lbs. of barley, and 80 jugs of milk are requisite for 660 portions.

660 portions of buck wheat grits require 86lbs. of grits and 8lbs. of butter; from time to time rice in milk is given at the evening meal, in which case the warm beer is omitted; then 1,200 portions require 180lbs. of rice and 100 jugs of milk.

TRANSLATION.

THE 48th REPORT of the GENERAL INSTITUTION for the POOR, containing an Account of the RECEIPTS and DISBURSEMENTS in the year 1832, with a special Exposition of the Effect of the Institution during that period, published in April 1833.

IN the firm conviction that our General Institution for the Poor which, as it is alone owing to the general interest and co-operation of the whole of our fellow citizens, can only exist with and through the same, the committee have always considered it as their first indispensable duty, to give the greatest publicity to the management thereof intrusted to them. To what extent it has fulfilled the same, the long list of Reports laid before the public, at first in periods of a few months, and afterwards yearly, with a few exceptions, will shew. Not to trouble the public with repeated details, they have for some years confined themselves to accompanying their several accounts with brief explanations, and a statement of the result of their deliberations; but they now find themselves compelled anew, by a special exposition of the efficacy of this Institution in the last year, to give the public a complete view of the whole effect of their operations.

To enable therefore our fellow citizens to form an idea of the number of demands upon our Institution, we shall begin with a list of the number of cases laid before our two

Receiving

Receiving Deputations for poor old paupers and families of children (which assemble every month, and indeed, each of them twice, three or four times), for their decision: That an account of every case here introduced must have been previously received from the competent officer; that, (besides a Report of the Physician for the Poor, and a complete inventory of their effects), all documents which can in any way be produced, relating to the circumstances of the family in question, as also an opinion of the curator and overseer of the district must be added; and, lastly, that in every case it must be made an indispensable condition that the pauper present himself with his whole family before the Receiving Deputation, it is unnecessary to mention. There happened,

By the Receiving Deputation for old paupers :

	New cases.		Revised and prolonged cases.		New cases.		Revised and prolonged cases.
In January	- 68	-	- 68	In August	- 29	-	- 25
February	- 34	-	- 30	September	- 23	-	- 32
March	- 47	-	- 171	October	- 21	-	- 47
April	- 43	-	- 151	November	- 80	-	- 135
May	- 27	-	- 171	December	- 35	-	- 99
June	- 16	-	- 57				
July	- 11	-	- 47		434		1,033

By the Receiving Deputation for families of children :

	New cases.		Revised and prolonged cases.		New cases.		Revised and prolonged cases.
In January	- 76	-	- 105	In August	- 30	-	- 64
February	- 50	-	- 100	September	- 64	-	- 77
March	- 62	-	- 378	October	- 37	-	- 59
April	- 59	-	- 385	November	- 35	-	- 80
May	- 38	-	- 303	December	- 33	-	- 139
June	- 32	-	- 92				
July	- 44	-	- 73		560		1,855

Therefore, in the whole,—

	New cases.		Revised and prolonged cases.
	994		2,888
Not appeared	- 70 and 162		
Fully rejected	- 128 - 260		
	198		422
Therefore support granted to	- 796		2,466

On the decision of this deputation, however, depends, in respect to grown-up paupers, the grant of a fixed weekly support for a longer time, as also a pecuniary assistance for one time, clothing and the delivery of beds; in respect to children, the placing them in the country, and the grant of free instruction and clothing at their confirmation. The remaining numerous branches of our administration, are completely separated therefrom, which, as such, are managed partly by deputations, consisting of several members, partly by particular overseers named for that purpose, and partly by the district overseers and other officers.

Therefore, to obtain a complete view of all the services of our complicated Institution, it will be necessary to look at the three chief objects of the same. Provision for grown up healthy paupers, for children and for sick paupers.

1st. PROVISION FOR GROWN UP HEALTHY PAUPERS.

The support afforded to these by the General Institution is,—

Money.	Fuel in winter.
Nourishing food.	Work.
Clothing.	Dwelling.
Beds.	Free burial.

1st. Money.

For provisional support, which, where immediate help is necessary, can be given by the curators for a few weeks, till the Receiving Deputation has determined upon the case in the next sitting, there were in the last year, expended Ct 8,548. 8 Schgs.

The fixed weekly support to registered paupers, amounted to,—

In the year 1831	- - - - -	Ct 142,318	3 Schgs
Ditto - 1832	- - - - -	141,858	7
Had therefore decreased by	- -	459	12

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The smallest weekly support granted by us is 8 sch^{gs}; the greatest, for single persons, 2 Ct; for families, 3 Ct. Upon an average (including the soup tickets delivered at the same time), each registered pauper family received,—

At the beginning of last year	-	-	{	Summer rate	-	Sch ^{gs} .	d.
				Winter rate	-	16	2
						17	6 $\frac{3}{10}$

How equal this average has been since 1815, the following table will shew:—

				Average of the								Average of the			
				Summer Rate.		Winter Rate.						Summer Rate.		Winter Rate.	
				Sch ^{gs}	d.	Sch ^{gs}	d.					Sch ^{gs}	d.	Sch ^{gs}	d.
1815	-	-	-	15	1 $\frac{9}{10}$	17	2 $\frac{9}{10}$	1824	-	-	-	16	10 $\frac{8}{10}$	18	4 $\frac{6}{10}$
1816	-	-	-	15	4 $\frac{9}{10}$	17	10 $\frac{7}{10}$	1825	-	-	-	16	9 $\frac{4}{10}$	18	4 $\frac{5}{10}$
1817	-	-	-	16	2 $\frac{5}{10}$	17	2 $\frac{4}{10}$	1826	-	-	-	16	6	18	4 $\frac{8}{10}$
1818	-	-	-	15	8 $\frac{7}{10}$	18	3 $\frac{1}{10}$	1827	-	-	-	16	11 $\frac{5}{10}$	18	4 $\frac{5}{10}$
1819	-	-	-	16	10 $\frac{9}{10}$	17	8 $\frac{8}{10}$	1828	-	-	-	17	— $\frac{4}{10}$	18	8 $\frac{1}{10}$
1820	-	-	-	16	10	18	5 $\frac{7}{10}$	1829	-	-	-	17	3 $\frac{6}{10}$	18	7 $\frac{5}{10}$
1821	-	-	-	17	— $\frac{2}{10}$	18	8 $\frac{9}{10}$	1830	-	-	-	16	10 $\frac{9}{10}$	18	2 $\frac{4}{10}$
1822	-	-	-	17	— $\frac{6}{10}$	18	7 $\frac{5}{10}$	1831	-	-	-	16	6	17	9
1823	-	-	-	16	11 $\frac{5}{10}$	18	2 $\frac{8}{10}$								

The number of our registered paupers has unfortunately for some years been constantly increasing. We had,

				In the beginning of May.				In the beginning of December.			
				Registered Poor.				Registered Poor.			
1826	-	-	-	-	2,332	-	-	-	-	2,356	
1827	-	-	-	-	2,376	-	-	-	-	2,386	
1828	-	-	-	-	2,439	-	-	-	-	2,424	
1829	-	-	-	-	2,508	-	-	-	-	2,590	
1830	-	-	-	-	2,655	-	-	-	-	2,666	
1831	-	-	-	-	2,817	-	-	-	-	2,812	
1832	-	-	-	-	2,969	-	-	-	-	2,846	

Alarming as this continually increasing burden upon the fund appears, we must not however, as complaints of increasing poverty are heard in almost all countries and cities, look for the cause of it exclusively in the circle of our small state.

One of the chief local causes is, next to the degeneration of our lowest classes during the French occupation, indisputably the immense influx of foreigners without means of subsistence, who are enticed by the brisk traffic of our large city, and who, disappointed in their hopes, commonly, after a few years, become a burden to the general institution for the poor. Notwithstanding the principle not to grant support to foreigners who have not acquired a right to a domicile in Hamburgh is observed by us as strictly as possible, among the 2,846 registered paupers in the beginning of December in last year, there were found 1,395 foreigners, 430 of whom alone were born in the neighbouring State of Hanover and 326 in the Duchy of Holstein. If we add the remark, that here (as in all the following statements) in families, only the head thereof, and indeed where both parents are living, only the husband is taken into consideration, that the female part of our paupers consists almost universally of persons who have formerly been servants, and that by far the greater part of these, as is well known, come to us from other countries, it follows that considerably more than the half of the grown up paupers provided for by us belong to foreign countries. There were among the number mentioned,

Above 60 years of age	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,552
Between 40 and 60	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,032
30 and 40	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	175
Under 30 years	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	87
								2,846

From which it is sufficiently shown that helpless old age is the chief object of our support.

That we further extend our care, particularly to individual women and girls, as also to large families of children, appears by the following numbers: among the before-mentioned 2,846 registered paupers there were,

Individual women and girls	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,061
Individual men	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	265
Families with children not yet confirmed, which received sup-	}	port, mostly on account of the children	-	-	-	-	-	797
Families without children, or with children already confirmed,			-	-	-	-	-	723
where both parents had passed their 60th year	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,846

Through old age or incurable disease entirely unemployed, were 825

The

The individual women and girls maintain themselves, of course, almost universally by the work of their hands, and therefore we reckoned—

Chairwomen and washerwomen	-	-	-	-	-	-	550
Seamstresses and knitters	-	-	-	-	-	-	463
Many of our male paupers capable of work have never carried on any fixed trade, and are for this very reason become poor.							272
The number of these amounted to	-	-	-	-	-	-	

The remaining number consists, with few exceptions, almost entirely of poor mechanics. As a particular calculation of all the individual branches of trade would show no result, we content ourselves with remarking here, that we have again convinced ourselves that three of our trades particularly lay claim to our support. The list of our paupers contained, namely,

Shoemakers	-	-	-	-	-	-	136
Tailors	-	-	-	-	-	-	99
Joiners	-	-	-	-	-	-	53

Besides the weekly support granted by us, the eight oldest of our registered paupers receive, in consequence of a legacy left some years ago by the deceased lady of Senator Schwarz for this purpose, yearly, a sum of 20 marks. This support was received in the year 1832 by five women and three men. The youngest of these was in December 92 years old, the eldest 103½ years old.

Besides this, we are also enabled, by means of the Cathedral Poor Fund given up to our administration in the year 1805, to grant a not inconsiderable yearly pension to some persons who are ashamed to apply for assistance. This fund was at that time placed in our hands by a decree of the Senate, upon condition that the capital should never be touched, but that the interest thereof, after the death of the then beneficed persons, the greatest part of whom received a very small yearly stipend, should be distributed in sums of from 50 to 100 marks to poor persons who were ashamed to apply for support. The individuals who formerly received benefit therefrom have been dead for several years, and now there are ten pensions of 100 marks yearly granted by the deputation appointed by the committee of the poor for the management of this fund.

Nourishing Food.

To enable our poor daily to procure nourishing food for 1 schilling the committee for the poor in the year 1800 raised a considerable sum for erecting a Rumford stove and distributing the soup made therein. The number of these stoves was by degrees increased to four in the city and one in the suburbs St. George. The chief inspection thereof is committed to an overseer, but to each stove is an overseer or curator, who purchases the necessary articles and directs what shall be prepared daily. Each of the cooks provides the fuel himself and is compensated with 8 schillings for 100 portions of soup. For his trouble in cooking the same he receives upon condition of preparing fresh soup—

							Marks.
Daily 30 to 40 portions, weekly	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
40 to 50	-	-	-	-	-	-	5
50 to 60	-	-	-	-	-	-	6
Above 60	-	-	-	-	-	-	7

But if more than one kettle is required, he receives for the second kettle a proportionate compensation. The goodness of the soup is examined daily by one of our curators in turns, who enters his opinion thereon in a protocol attached to each stove.

The preparation of the original Rumford soup we have discontinued for some years, as a food composed of so many ingredients was not liked by our poor. By simplifying the same by the introduction of a change four times in the week, and a stricter inspection, we have succeeded since some years in considerably increasing our sale thereof.

							Portions.
In the year 1826 were sold	-	-	-	-	-	-	189,642
1827	-	-	-	-	-	-	189,812
1828	-	-	-	-	-	-	190,991
1829	-	-	-	-	-	-	191,311
1830	-	-	-	-	-	-	200,072
1831	-	-	-	-	-	-	286,176
1832	-	-	-	-	-	-	295,855
For ready money were distributed in the last year	-	-	-	-	-	-	4,016

							Soup Tickets.
To our registered Paupers as a fixed support	-	-	-	-	-	-	285,190
By the physicians for the poor, sold by the managing Overseer	-	-	-	-	-	-	3,266
	-	-	-	-	-	-	

							294,806
Of these, only delivered in	-	-	-	-	-	-	291,839

Therefore there remained, not made use of by the holders 2,967 tickets.

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Our fund bonifies this soup establishment only one schilling a piece for the tickets distributed to registered paupers, and for those distributed by the physicians of the poor; wherefore there are accordingly found specified in our expenditure,—

	C ^t Marks	Sch ^{rs}
285,190 Soup tickets, with - - - - -	17,824	6
Likewise in our payments for the cure and care of the sick,		
6,350 Soup tickets, with - - - - -	396	14
Court marks - - -	18,221	4

Besides this, the loss of the soup establishment by the stove, amounted to—

	C ^t Mk ^s	Sch ^{rs}	d.
In the Springeltwiete upon 32,205 portions - - -	138	14	6
— Rosenstrasse - - 75,460 - - -	147	3	6
— Kornträgergang - - 82,237 - - -	211	1	-
— Beckergang - - 85,081 - - -	227	12	6
— St. George - - 20,872 - - -	106	4	-
Item for keeping the stove - - -	598	7	6
Printing expenses, &c. - - -	20	-	-
Total - - -	1,449	4	-

Capital put out to interest for the soup establishment - - - - -	banco marks, 8,000	-	-
Balance in hand at the end of December 1831, courant ms.	1,854	9	6
From the chief fund, for distributed tickets - - -	17,824	6	-
Item, for those distributed by the physicians for the poor	396	14	-
Item, for those sold by the overseer - - -	204	2	-

For interest received :

From banco marks 6,000 à 4 per ct. banco.			
Banco marks 240 à 26 per ct. courant marks,	302	6	
Banco marks 2,000 à 4 per ct. courant marks	80	-	
	382	6	-
Courant marks - - -	20,662	5	6

Paid in the last year :

For tickets delivered in courant marks -	18,503	2
--	--------	---

Advances paid for the kitchen in

Springeltwiete - - - - -	200	-
Rosenstrasse - - - - -	600	-
Beckergang - - - - -	200	-
St. George - - - - -	400	-
Divers small payments - - -	20	-
	19,923	2 -

Balance for the year 1833, courant marks	739	3 6
--	-----	-----

Clothing.

Complete clothing, with only a few exceptions, has been given to grown-up paupers since 1812, we being of opinion (as remarked in one of our former reports) that we could at first limit our expenditure in this respect, while the want of the same is for the greatest part relative, and economy, order and cleanliness are capable of lessening it very much.

Therefore by a resolution made by our Poor Committee in the year 1817, our curators are directed, in order to promote the health and cleanliness of the poor, to take care as much as possible, that each of them has two shirts. Each pauper who has no fit shirt, receives two, he who has one, an additional one.

Two overseers are charged with the purchase of the linen, and the making and marking of the shirts, but the delivery of the same is left to the discretion of the curators and overseers of the particular district.

There were delivered in the last 10 years :	1823 - - - - -	2,374 shirts.
	1824 - - - - -	2,310 -
	1825 - - - - -	2,383 -
	1826 - - - - -	2,261 -
	1827 - - - - -	2,561 -
	1828 - - - - -	3,224 -
	1829 - - - - -	3,934 -
	1830 - - - - -	5,129 -
	1831 - - - - -	5,900 -
	1832 - - - - -	5,596 -

Total, exclusive of those for school children, and to be confirmed - - -	35,672	-
--	--------	---

Each man's shirt costs us about 26 schillings, each woman's shift, 22 schillings.

The whole expense for the same amounted in the last year to court marks 6,997. 15 sch^{rs}.

Beds.

575

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Beds.

Every one of the paupers who is really in want of a convenient and warm bed, upon the application of the curator and overseer of the district, gets from the receiving deputation, a sack of straw, a bolster and a blanket. Formerly it was the duty of the curators and overseers of the districts, in each particular case, to procure these articles, but since 1830, the care thereof is assigned to one of our overseers.

Our stock of poor beds consisted on the 1st January 1832, of

For single persons.				For two persons.			
	Blankets.		Straw sacks & bolsters.		Blankets.		Straw sacks & bolsters.
	17	-	189		20	-	95
Newly purchased	- 114	-	-	Newly purchased	- 108	-	50
	131	-	189		128	-	145
Of these were de-}	114	-	100	Of these were de-}	126	-	105
livered in 1832 - }				livered in 1832 - }			
Stock at the end }	17	-	89	Stock at the end }	2	-	40
of 1832 - - - }				of 1832 - - - }			

The double poor beds cost upon an average - - - 9 2 schillings.

The single ones - - - - - 6 14 -

The total expenditure for beds purchased amounted, }
in the year 1832, to - - - - - } courant marks 1,214. 4 schillings.

Fuel in winter.

Formerly as soon as the thermometer was fallen only one degree below the freezing point, a weekly addition of from 4 to 12 schillings was granted to each of our registered paupers, for this purpose, besides the universal increased support; but as these additions in money for the most part failed in their object, a delivery of the firing itself has, since 1830, been introduced in their stead.

The care of this delivery is assigned to a special committee, which contracts yearly for the quantity of turf which may be probably necessary. This is deposited for account, and at the risk of the deliverer, in a warehouse given to him gratis, but he is bound, for a proportionate compensation previously fixed upon, to deliver, by his servants, the necessary quantity of sods, on fixed days and hours, and at appointed places, and distribute the same to our poor, upon production of the turf tickets. He receives payment only for the sods really delivered, the amount of which he must show by the tickets received; for any quantity remaining over, he is paid five per cent. interest. In this manner we exercise the strictest control, without paying any officer for this purpose.

Upon the commencement of the cold, the committee assembles every Friday, to determine whether a distribution of turf be necessary, and how large the same is to be. If it is determined, then the messengers for the poor are immediately provided, together with the weekly money, with the number of turf tickets necessary for each district. These tickets consist of cards, each for 25 sods, which number is expressed thereon in letters and figures, and have, besides the stamp, the mark of the general institution for the poor, and the counter signature of one of the members of the committee. The poor are directed to appear with their cards, precisely on fixed days and hours, at the places appointed for each district, with sacks or baskets. The poor messengers are bound to appear on the appointed days and hours, at the distribution of the turf to the poor of their respective districts, to prevent disorder; at the same time the overseers of districts must arrange with their officers that one of them be always present to inspect the distribution.

In this manner were distributed in the last year:—

	Turf tickets.	
7th January - - - -	5,884 to 2,942 families,	therefore 50 sods to each family.
14th — - - - -	6,066 to 3,033	— - - - - 50 —
21st — - - - -	3,037 to 3,037	— - - - - 25 —
18th February - - -	6,304 to 3,152	— - - - - 50 —
25th — - - - -	3,197 to 3,197	— - - - - 25 —
3d March - - - - -	3,194 to 3,194	— - - - - 25 —

27,682 turf tickets à 25 sods, 692,050 sods.

Of these were only delivered }
in to the chief fund - - } 27,392 - - - - - 684,800 -

Remained out - - 290 turf tickets - - - 7,250 sods.

The whole expense for our turf magazine amounted, }
in the year 1832, to - - - - - } courant marks 3,738. 6 schillings.

Work.

The gains acquired by their own industry appear so indisputably to be the most suitable support for paupers capable of working, that it should be as much as possible the only one offered them. After our former establishments for work were, during the French occupation,

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obliged

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obliged to be discontinued, we were continually endeavouring to find out some employment for our poor, the exercise of which required no great skill, but at the same time without prejudicing those who had hitherto, without becoming a burden to their fellow citizens, with difficulty supported themselves by their own hands. The consideration of these two indispensable conditions, particularly necessary with us, where the pressure on all kinds of easier gains is so great, especially as our Institution cannot employ the capital intrusted to it in extensive commercial speculations, has hitherto placed insuperable difficulties in our way.

How much the more pleasing, therefore, must be the offer made us in the course of last year by the respectable commercial house of Emanuel & Son, by which both conditions were answered as much as possible. This house agreed, upon condition of delivering the necessary materials and payment of moderate wages, to have woollen stockings and socks knitted by our poor for exportation. We did not hesitate to agree to this immediately, and accordingly a contract was made with this house; in pursuance of which it delivers for a year in advance the necessary quantity of knitting yarn for 2,000 dozen pair of socks, and engages to send socks knitted by our poor beyond sea, or at all events not to sell them at any place within ten miles (German) of Hamburg, and also, as much as it depends upon them, to take care that none of the articles come afterwards to this market. The distribution of this work, which will begin on the 1st June next, as also the inspection over the same, is assigned to our district overseers and officers, and at the same time resolved, in order to procure our poor a better introduction to the same, by the distribution of the support otherwise given them, not to take this into account, but rather to grant those earnings to our registered poor as a clear augmentation.

We cherish the hope that patriotism, as well as the spirit of speculation so active with us, may induce many of our fellow citizens to follow this example, and thus enable our Institution hereafter to give to those who are prevented by the infirmities of age or by sickness, from active occupation, a sufficient pecuniary support, but to direct all the others to support themselves by their own hands. Of those who are capable but will not work, a great number will, to be sure, be found: the only help against this would perhaps be an Institution, under a strict inspection of the police for compelling them to work, the establishment of which, from the undeniably increasing degeneration of our lowest class of people, is sensibly felt from year to year.

In the last year, the employment given to our poor was confined to the making of the clothing presented by us.

For sewing 5,596 shirts at 4 schillings, we paid Ct marks 1,399.

The school clothing afforded

	Ct	sch ^{gs} .
57 Women for sewing shirts and girls' clothes, a gain of - - -	703	4
23 Poor tailors for boys' clothes - - - - -	453	12
Ct marks - - -	1,157	-

The care of purchasing and making the confirmation clothing was in the year 1832 left to the particular district overseers and officers, therefore we cannot accurately state the gain which thereby accrued to our poor. In the year 1831, when the same was assigned to an overseer, it amounted to—

	Ct	sch ^{gs} .
For sewing 598 shirts at 6 sch ^{gs} - - - - -	224	4
To shoemakers, for 109 pair of boys' shoes, at 40 sch ^{gs} - - -	272	8
167 girls' shoes, at 36 sch ^{gs} - - - - -	375	12
To tailors, for 128 jackets, at 20 sch ^{gs} - - - - -	160	-
146 trowsers, at 16/ - - - - -	146	-
40 waistcoats, at 8/ - - - - -	20	-
Ct marks - - -	1,198	8

Dwelling.

To procure for our lower class of people dwelling as good and as cheap as possible, a row of small dwellings was built in the years 1797 and 1799, at the instance of the Committee for the Poor, on the Dammthor Rampart, and without the Steinthor. The first row of these buildings contained 75, the second 97 booths and rooms, each of which is under the care of two overseers. Besides this, we are enabled, by Scheller's will, to afford free dwelling and a small yearly support to 14 poor journeymen masons or their widows, upon a property in the Kurzen Strasse. The administration of this legacy is also committed to two overseers.

Burial.

In regard to this assistance, we have continually to struggle against old prejudices. Still are many of our poor withheld, by the condition for a long time indispensibly attached to the grant of pecuniary support, from claiming our assistance to be buried as paupers. As no abuse is to be apprehended in respect to the application for the same, the officers alone have the power, according to circumstances, to give a free burial to those poor in their districts who till then have not been registered by the institution for a fixed support, and to refer them to the overseer who is charged with the care of the burial of our poor.

There

There were buried at the expense of the institution in 1832,—

	Ct	schs.
238 registered paupers, at an expense of - - - -	1,643	6
221 not registered - - - - -	1,293	14
459 persons.		
Ct marks - - -	2,937	4
Small payments for clothing the bearers, &c. -	86	9
Total - - -	3,023	13

As we pay for the burial of all our registered poor out of our funds, every one of them is therefore bound, upon being registered, to give up his interest in the dead club in which he is entered, which our institution, if the overseer deputed in this behalf thinks it advantageous, takes upon itself.

At the end of the year 1831, the institution took upon itself—

Additional ones in 1832 - - - -	511 paupers in 626 dead clubs.
136	177
Gone :	647
From the Institution annulled, 25 paupers in 32 clubs.	803
Dead :	
In Hospital - - 12	14
In Poor-house - - 6	8
In the Districts - 64	78
	107
	132

Remained at the end of 1832 - - 540 paupers in 671 dead clubs.

Received for 64 paupers from 78 clubs - -	Ct marks -	4,020	7	6
Advance repaid :				
From Hospital - - - - -		186	5	-
„ Poor-house - - - - -		123	-	-
„ a pauper - - - - -		7	4	-
	Ct marks - - -	4,337	-	6

Expended :				
For paid contributions and supplies in arrear -	2,208	4		
Paid to widows and children of deceased paupers, } on the application of overseers - - - }	317	2		
Placed in the Scholar Fund for a child - -	23	4		
Messengers - - - - -	50	-		
		2,598	10	-

Surplus paid into the chief fund - Ct marks - 1,738 6 6

PROVISION FOR THE CHILDREN OF OUR POOR.

Also in the last year the Committee saw itself compelled from urgent reasons to exceed considerably the sum formerly fixed for the schools, as also the number of children fixed as a maximum to be received. As long as a general school regulation does not establish a sufficient number of properly conducted public schools, and place the private schools besides in every respect under strict control, and what must always be looked upon as absolutely necessary, a compulsion on the part of the children to go to them, (notwithstanding in Hamburgh, exclusive of those educated in our poor institution and orphan house, and work and poor-house, nearly 1,500 children receive free schooling) from the dearness of the good private schools, as also from the consideration that as it rests with the parents to send their children to school or not, without our interference many children would grow up without any instruction, we shall continually find ourselves compelled to heap exceptions upon exceptions.

The whole of our schools are subordinate to a School Committee, composed of four clergymen, delegated by the government at the desire of the Committee for the Poor, and of five overseers.

The whole territory of the General Institution for the Poor is divided into four school districts: in each of these districts, one of the clergymen has charged himself with the special care of the distribution of the children in the schools, with whom an overseer is joined.

Our schools are partly schools for instruction, partly working schools for the girls: in both of them the children are paid for by the head, according to a tarif fixed by the Poor Committee. According to the original arrangement, there should be in each district three classes of schools for instruction; namely, reading schools, middle schools, and higher schools.

In the first of them, the children were to remain till about their ninth year, in the second till about their twelfth, and in the last, till their confirmation. However, to prevent the disadvantage which may easily arise, from a frequent change of schools, the middle schools

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and the higher schools are joined, when the personality of the teachers and the locality allow it; however, in such a manner that the children can be instructed according to their capacities, in different classes, partly by the head teacher, and partly by under-teachers under his inspection, whom the head teacher can only appoint by the consent of the competent clergyman previously obtained.

The boys generally frequent the day-schools; the evening schools are frequented by those only who must, during the day, work in manufactories or other places, to assist their parents by their earnings.

The girls are mostly, at first, instructed in the girls' schools in reading and knitting; when they can read, which is generally the case about their ninth year, they go to the day-schools either for half a day, or to the evening schools, while they remain the rest of the time in the knitting school. After the completion of their 11th year, when they have acquired the proper dexterity in knitting, they are placed in the sewing schools, and remain there till confirmation.

The objects of instruction in the schools are, as usual, religion, writing, reckoning (particularly from the head), German language, and also a little history, geography and natural history. Here the children receive then necessary school-books and writing materials. In the work-schools, where the work is for the account of the school-mistresses, who have also to provide the necessary materials, every thing is taught which belongs to knitting and sewing; in the last season of frequenting the sewing schools, also darning and marking. Some girls who have distinguished themselves, after confirmation, receive half a year's instruction in ironing, as a reward for their diligence.

The teachers of the higher schools are bound, during the last season, to accompany the children to be confirmed, every Sunday to church, to hear the noon sermon, and to question them upon it, in order to accustom them to go regularly to church, and to attention to the divine service.

The number of schools in which the children of our poor were distributed was, at the end of the last year,—

In the 1st district	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	20 schools.
In the 2d	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	25 -
In the 3d	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	22 -
In the 4th	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	15 -
Total								<u>82 schools.</u>

They are used partly, merely as schools for the day and evening, partly as knitting and reading schools, partly merely as knitting or sewing schools. As real schools for work are used:—

In the 1st district	-	-	-	-	-	-	6 schools.
In the 2d	-	-	-	-	-	-	6 -
In the 3d	-	-	-	-	-	-	14 -
In the 4th	-	-	-	-	-	-	7 -
In the whole, therefore							<u>33 real work schools.</u>

The number of school children was, at the close of the year 1831 - - 2,981

Of these were discharged:

Confirmed	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	363
Expelled, on account of total neglect of school	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	116

[This dismissal is inflicted as a punishment only on those children who, besides free schooling, have no support from the institution. As in Hamburgh there is no compulsion, we have no means of obliging the parents to send their children to our schools, and must expel them if the parents continually keep them from school.]

Gone to private schools	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	30
Received into the work and poor-house	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	24
Put out to board in the country	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	17
Gone to service, or to work	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	13
Received into the Orphan-house	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5
Received by relations	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5
On account of continual sickness	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
Dead	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	21
On account of removal, but for the greatest part received again in another school district	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	146

744

Remain - - - 2,237

Received in the course of the last year - - - 939

The Number of children, therefore, at the end of the year 1832, was - 3,176

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Of these children, there were:—

	Boys.	Girls.	
In the 1st district - - -	445	431	together 876
In the 2d - - -	474	498	- 972
In the 3d - - -	380	393	- 773
In the 4th - - -	310	245	- 555
	1,609	1,567	together 3,176 children.

The work-schools were frequented by 1,361 girls.

Every possible care is taken that the children go regularly to school; that they are industrious, and behave well. Each scholar has his testimony-book, which must be filled up every month by the masters and mistresses; and in which, besides the general remarks upon industry and cleanliness, every whole or half day on which the children stay away must be noticed: these testimony-books are shown to the clergymen from time to time, for their perusal; and especially they are informed of every thing which concerns the children. The clergymen hold a meeting in the Stadthouse as often as they find it necessary, but commonly every quarter, in conjunction with the overseer or officer associated to them, and also a second overseer or officer in turns, to inflict punishments: before these the children, for whom the usual school discipline is not sufficient, are summoned, with their parents; the parents, when the fault of their children neglecting school lies with them, are admonished; and upon repetition, when they receive pecuniary assistance, are punished by withholding a part thereof for some weeks. The children are warned, sentenced to corporal punishment in the schools, and upon frequent repetition, till now, delivered over to the police authorities, with the request either to sentence them to an imprisonment for one or a few days, or, upon any great transgressions, to place them in the punishing school of the work and poor-house till their confirmation. But as the measures hitherto taken, and particularly the imprisonment, have had but little and sometimes a bad effect, the Committee for the Poor at the beginning of this year, was obliged to direct the establishment of a particular punishing school, (perhaps more properly called a Reformation School), to which such children are sent, and kept to learning and working for a longer time, from eight o'clock in the morning till eight in the evening, under a strict inspection. The particulars of this establishment will appear in our next Report.

Children under six years receive no schooling; however, the Committee for the Poor has, in the last year, also extended its care to these; it having, with the consent of the Senate, granted to the administration of the Warte Schulen, which have already shed such rich blessings, a capital of 20,000 specie Ct for the purchase of property; however, with the reservation of the power of giving notice for repayment of the same whenever it thinks proper.

Those children who, for want of clothes, either cannot observe a proper cleanliness, or cannot go to school at all, and whose parents, it is shown, are unable to procure them, receive the necessary clothes. The maximum, however, which can be given them yearly, is,—

For boys - - two shirts, 1 jacket, 1 trowsers, 2 pair of stockings, 2 pair of wooden slippers.

For girls - - two shifts, 1 stays, 1 gown or petticoat, 2 pair of stockings, 2 pair of wooden slippers.

Accordingly, in the last year were distributed, to 2,424 children,—

1,740 shirts.	197 gowns.
1,862 shifts.	358 petticoats.
467 jackets.	1,566 pair of stockings.
502 trowsers.	1,548 ditto - wooden slippers.
175 stays.	5 ditto - shoes and boots for cripples.

The procuring of these articles, (which, as before mentioned, with the exception of the wooden slippers, are made entirely by our poor,) is assigned to one of the overseers of the School Committee.

The TOTAL EXPENSES of our Schools amounted in the last year:

	Number of Children.	School Money.	Fire and Candle Money.	School-books and Writing Materials.	Clothing.	Printing Expenses and Messengers.	TOTAL.
1832:		Ct Schgs.	Ct Schgs.	Ct Schgs.	Ct Schgs.	Ct Schgs.	Ct Schgs.
Easter - -	3,155	8,639 3	1,572 13	1,947 -	2,581 8	167 8	14,908 -
Midsummer -	2,960	8,138 4	- -	1,257 8	- -	228 12	9,624 8
Michaelmas -	3,056	8,528 4	- -	479 6	- -	137 8	9,145 2
Christmas -	3,176	8,755 -	1,740 15	1,101 7	4,952 10	182 8	16,732 8
	12,347	34,060 11	3,313 12	4,785 5	7,534 2	716 4	50,410 2
Average - -	3,087	11 Ct 6 sc. $\frac{1}{2}$ d.	1 Ct 1 sc. 2 d.	1 Ct 8 sc. $9\frac{1}{4}$ d.	2 Ct 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.	- Ct 3 sc. $8\frac{1}{2}$ d.	16 Ct 5 sc. $3\frac{1}{4}$ d.

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We present those children who have constantly attended our schools, upon their leaving the same, as a last gift, with a more or less complete dress, according to their wants, not only that they may appear properly attired at the Communion Table, but particularly that they may not, by their outward appearance, be prevented getting forward. Therefore, in the last year, 540 shirts were given to 309 children, and for other articles of dress, Ct 2,888.

Besides this, the School Committee has assigned the care of placing the children confirmed out to service to one of its members. This is effected chiefly by four register offices, which, according to agreement, receive no registering money, but 3 Ct for every child placed in service. In this manner, in the last year, 25 boys and 12 girls were put out to service.

Lastly, the School Committee has the administration of a pupil fund. The little which our poor (whose orphan children are entrusted to our care) leave behind, is put out to interest for their benefit, and, with the interest thereon, paid to them when they become of age.

				Ct	Schgs.
At the end of December 1831, were put out to interest	-	-	-	7,665	5
1832, again	-	-	-	242	3
Ct marks	-	-	-	7,907	8
From which was paid, in the course of the last year	-	-	-	334	8
Ct marks	-	-	-	7,573	-
The whole of the interest amounted to	-	-	-	2,942	14
The amount of the Fund therefore was, at the end of 1832	-	-	-	10,515	14

Already for several years, the shares of some former scholars of our Poor Institution, who, after advertisement, had not presented themselves to receive the same, have been given over to the School Committee, that it might, in pressing cases, apply them for the benefit of such of the confirmed, who, as scholars of the Poor Institution, had deserved our favour. Out of this fund, a supply was given them on their being put apprentices to trades, and in the last year, Ct marks 207, were paid for 14 boys.

Orphan children who are not proper objects for the orphan house, as also such who, for particular reasons, must be taken from their parents, are, as is known, universally placed by us in the country, and most of them on the other side of the Elbe, where, as long experience has taught us, they are well taken care of.

The payment of the Board for these children, is according to the following tarif:

For children, till the 3d year: quarterly 15 Ct, and half-yearly 7 Ct 8 schgs, for clothes.

For children, from the 3d till the 8th year inclusive: quarterly 12 Ct for board, and half-yearly 9 Ct for clothes.

Their schooling is paid by the foster parents.

Children of eight years old, till confirmation, must, in summer, earn their board and cloathing themselves. For the winter half year, from Michaelmas to Easter, 24 Ct for board, 9 Ct for clothes, with the schooling and confirmation expenses are paid.

After confirmation, nothing more is paid. In serious illness, the managing overseer must be immediately informed thereof, and, upon agreement made, a reasonable compensation given. In case of death, the expenses of burial are repaid.

The foster parents are, on the other hand, bound to take proper care of the children entrusted to them, and to support and clothe them cleanly according to the manner of the country. They must not overload them with work, and must allow them the proper time to go to school. To have a proper control over them in the latter instance, the schoolmasters are directed at Christmas and Easter, to give testimonies of their having gone regularly to school, of the diligence, conduct and cleanliness of the children for whose schooling the Institution pays. The foster parents cannot immediately send away the children they have once taken charge of, when the same, on account of their age, pay no more their full board, but must keep them till an opportunity offers for placing them elsewhere, or till their confirmation. After the foster children have left school, and been confirmed, they must place them for one year at least with good people, or keep them in their own service, thereby to facilitate their advancement.

The particular inspection over all the children placed out by the Institution on the other side of the Elbe, is committed to a woman living in a village beyond Harburgh. All the foster parents must appear with the children before this woman, every year, on a fixed day, to be examined by the managing overseers. The foster parents, living dispersed on this side of the Elbe, are directed, as no particular inspection can be kept over them, from time to time, when they come to receive their money, to bring the children with them.

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At the end of the year 1831, the number of children placed out in the country and in the city, was—	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	232
In 1832, were added	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	82
												314
There are gone away, confirmed	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	13
Taken back by the parents or relations	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5
Dead	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	12
												30
At the end of 1832, children at board	-	-										284

The expenses for all the children in the last year, amounted to—

	Ct	Sch ^{gs}
For board	9,575	5
Schooling and confirmation fees	391	8
Clothing	2,882	—
Sick money, funeral expenses, and other small payments	630	6
Total Ct	13,479	6

As the board for all the children is not paid for a full year, the average number must be taken at 258 children, and therefore the total amount of expenses for each child is—

	Ct	Sch ^{gs}
For board	37	2
Schooling and confirmation fees	1	8
Clothing	11	3
Sick money and funeral expenses	2	7
Ct	52	4

PROVISION FOR SICK PAUPERS.

If we examine into the sources of undeserved poverty, we shall find none more fruitful than sickness, which, whenever it attacks the father of a family, from the great expense and the complete interruption it occasions to his business, but too often entirely ruins families who must live by their daily earnings. It is this consideration also which determined the Poor Committee to devote particular attention to this branch of its administration.

A Deputation, consisting of five overseers, is appointed for this purpose. To these are added in each of our six districts, two physicians, one surgeon (in the 6th district, two), and two midwives, with whom in cases of necessity, four are associated out of the number of the physicians for the poor (two for the city, one for St. George, and one for the Stadtdeich); and in each of the five city districts, six apothecaries; and in the 6th district, three apothecaries. From the great extent of some of our districts, it was necessary in this year to associate one assistant physician more to our twelve physicians for the poor.

Although our last year's expenses for the cure and care of the sick poor in their houses, do not quite equal those of 1831, and the extent of our assistance in this regard in the last year was greater than ever, yet it is unnecessary for us to remark that the occasion was most pressing.

The year 1831 had brought us the Asiatic Cholera. The wise measures of our high authorities, and the spirited exertions of many patriotic citizens, tranquilized the minds even of our lower classes; and, therefore, this evil, which had been described to us to be as dreadful as the plague in former centuries, was borne with a quiet resolution, and, by proper arrangements, stopped in its course. Those persons who are here especially called upon to assist the needy,—overseers, curators and physicians for the poor, with many of our fellow-citizens, upon this occasion set the example; and the Poor Committee certainly anticipated the general wish by dispensing with less strictness than usual, in an extraordinary time, when sickness and stoppage of business spread great misery, the benefits which flow to our sick poor through the General Institution.

When, therefore, in the beginning of 1832 this evil by degrees disappeared, the Poor Committee felt it to be its duty to discontinue its almost unbounded assistance. It resolved, therefore, on the 9th February:

- 1st. That such sick who receive 6 marks and above, weekly, from the sick club should only have the assistance of the physician but not free medicine.
- 2d. That in reference to the first article of their instructions, the physicians for the poor should be requested not to prescribe free medicine for the account of the General Institution, where, from the situation of those asking the same, it did not appear necessary.

A few weeks afterwards the most serious cases of sickness accumulated anew, especially among the lowest classes, and the demands for free medical aid increased in an unknown degree. And the Poor Committee yielded, and they were obliged to do so: strict economy would, under such circumstances, have been unjustifiable, and certainly, as the result proved, no assistance could be more to the purpose and more effectual than that afforded by the Institution.

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There remained at the end of 1831 in cure, 1,072 sick. To these came,

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HAMBURGH.

	Registered.	Not Registered.	Total.
In the 1st Quarter - -	1,056 - -	3,326 - -	4,382
2d - - - -	1,141 - -	3,917 - -	5,058
3d - - - -	1,010 - -	3,522 - -	4,532
4th - - - -	839 - -	2,580 - -	3,419
	4,046 - -	13,345 - -	18,463 being

4,000 more than in 1830, and 1,300 more than in 1831.

Of these recovered - - - -	15,844
Therefore $85\frac{8}{10}$ in a hundred, in 1831:	
$85\frac{3}{10}$ died - - - -	1,139

$6\frac{17}{100}$ in a hundred in 1831:
 $5\frac{43}{100}$, whereby it must not be forgotten, that at that time many patients were taken to the cholera hospitals, whereas in 1832 such a conveyance to the general hospital happened much seldomer.

There came into the general hospital - - - -	480
Discharged as refractory, or changed their parish - -	56
Remained in cure at the end of the year - - - -	944
	18,463

In the last quarter there was, as appears by this statement, a considerable decrease of patients; and the Poor Committee could therefore already, in the beginning of this year, take measures for limiting the number of free cures, the particulars of which will be given in our next Report.

The expenses amounted to the large sum of Court marks 64,654. 9. But if we consider the immense number of sick, and calculate that each individual costs only 3 marks 8 schillings, it will be seen that upon the whole great economy is observed.

In all the former years the patient cost upon an average more; in 1831, Court 3. 13. 5. formerly always above 4 marks.

	Court Marks.	Schgs
Among the expenses, those for medicine are of course the most considerable. These amount to - - - - -	44,609	12
This makes for each patient upon an average 2 marks 6 schgs 8 d. which is also less than in any other year. In 1831 a single patient cost 2 marks 9 schillings 8 d., formerly about 3 marks.		
13 poor Physicians received for fees - - - - -	3,900	-
7 Surgeons received (including the yearly compensation allowed them by the Poor Committee for bandages, lint, &c.) - - - - -	1,580	-
17,050 portions of sick-soup, made of meat, distributed by the Poor Physicians, at 2 schillings - - - - -	2,131	4
Of these were prepared in the City - - - - 13,760 portions		
in St. George - - - - - 2,178		
On the Stadtdeich - - - - - 1,112		
	17,050 portions	
5,350 portions of Rumford soup also distributed by the Physicians to such families to which a pecuniary assistance did not appear proper, at 1 schilling - - - - -	396	14
Wine - - - - -	425	8
Trusses and other bandages given to 51 registered paupers. 185 not registered.		
	236	
Mechanical boots to prevent the legs from becoming quite crooked, given to - 27 children of not registered paupers. 4 registered	1,952	9
	31	
To a grown up girl, whose leg was amputated, a mechanical one, which cost 60 marks - - - - -		
Baths - - - - -	1,256	10
Carried forward - Court marks -	56,252	9

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Brought forward - - -	56,252	9	
Leeches, about 32,000 - - - - -	4,546	4	Foreign Communications.
These are supplied by 18 women privileged to apply leeches, (mostly poor widows), in the city, and on the Stadtdeich, by the Surgeons.			HAMBURGH.
Deliveries - - - - -	825	6	
There were 124 persons not registered and 25 registered, together 149, delivered. Among the former there were several unmarried. According to the instructions which our Curators have received, such pregnant unmarried persons are to be given over to the Police authorities to be taken to the Poor Room; and it appears absolutely necessary to make this a rule, that the Poor Institution may not promote irregularity, the bad consequences of which are daily becoming more visible. However, it is sometimes necessary to make exceptions, when such persons, namely, which often happens, have already several children, who would be quite deserted if the mother were taken by the Police to the Poor Room, to which place they cannot take any children.			
We have still to remark, that an inquiry by the competent Curator and Poor Physician, the Overseer of the district, and the managing Overseer of the Deputation for the cure of sick paupers, must be previously made.			
For granting sick-money, (which is not here stated, because it is applied for by the Overseer of the district direct from the fund, it amounted in the last year to 4,800. 4 schillings), a Committee composed of the managing Overseer of the Deputation for the cure of sick paupers, another Overseer, two Curators and a Poor Physician, assemble every week, before which a statement by a competent Curator of every individual case and the opinion of the Overseer of the district must be laid.			
General Hospital - - - - -	1,558	8	
This institution charges ours only for the shirts which must be produced there by the paupers on their admission, at 2 marks 8 schgs a piece, and, in particular cases, costs of conveyance of the sick who must be fetched.			
Messengers, &c. - - - - -	200	12	
Printers and Bookbinders - - - - -	1,271	2	
Ct - - -	64,654	9	

Appendix (F.)

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BREMEN.

BREMEN.

ANSWERS to the QUERIES of the POOR LAW COMMISSIONERS, by *G. E. Papendick, Esq.*
His Britannic Majesty's Vice-Consul.

I. VAGRANTS.

QUESTION 1. To what extent, and under what form does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?—Answer to Q. 1. Mendicity cannot be said to prevail to any great extent in the town and district of Bremen, since relief is regularly afforded to the poor inhabitants by their respective parishes; but if they are detected begging, such relief is withheld and they are sent to the workhouse. The most common practice of beggary is by poor children, who are sent out by their parents under pretence of selling brick-dust, matches, &c., or seeking rags and bones; by journeying apprentices who may be passing through the town, and by vagabonds.

2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country, seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded, and under what regulations?—On detecting such journeying apprentices or vagabonds begging, they are sent to the workhouse, until the police furnish them with passports to their homes, when they are delivered over to the police on the Hanoverian frontier: if totally destitute, they receive an alms from the police, of 12 to 18 groats, or 9 *d.* sterling.

II. DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

1. To what extent, and under what regulations are they, or any part of their families billeted or quartered on householders?—2. or boarded with individuals?—The destitute able-bodied are bound to seek their own lodging, and cannot be billeted or quartered upon householders. If, notwithstanding their industry and good conduct, they cannot find sufficient means to pay their rent, they receive a monthly allowance in aid of the same, of from 48 groats to one dollar, or 3 *s.* 6 *d.* sterling; still less are they boarded with individuals. They must find their own provisions, and if not able, they then can have recourse to the free workhouse.

3. To what extent, and under what regulations are there district houses of industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families, and supplying them with food, clothes, &c., and in which they are set to work?—There exists but one poor-house in Bremen, in which the destitute able-bodied are received, to the number of 220, lodged, fed and clothed, for which they are bound to work, for the benefit of the Institution, as far as they are able.

4. To what extent, and under what regulations do any religious institutions give assistance to the destitute, by receiving them as inmates, or by giving them alms?—Independently of three houses for the lodging and partly providing for poor widows, free of expense, there are other buildings set apart for the reception of poor superannuated or helpless women; but chiefly a number of private institutions for the relief of poor deserving persons by testamentary bequests. Such are the Rheden, the Tiedemann, the Nonnen, the Von Bühren, &c. so called.

5. To what extent, and under what regulations is work provided at their own dwellings for those who have trades, but do not procure work for themselves?—This is done, but in a very limited degree, at the public expense, as those who have trades come under the care and superintendence of their respective guilds, whose duty and credit it is to prevent any of their fraternity coming upon the parish, and who can easily afford the means of providing them with work. Females, on application to the poor-house, may receive hemp and flax for spinning, and are remunerated accordingly.

6. To what extent, and under what regulations is work provided for such persons, in agriculture or on public works?—No such provision is customary here.

7. To what extent, and under what regulations are fuel, clothing or money distributed to such persons or their families; at all times of the year, or during any particular seasons?—Those who are registered in the poor-house list, and thus come under the superintendence and control of the parish officers, receive as long as they may require assistance,—1. A small monthly allowance in money. 2. Clothing for themselves and their families. 3. If necessary, bedding. 4. In the winter, during severe frost, fuel.

8. To what extent, and under what regulations are they relieved by their children being taken into schools, and fed, clothed and educated or apprenticed?—Means are not only afforded the poor for sending their children to school and for giving them religious instruction, but they are here compelled to do so, on pain of forfeiting all claim to parochial relief, or by other modes of punishment. That every child in the State, of whatever descent, shall be subjected to school discipline and tuition, is founded upon the principle, that no means so effectually obviates that general poverty, among the lower classes in particular, as an attention.

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attention to the developement of their minds, by which they acquire that self-confidence that stimulates exertion, and that proper spirit of independence that keeps them above want, whilst by religious instruction they are impressed with a sense of the duties and advantages of good moral conduct through life. It has ever been the prevailing opinion in this Republic, that the principal duty of the State towards bettering the condition of its poorer classes, rests upon a due regard to this school discipline, and that it tends in its practice to prevent the frequent recurrence of application for relief in the same family; the descendants of which, without such control, would habitually and irrecoverably become, in their turn, dependants upon public charity. When such children have arrived at the age of 14 or 15 years, after having been taught reading, writing, arithmetic and any other acquirement consistent with their situation, books and other materials being furnished them by the poor-house, gratis; they are, after confirmation, generally put out to service, and thus prevented from returning to the idle habits of their parents. Girls are, in like manner, often provided for. They are taught reading, writing, knitting and needlework.

9. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are the relatives of the destitute compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking charge of part of their families?—By law, the grandfathers and grandmothers, and parents are bound to feed and provide for their children and grand-children if they are able, or *vice versa*.

10. To what extent, and under what regulations are they assisted by loans?—No such loans are granted by the State; it sometimes happens in private societies, of which there are many in this town; such as the Ladies' Societies for private charities, the Union Society and others.

III. IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

1. To what extent, and under what regulations are there alms-houses or other institutions, for the reception of those who, through age, are incapable of earning their subsistence?—They are, the poor-house as before-mentioned, the houses for the reception of poor widows and superannuated females, and the Society for affording subsistence and support to the superannuated masters of merchant vessels and their families in Bremen, and at Vegesack.

2. To what extent, and under what regulations is relief in food, fuel, clothing or money afforded them at their homes?—It is only in the poor-house that relief of all kinds is afforded. In most other establishments, it is partially afforded in lodging, or in small occasional gifts of money.

3. To what extent, and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—4. or quartered or billeted on the householders?—Householders, who may make it their business to receive poor inmates, do not exist here. In some few instances, where it may be particularly required, the parish officers induce families to receive a helpless or sick person as inmate for a small gratuity. Peasants' families in the country are mostly chosen for such purposes; who (except clothing, which is granted by the poor-house), furnish every other necessary, for the monthly sum of from two to three dollars, or 10 s. 6 d. sterling.

5. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are their relatives compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking part of their families?—This duty, as has been before-mentioned, rests mutually upon the ascendants and descendants of families only.

IV. SICK.

1. To what extent, and under what regulations are there district institutions for the reception of the sick?—The sick, whose condition or whose illness being infectious does not allow them to be nursed in their own homes, are admitted, upon a certificate of the parish officer, into the public hospital and cured, free of all expense.

2. To what extent, and under what regulations are surgical and medical relief afforded to the poor at their own homes?—They who are able to remain in their own homes may receive, upon application, medical attendance and medicine gratis. The poor-house appoints, for this purpose, a physician and surgeon in each of the town districts; they are bound to look after the health of the poor, as well as to attend upon the sick, and are fed from the institution.

3. To what extent, and under what regulations are there institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick?—There is an establishment for affording soups and other aliments to the sick, maintained by testamentary bequests and voluntary contributions. Clothing and other necessities are sometimes granted the sick, at the request of the physician, from the poor-house.

4. To what extent, and under what regulations is assistance given to lying-in women at their homes, or in public establishments?—Poor lying-in women are attended in their homes, and a nurse, as well as medical attendance are provided by the poor-house, gratis.

5. To what extent, and under what regulations are there any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick?—There exist no other modes of affording public assistance to the sick. The above-mentioned are found to be sufficient.

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V. CHILDREN :

Illegitimate.

1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall ; wholly upon the mothers, or wholly upon the fathers ; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations ?—If the father of an illegitimate child can be traced, and has the means, he is bound by law in the annual payment of 16 dollars, *circa* 55s. sterling, for its support, until it shall have attained its fifteenth year. In other respects the mother must find the needful to the extent she is able.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards ?—The grandfather and grandmother, or parents of the mother of a bastard, are also bound, if necessary, to its support. The ascendants of the father are not liable.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are illegitimate children supported at the public expense ?—If the parents of illegitimate children, or the parents of the mother are incapable of supporting them, they come under the care of the poor-house. If in the country, they are provided for out of the funds there collected for such purpose. But in such cases the mothers of illegitimate children, upon a repetition of the offence, are sent to the house of correction, there bound to work for the benefit of their offspring, and to mend their conduct.

Orphans, Foundlings, or deserted Children.

4. To what extent and under what regulations are they taken into establishments for their reception ?

ORPHANS.

Legitimate children, whose parents or whose father is dead, are received in the orphan asylum, there educated and provided for.

FOUNDLINGS.

Foundlings and illegitimate are supported only out of the poor-house funds, and generally boarded with individuals in the country.

Deserted Children, whose Parents are known.

See the above.

5. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders ?—6. or boarded with individuals ?

Refer to the foregoing.

7. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them ?

With regard to what has been before said, as to the duties of ascendants and descendants, the same regulation exists here, in as far as it is applicable.

VI. CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

CRIPPLES and the BLIND.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception ?

Unless already supported by the poor-house, there is no separate establishment for them in Bremen.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders ?—3. or boarded individuals ?

If they cannot get into the poor-house, they are generally sent into the country, and maintained out of the funds of the poor-house by individuals, at from 2½ to 3½ dollars per month, *circa* 12s. sterling, independently of clothing.

4. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them ?

According to the before-mentioned regulation, as regards the duties of ascendants and descendants.

DEAF and DUMB.

There is an institution in which the poor deaf and dumb are educated and maintained at the public expense.

VII. IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception ?—For Lunatics a separate establishment is maintained, contiguous to the hospital, and under the care and attendance of its physicians.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders ?—There are two private madhouses in the country also, in which, among others, the poorer patients are maintained out of the funds of the poor-house.

3. To

3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—This takes place only with idiots or harmless patients, who are boarded with individuals in the country at the expense of the poor-house.

4. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—As before-mentioned, by the ascendants or descendants, as the case may be.

VIII. EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

1st. On the industry of the labourers?—The industry of the poor labourers maintained by the foregoing institutions is seldom much promoted, their poverty and dependance arising solely from their idle habits, since in Bremen, which is not over-populated, every man who can or who is willing to work, is sure of sufficient opportunities for employment.

2d. On their frugality?—Is not determinable.

3d. On the age at which they marry?—Early marriages are not generally complained of. The poor seldom marry under 25 years of age, and where they are unable to prove a sufficient maintenance, means are sought to prevent them.

4th. On the mutual dependence and affection of parent, children, and other relatives?—The institutions have in so far an influence on the mutual dependence of families, by affording to the parents the free education of their children, and by separating the children from their parents the moment any abuse of such indulgence is detected, as in the case of begging, loitering, &c.

5th. What, on the whole, is the condition of the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, as compared with the condition of the person subsisting on alms or public charity. Is the condition of the latter, as to food and freedom from labour, more or less eligible? (See p. 261 & 335 of the Poor Law "Extracts.")—The condition of a person subsisting on alms or public charity is generally considered less comfortable or eligible, at least every allowable contrivance is adopted that shall render it so, to that of an able-bodied and self-supporting labourer, even of the lowest class, whereby the latter may not be tempted to throw himself upon the public. Among other means resorted to, the clothing distributed at the poor-house is of a peculiar cast and colour, which prevents an application for it, unless from absolute necessity.

IX. LABOURERS, &c.

1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month, or the year, with and without provisions, in summer and in winter?—In the country, during summer, 24 groats or 1 s. sterling per diem. During winter, 18 gr. or 9d. per diem, out of which he must procure his own provisions. In town about 25 per cent. higher.

2. Is piece-work general?—Piece-work, with very few exceptions, is never paid for. Tradespeople are even expressly forbidden to pay workmen by the piece, but they may hire them for the week. Their earnings in that case are generally from 1½ to 2½ dollars, or 8 s. 6d. sterling.

3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—In the country an average labourer's earnings may be estimated at from 100 to 125 dollars per annum. In town, from 100 to 150 dollars, or 25 l. sterling per annum.

4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?—As an average estimate of the expenditure of the working classes, the following only can be given: For their dwelling from 12 to 18 dollars, or 3 l. sterling per annum. The expense for provisions would depend upon the number of heads in a family, and, in the same proportion, the expense for clothing. Direct taxes they never pay, with the exception of four per cent. on the amount of their rent. Their children can be educated, as before said, free of expense; nor have they any church expenses, but it is left to their own free will to fee their clergyman at a christening or marriage ceremony. A labourer, earning 25 l. a year, can support a wife and three children.

5. Is there any, and what employment for women and children?—For females, spinning, knitting and sewing; for children, employment in the tobacco manufactories. In the country, service in the houses of the wealthier peasants.

6. What can women, and children under 16, earn per week, in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed?—Women earn per day, in the country, during summer, 12 gr. or 6d.; during winter, 8 gr. or 4d.; in harvest time somewhat more. In town, by spinning or knitting, about 4d. per diem. Children from 12 to 16 years of age, in the tobacco manufactories, from 48 gr. to one dollar, or 3 s. 6d. sterling per week.

7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8 and 5 years respectively (the eldest a boy), expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?—May be estimated by the foregoing.

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8. & 9. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children, and if so, on what food; could it lay by any thing, and how much?—If the father's earnings average per diem 24 gr. or 1 s., the mother's 6 gr. or 3 d., and two children, together 12 gr. or 6 d., with two more children too young to work, such a family of six persons, unless afflicted by sickness or other disasters, can very well support itself. They can subsist upon potatoes, beans, buckwheat or grits and rye-bread, and twice a week upon meat or bacon. In the country, the average earnings of such a family may be estimated at about one-third less, and it can lay by annually from five to ten dollars, or 35 s. sterling.

10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?—By law, every habitation in the country let to a labourer, must have half a *morgen circa*, one-third or one-fourth of an acre, annexed to it, upon which he may grow his vegetables, &c.

11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations?—In the country, the wealthier owners of estates; in town, chiefly builders.

12. The rent of Labourers' habitations, and price on sale?—In the country, a labourer's habitation rents from 12 to 15 dollars, or 50 s. sterling; in town, from 12 to 24 dollars, or 4 l. sterling. The price on sale is ascertainable by estimating the amount of rent as at five per cent. of the capital.

13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—Not known to be the practice here.

14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?—To the town and district of Bremen, containing a population of 56,000 souls, the proportion of annual deaths is from 1,300, or 1 in 43, to 1,400, or 1 in 40.

15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?—The proportion of annual births from 1,500, or 1 in 37, to 1,700, or 1 in 33.

16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?—The proportion of annual marriages from 450 to 500 couple.

17. The average number of children to a marriage?—About four children.

18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?—Out of 1,500 to 1,700 births, from 125 to 150 illegitimate.

19. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year?—About 350.

20. Proportion of children that die before the end of their tenth year?—About 165.

21. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 18th year?—Not ascertainable.

22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—Males, between 25 and 30; females, between 20 and 25 years.

23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—Want of a sufficiency for house-keeping.

24. Extent to which, 1st. the unmarried; 2d. the married, save?—Not ascertainable.

25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—In the saving bank; the accounts and proceedings of which are from time to time advertised in the public papers.

Bremen, 23 January 1834.

G. E. Papendick,
H. B. My V. Consul.

L U B E C K.

ANSWERS to the QUERIES of the POOR LAW COMMISSIONERS, by *Wm. Lewis Behnes, Esq.*
His Britannic Majesty's Vice-Consul.

I. VAGRANTS.

QUESTIONS 1. & 2. To what extent, and under what form does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country? Is there any relief to persons passing through the country, seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded, and under what regulations?—Answer. Begging is strictly forbidden, and every person found begging is taken up by the beadle and police officers, and conveyed to the cloister or workhouse, where a reward of 8*d.* is paid for every beggar so taken up. Real mendicity, that is to say begging, as a profession, does not exist here. The principal form in which it is seen is with journeymen artisans, and little children. The former are forced by the rules of their craft to *wander*, as it is called, for a certain number of years, from town to town in search of work, in order to learn the various modes of working at their trade. Being thus compelled to travel, not allowed to remain more than a certain number of days at a place, unless immediately employed, these journeymen are of course reduced to great straits, and obliged to beg at all the houses they pass; they are mostly relieved with a trifle, with great willingness, even by the poorest classes, who look forward to their own children being in the same situation. If found begging here, they are taken to our workhouse like other beggars, but if their wander-book (which is their passport) is found in order, and nothing that is written in it indicates them to be lazy vagrants, they receive a good meal, and are dismissed with a warning to proceed on their journey directly. This wandering and asking aid is called *fighting* their way through, and not begging, nor are these journeymen looked upon in the light of beggars. The children mentioned above are generally sent out by their parents to sell matches, brick-dust, &c., and when taken up are threatened with detention there, and their parents' names are handed to the poor-overseer of their district, in order that they may be compelled to send their children to the poor-schools, and assisted if really in distress. By these means street-begging is effectually kept under.

II. DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are they or any part of their families, billeted or quartered on householders?—2. or boarded with individuals?—No such thing is known here.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there district houses of industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families, and supplying them with food, clothes, &c., and in which they are set to work?—No other institution of this kind exists here but the work and poorhouse, called the Cloister, into which, however, none are admitted but persons totally incapable of contributing to their own support, whether from drunkenness or other incapacitating causes.

4. To what extent and under what regulations do any religious institutions give assistance to the destitute, by receiving them as inmates, or by giving them alms?—We have none such, but a collection is made in all our churches every Sunday for the poor; this, however, being such a regular matter-of-course thing, yields comparatively but small sums, which are privately distributed to poor persons by the churchwardens and deacons.

5. To what extent and under what regulations is work provided at their own dwellings for those who have trades but do not procure work for themselves?—6. or for such persons in agriculture or on public works?—Every able-bodied man is supposed capable of providing for himself, and no such work or relief is afforded him. In winter many poor women are supplied with a little work by the overseers of the workhouse, who give them flax to spin. The average annual quantity thus spun is about 6,000 to 6,500 pounds, the pay for which, amounting to about 130*l.* annually, relieves about 300 poor women. The linen yarn thus spun is disposed of by lottery among the wealthier classes. No work is supplied at the public expense or by public institutions to able-bodied men, merely because they are destitute; they must seek and find it themselves, and are of course accepted and employed on public works, as far as there is a demand for them. Having no relief to expect elsewhere, they are of course spurred on to exertion, and if sober and of good character, it may be generally assumed that they find work, at least sufficient for their bare existence, since, if a man can earn but a few pence daily it will suffice to support him in this country.

7. To what extent and under what regulations are fuel, clothing or money distributed to such persons or their families; at all times of the year, or during any particular seasons?—As above stated, no relief of this kind is afforded to able-bodied men; their families, if considered destitute, may perhaps obtain the relief afforded by the poor-board to the poor generally, by means of portions of cheap food daily during the five winter months, and four times a week during the other part of the year. About 230,000 such portions are distributed annually, and bread to the value of about 60*l.* Fuel is distributed during the severer part of the winter, but money is rarely given, and only in extreme cases, never exceeding one mark, or about 14*d.* sterling a week, to the same party. Clothing forms no part of the

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relief afforded. In Lubec these various kinds of relief are partaken of by about 850 persons annually.

8. To what extent and under what regulations are they relieved by their children being taken into schools, and fed, clothed and educated, or apprenticed?—Not only are all the children of the poor admitted into the poor-schools for instruction gratis, but when relief is afforded by the poor-board, it is on the positive condition that they shall send their children to such schools. Neither food, clothing nor any further provision is afforded them, in these schools, excepting in a very few extreme cases, in which the maintenance of very young children is undertaken by the poor-board. The number of children in our poor-schools averages about 300.

9. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are the relatives of the destitute compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking charge of part of their families?—Excepting in regard to parents, who are obliged to provide for their infant children, no relative can be compelled to assist his needy relations.

10. To what extent and under what regulations are they assisted by loans?—This practice is not known here.

III. IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there alms-houses or other institutions for the reception of those who, through age, are incapable of earning their subsistence?—All persons coming fully under this head, and destitute of means for their maintenance, are taken into the poor-house of this place, and there entirely provided for; but this even the poorest persons exert their utmost to prevent, no one being desirous of going there.

2. To what extent and under what regulations is relief in food, fuel, clothing or money afforded them at their homes?—Where partial aid can enable them to maintain themselves, they are assisted by the poor-board, as stated in the Answer to No. 7, under the head of "Destitute Able-bodied;" when their entire maintenance is requisite, they must go to the above-mentioned poor-house. The number maintained in the poor and workhouse of this place (here called the Cloister) averages about 300 to 350 persons.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—4. or quartered or billeted on the householders?—5. and are their relatives compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking part of their families?—Not at all.

IV. SICK.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there district institutions for the reception of the sick?—No district institutions exist; those persons whose illness or circumstances render it necessary, are taken to the poor-house, where they are taken care of in a separate portion of the building, appropriated to the purpose of a sick ward till their recovery, and then discharged.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are surgical and medical relief afforded to the poor at their own homes?—Medical aid is afforded to the poor at their own homes, under the superintendence of a special commission emanating from the poor-board, and associated with medical men. District physicians and surgeons are appointed by this commission, and willingly execute the duty, in addition to their other practice, for a small salary; the patients receive all the necessary advice, medicines, food, fuel, &c. gratis, and about 1,300 patients are thus relieved annually, at an expense of about 420*l.* or 8*s.* 6*d.* per person.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick?—A sick ward has been established at the poor-house for the reception of such poor sick persons as cannot be properly attended to at home, and the patients taken in there receive all the requisite medicines, food, fuel, &c. but no money. The number annually received there averages from 200 to 250. No other institution of the kind exists, and the only aid otherwise afforded is from the sick-commission mentioned under No. 2.

4. To what extent and under what regulations is assistance given to lying-in women at their homes, or in public establishments?—Married women receive assistance during their lying-in, like other indigent sick persons, but they are not removed, nor is there any special institution for their reception. Indigent unmarried pregnant females are admitted into a lying-in house, kept for the purpose, and tended there till their recovery. They average about 25 annually, at an expense of about 75*l.* or 3*l.* each.

5. To what extent and under what regulations are there any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick?—There are no other modes of affording *public* assistance to the sick. Whatever may be done further is the result of private charity.

V. CHILDREN:

Illegitimate.

1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall; wholly upon the mothers, or wholly upon the fathers; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations?—The father is bound to support his illegitimate child *entirely* if he has the means. With poor persons the allowance they are compelled to make

make to the mother is of course often so small as to impose upon the latter a portion of the burden.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards?—No relative can be compelled to assist in their maintenance.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?—Illegitimate children, where the father has no means, or is absent, and the mother is unable to support them, are taken care of and maintained by a branch of the Poor Board specially appointed for that purpose. The mothers are sent to the lying-in-house mentioned under No. 4 of the preceding division, and the children are put out to board at the expense of the Board, till the completion of their fourth year, when the mothers must take the further charge of them, or they must go into the poor-house, where they are consequently brought up at the public expense, that establishment being supported by the government.

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Orphans, Foundlings, or Deserted Children.

	O R P H A N S.	Foundlings and Deserted Children.
4. To what extent and under what regulations are they taken into establishments for their reception?	A most excellent orphan-house, possessing considerable funds, arising from legacies and donations, and aided by charitable contributions and collections; maintains, clothes and educates about 150 legitimate orphans, without the aid of the state; and the children brought up there enjoy such credit in regard to morals and education, that, when old enough they are eagerly taken into the employ by such trades and families as require persons of their age.	Foundlings and deserted children are provided for by the Poor Board till the completion of their fourth year, and must then go into the poor-house, where there are generally about 200 such children.
5. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on Householders?	Not at all.	There is no other way of providing for them, nor can any other relatives but the parents be compelled to support them.
6. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?	Only during their earliest infancy; say till the completion of their fourth year.	They are all boarded with individuals till the end of their fourth year, the poor-house not taking them in, till after they are four years old.
7. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?	Not at all, with the exception of their parents.	

VI. CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception?—No special establishments exist for either of these classes, but as far as they evidently require aid, they receive assistance like other poor persons from the poor-board, or must go to the poor-house.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?—3. or boarded with individuals?—4. or are their relatives compelled to support them?—Not at all.

VII. IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception?—Idiots and lunatics are both received into an establishment for the purpose, supported by legacies, charitable contributions, and the money received for patients able to pay. Their average number is about 30, and the expense about 15 *l.* per person.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?—3. or boarded with individuals?—4. and are their relatives compelled to support them?—Not at all.

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VIII. EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

1st. On the industry of the labourers; 2d. on their frugality?—The effect of our management of the poor is certainly neither unfavourable to their industry, nor to their frugality, since the partial relief given is never so plentiful, or of such a kind, as to make them relax in their own exertions for an independent maintenance; and the aversion to going to the workhouse is so great as to make every one exert his utmost to avoid it.

3d. On the age at which they marry; 4th. on the mutual dependence and affection of parent, children and other relatives?—There are no means here of arriving at any conclusive judgment on these heads. Very young marriages seldom or ever take place among the poor, and we have no barometer by which to ascertain the state of their affections. Generally speaking they may be assumed to be as strong here as elsewhere, and to be very little influenced by our poor regulations.

5th. What, on the whole, is the condition of the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, as compared with the condition of the person subsisting on alms or public charity. Is the condition of the latter, as to food and freedom from labour, more or less eligible? [See p. 261 and 335 of the Poor Law "Extracts."]—The condition of the labouring classes living on their own earnings is considered by themselves to be far superior to that of the paupers maintained in our poor-house. The partial assistance afforded by the poor-board is chiefly directed towards aiding those who are not devoid of honest pride, and have some feelings of independence left, who consequently earn their own maintenance as far as they can, and are thus assisted in their endeavours to support themselves and keep out of the workhouse. The aid they receive is proportioned to their age and families, and is mostly granted to females; it is gratefully received, and no idea exists of ever thinking it a right. As a rule no persons fully able to work can receive assistance, they are therefore forced to seek out employment, and may be generally presumed to succeed. If they get but a moderate portion of work, very trifling earnings place them in a situation much more eligible, than that of the pauper maintained in the poor-house.

You are also requested to read the accompanying Volume, published by the English Poor Law Commissioners, and to state the existence of any similar mal-administration of the Charitable Funds of the country in which you reside, and what are its effects?—There are no such abuses known here as those detailed in the volume sent herewith.

IX. LABOURERS, &c.

1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month, or the year, with and without provisions, in summer and in winter?—The usual pay of an able working man or general labourer, not belonging to any particular trade, is about 14*d.* sterling per day without food, that is to say in the town or its immediate vicinity. Agricultural and garden labourers receive but 9*d.* per day in summer, and 7*d.* in winter; at harvest time they may perhaps get 1*s.* sterling per day. The journeymen of the different trades all receive more, but scarcely any two alike; the highest receive about 14*s.* sterling per week, and the lowest 7*s.* without board; when they are boarded and lodged they receive from 2*s.* 4*d.* to 4*s.* per week, if constantly employed. Trades that employ their men only in summer pay proportionally higher.

2. Is piece-work general?—Piece-work is very frequent in particular trades, but not generally customary. In agriculture it is very frequent, and threshing and ditching is done almost exclusively so.

3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—A mere labourer, or man of all work, might, with *full* employ, earn about 18*l.* per annum. A journeyman, taking the average of the trades at 2*s.* per day, and the year at 300 days, might earn 30*l.* per annum; agricultural labourers cannot earn more than about 12*l.* per annum.

4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?—There are no means of ascertaining this; but it may be stated that a single man could certainly live upon about 7*d.* a day, and unless given to drink probably does not spend more. The schooling of his children, when he pays for it himself, may be had for about 3*s.* 6*d.* per quarter, more or less, according to their age and including religious instruction. If he finds himself unable to pay for their schooling, he may get them admitted into the poor schools for instruction gratis.

5. Is there any, and what employment for women and children?—Women find employment as washerwomen, char-women, &c. to a small extent, but as we have no large manufactories or trades that occupy any considerable number, there is a surplus of female hands, that try to earn money by spinning or other means. Children are seldom employed here. In the country women find some employment during the harvest, but children none.

6. What

6. What can women and children, under 16, earn per week, in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed?—In the town women that are employed earn 7*d.* a day, and in one or two small card and tobacco manufactories, where a few children are employed, they earn from 1*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* per week, according to their age. During the harvest the women earn 7*d.* a day in the country, but at other times nothing, excepting in a few market gardens round the town, where they find employment at that rate, at other times also. Children are not used in any agricultural labour.

7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8 and 5 years, respectively, (the eldest a boy), expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?—Supposing the woman to be employed 50 weeks at 7*d.* per day, and four children at the medium of the above rates, say 2*s.* 2*d.* per week, they might earn together about 30*l.* annually. But it is not at all likely that they should be all constantly employed, even in the town, and in the country the wife could not earn more than 14*s.* at harvest time, at least by agricultural labour, and the children nothing.

8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children, and if so, on what food?—Certainly they could, and even comfortably, on the usual food of the poorer classes here, namely, coarse rye bread, potatoes boiled with a little bacon, fat or dripping, milk, porridge made of peas, grits or peeled barley, herrings or other cheap fish, a little butter and lard, but very seldom meat; their greatest luxury is a cup of coffee in the morning. The country labourer generally fattens a pig of about 140 lb. with the barley he gets by threshing, and thus obtains more bacon and lard.

9. Could it lay by any thing, and how much?—Such a family as the above, earning, the husband 18*l.* and the wife and children 30*l.* might lay by one-third of their income, say about 16*l.*; but such earnings cannot be calculated upon, and are very rare with the wife and children. A journeyman earning 30*l.* a year, might lay by about 10*l.* annually, if of a saving disposition, and yet maintain a wife and two or three children.

10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?—From 40 to 60 square poles, called potatoe ground.

11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations?—The owner of the farm, large or small, on which he works.

12. The rent of labourers' habitations and price on sale?—The rent of such dwellings, including potatoe ground, is estimated at from 25*s.* to 35*s.* per annum; and the value on sale from 12*l.* to 27*l.*, according to the quantity of land, situation and circumstances.

13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—Not usual, excepting sometimes near the town, when perhaps a small piece may be rented from one who has hired a larger portion. The rent is then generally about 5*s.* per 60 square poles.

14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?—In 1828, the population amounted to about 40,000 souls, and on an average of the 10 years from 1819 to 1828, both inclusive, the deaths amounted to about 700 annually, consequently $1\frac{2}{3}$ to every 100 souls.

15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?—In the same period the births averaged about 750 annually, consequently $1\frac{7}{8}$ to every 100 souls.

16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?—The marriages in that period averaged 225 annually, consequently $\frac{9}{16}$ per cent.

17. The average number of children to a marriage?—According to the above statement of 750 births to 225 marriages, $3\frac{1}{3}$ to a marriage, including the illegitimate children; the legitimate children averaged 600 annually, or $2\frac{11}{16}$ to each marriage.

18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?—In the 10 years above-mentioned, of the 750 average annual births, about 140 were illegitimate, consequently about $18\frac{2}{3}$ per cent.

19. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year?—About one in seven, or 14 per cent. died before the end of their first year.

20. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 10th year?—About 1 to $3\frac{3}{4}$ or $26\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

21. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 18th year?—About 1 to $3\frac{5}{16}$ or 30 per cent.

22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—Not to be ascertained, but certainly a much more advanced age than in England.

23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—Marriages among the poor are delayed by the necessity a man is under, *first*, of previously proving that he is in a regular employ, work or profession that will enable him to maintain a wife; and *secondly*, of becoming a burgher and equipping himself in the uniform of the burgher guard, which, together, may cost him nearly 4*l.*

24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried; 2d, the married, save?—Not to be ascertained, but that many of the poorer classes do save may be safely deduced, from the fact of the great number of small sums, say from 10*s.* to 10*l.* invested in the saving bank of this place, most of which doubtless come from servants and hard-working people.

25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—There are no means of ascertaining, but the probability is, that they are all invested in the above-mentioned saving bank.

The preceding questions have been answered with all the accuracy attainable; but the minute division of the various heads and questions has tended much to enhance the difficulty

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of procuring exact information, and renders that now given less authentic than it might otherwise have been. Upon the whole, the statement transmitted last year will afford a much more complete and general view of the subject, than the answers to these questions can convey, and is somewhat more to be relied on.

Lubeck,
the 13th of March 1834.

Wm. Lewis Behnes,
H. B. M.'s Vice-Consul.

The food given by our poor board to the indigent is likewise sold to the working classes, for one penny a portion, and is so well liked, that many hard working people go there and dine for their penny, or fetch it to their homes. It consists of the following ingredients and quantities, for 800 portions of porridge :

Peeled Barley-porridge.	Grit-porridge.	Peas-porridge.
180 lb. of peeled barley.	190 lb. of grits.	8 bushels of dried yellow (split) peas.
13 - flour.	19 - flour.	10 lb. of bacon, lard or dripping.
130 leeks.	12 - butter.	3½ - butter.
30 heads of celery.	16 - salt.	4 - onions.
16 lb. of salt.		17 - salt.
12 - butter.		30 - pea-meal.

The weekly allowance in the orphan house for 150 children, is—

1,280 lbs. of coarse rye bread.	13 lb. of lard or bacon fat.
18 - flour.	16 bushels of potatoes.
38 - butter.	1 peck of salt.
7 - treacle.	2 barrels of table-beer.
28 - peeled barley.	156 lb. of beef.
48 - barley-grits.	10 - pork.
2 pecks of dried yellow peas.	92 gallons of milk.

The total cost is about 8*l.* 15*s.* or 14*d.* per child. The annual cost for provisions averages about 2*l.* 12*s.* 6*d.* per child, and for clothing about 1*l.* 3*s.* 9*d.* per child.

The allowance in our poor and workhouse for every individual, is—

Daily -	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1\frac{1}{2} \text{ lb. of coarse rye bread.} \\ 2\frac{1}{2} - \text{ vegetables or porridge} \\ \text{such as potatoes, yellow} \\ \text{peas, green peas, dried} \\ \text{white beans, carrots, peeled} \\ \text{barley, cabbage, \&c. ac-} \\ \text{cording to the season, and} \\ \text{sometimes rice.} \\ 1 \text{ bottle of weak beer.} \end{array} \right.$	Monthly -	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1\frac{1}{2} \text{ lb. of meat, and} \\ \frac{1}{2} \text{ lb. of butter, lard or fat, to} \\ \text{cook the food with.} \end{array} \right.$
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MECKLENBURGH.

MECKLENBURGH.

ANSWERS to the QUERIES of the POOR LAW COMMISSIONERS, by *George Meyen, Esq.*
British Vice-Consul.

I. VAGRANTS.

QUESTION 1. To what extent and under what form does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?—Answer to Q. 1. Vagrants, mendicants and vagabonds are arrested by the police when found; the number may be about 400 to 450 per annum. If foreigners, they are sent out of the country.

2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country, seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded, and under what regulations?—To journeymen who are travelling, 2*d.* is allowed in the towns; and, if they stay the night, 6*d.* In the country they put up with the peasants, who give them board and lodging; but their passports must be regular, or they are subject to arrest, and are sent back to the place to which they belong.

II. DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are they, or any part of their families, billeted or quartered on householders?—2. or boarded with individuals?—Not at all.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there district houses of industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families, and supplying them with food, clothes, &c., and in which they are set to work?—There are only in some of the larger towns houses of industry to receive them; but these places are very deficient, and hardly any work is provided for such individuals, excepting spinning, or other work performed by females.

4. To what extent and under what regulations do any religious institutions give assistance to the destitute, by receiving them as inmates, or by giving them alms?—Not at all.

5. To what extent and under what regulations is work provided at their own dwellings for those who have trades, but do not procure work for themselves?—Not at all.

6. To what extent and under what regulations is work provided for such persons in agriculture or on public works?—When public works are constructing, roads for instance, such persons are sent thither. In the larger towns, destitute able-bodied are employed in preference at public works. In the country, the owner of an estate must provide work for the inhabitants belonging to it.

7. To what extent and under what regulations are fuel, clothing or money distributed to such persons or their families, at all times of the year, or during any particular seasons?—Generally no fuel, clothing or money is distributed to such persons. Sometimes private associations are formed to provide the poor with fuel at a cheaper rate when the winter is very cold. In the country, every one who gets a dwelling receives as much fuel as is absolutely necessary.

8. To what extent and under what regulations are they relieved by their children being taken into schools, and fed, clothed and educated, or apprenticed?—They are not relieved in this way. In towns, the children of the poor are instructed gratis in charity schools. In the country, the schoolmaster is likewise obliged to instruct them gratis, on their producing a certificate from the clergyman or the magistrate.

9. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are the relatives of the destitute compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking charge of part of their families?—Grand-parents and parents, their legitimate grand-children and children; and, *vice versa*, children, their parents and grand-parents. Illegitimate children are to be kept by both the parents; and the residence of the mother, not the father, decides.

10. To what extent and under what regulations are they assisted by loans?—Not at all.

III. IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there alms-houses or other institutions for the reception of those who, through age, are incapable of earning their subsistence?—There are no such alms-houses.

2. To what extent and under what regulations is relief in food, fuel, clothing or money afforded them at their homes?—In the towns they receive some money, on which, with the greatest economy, they can exist. In the country a dwelling is provided for them, with some fuel, some corn, and a little piece of land.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—This is seldom the case.

4. To what extent and under what regulations are they quartered or billeted on the householders?—Never.

5. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking part of their families?—Legitimate, ascendants and descendants; illegitimate, father and mother.

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IV. SICK.

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1. To what extent and under what regulations are there district institutions for the reception of the sick?—In the greater towns there are such houses, but of a very deficient quality; in the country there is nothing of the kind.
2. To what extent and under what regulations are surgical and medical relief afforded to the poor at their own homes?—Every place, district or town must provide for its sick, and procure them surgical and medical relief, which hardly in any instance is ever omitted.
3. To what extent and under what regulations are there institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick?—No such institutions exist.
4. To what extent and under what regulations is assistance given to lying-in women at their homes, or in public establishments?—In some of the towns there are hospitals where such women may be sent to, but it is not very general.
5. To what extent and under what regulations are there any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick?—None.

V. CHILDREN :

Illegitimate.

1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall; wholly upon the mothers, or wholly upon the fathers; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations?—The parents jointly.
2. To what extent and under what regulations are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards?—Not at all.
3. To what extent and under what regulations are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?—They are brought up at the public expense when both the parents are entirely destitute.

Orphans, Foundlings or Deserted Children.

Orphans are brought up at the public expense, boarded with some person in the same place or town.

Foundlings and Deserted Children.—No specific regulations exist in this respect; but foundlings and deserted children are very rare.

VI. CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception?—None.
2. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?—3. or boarded with individuals?—Not at all.
4. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—Legitimate, ascendants and descendants; illegitimate, father and mother.

VII. IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception?—There are two mad-houses under control of the government, and that of the magistrates at Rostock.
2. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?—3. or boarded with individuals?—Not at all.
4. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—Legitimate, ascendants and descendants; illegitimate, father and mother.

VIII. EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

1st. On the industry of the Labourers?—2d. on their frugality?—3d. on the age at which they marry?—4th. on the mutual dependence and affection of parent, children, and other relatives?—The imperfection of the foregoing institutions afford no opportunity of answering these questions.

IX. LABOURERS, &c.

1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month, or the year, with and without provisions, in summer and in winter?—An expert journeyman may gain in the towns 7s. to 10s. 6d. per week, and free boarding; in the country about two-thirds. The day-labourer in the towns from 5s. 3d. to 7s. per week; in the country, 3s. 6d. per week, a dwelling, garden, and pasture for a cow and two sheep, in summer, and provender in winter.
2. Is piece-work general?—Not general; but when adopted, is more profitable to the labourer.
3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—It is supposed that
this

this question applies only to day-labourers. In the towns the highest price is 16*d.* per diem, and if a man is diligent and frugal, his family not too large, and his wife assisting him, he may lay by 3*l.* 10*s.* per annum. In the country the women perform certain services in return for their dwelling, fuel, garden, fodder, &c., and may earn about 35*s.* ready money extra. The husband receives for threshing as much corn as will give him bread the whole year; and prices of corn have little influence on his prosperity, only in so far as he may be able now and then to sell a bushel or two. In the summer he is paid at the rate of one dollar a week, and sometimes something extra. He can lay by 40*s.* to 50*s.* inclusive of what his wife earns. If he happens to live near a forest and a town he may lay by more.

4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?—Cannot be stated accurately.

5. Is there any, and what employment for women and children?—In the country, children are made useful very early; in the summer they are wanted.

6. What can women, and children under 16, earn per week, in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed?—Children about ten years can earn two dollars per week. In winter they go to school. In the towns they find little employment.

7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8 and 5 years respectively (the eldest a boy), expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?—Enough to live upon very decently, in their way.

8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children, and if so, on what food?—Yes; on good sound food, and occasionally meat.

9. Could it lay by any thing, and how much?—Such a family can lay by from five to 15 dollars a year.

10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?—According to the quality of the land, from one-third to half an acre.

11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations?—The proprietor of the estate.

12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale?—Service performed by the women. The houses are not sold.

13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—Only what is annexed to his cottage. See Question 10.

14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?—The population of Mecklenburgh is 460,500; deaths 9,900 in 1833.

15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?—Births, 17,049 in 1833. *Quere*, if correct.

16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?—Annual marriages 3,727.

17. The average number of children to a marriage?—Four children, on an average.

18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?—Nine to one.

19. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year?—Not known.

20. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 10th year?—One-fourth before the 14th year.

21. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 18th year?—Not known.

22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—The man generally 25 to 30; the woman not much younger; as both must first gain by service enough to establish themselves.

23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—Conscription in the 22d year, and military service for six years; besides, the parties must have a dwelling, without which a clergyman is not permitted to marry them.

24. Extent to which, 1st. the unmarried; 2d. the married, save?—Unknown.

25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—In the saving banks; but persons prefer boarding to putting out money to interest.

Mecklenburgh, 5 April 1834.

Some OBSERVATIONS intended as elucidations to the ANSWERS to the POOR LAW QUESTIONS as regards *Mecklenburgh*.

IN Mecklenburgh the general principle is, that every place shall provide for its own poor, either separately or in common with others; and it must be observed,

1st. With respect to the Crown lands which are divided into districts, and every district, comprising several estates, has to provide for its destitutes.

2d. Every town must do the same, but no town is divided into districts.

3d. Every estate in the country which is the free property of a private person has the same obligation. A person buying a free estate becomes the lord of the manor, and has the right of jurisdiction, but then he is liable to provide for the destitute; hence the right of jurisdiction carries with it the liability to provide for the poor.

If a person buys an estate which is not free property but copyhold, he has not the right of jurisdiction, it rests with the lord of the manor, on whom therefore, and not on the copyholder, the obligation to provide for the poor falls.

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.

MECKLENBURGH.

To fix what persons belong to an estate or place, the following principles are laid down.

- 1st. Every one who is settled having fire and hearth.
- 2d. Every descendant belongs to the place where the last of his parents died, provided the parent was settled in that place with fire and hearth. If not,
- 3d. Such persons belong to their native place.
- 4th. Persons not settled with fire and hearth, for instance, servants belong to the place or district where they have served for 15 successive years.

The right to belong to any place, is—

- 1st. By express declaration.
- 2d. By two years residence, but only in regard to those who are settled with fire and hearth, and not with respect to their children who continue to belong to their native place, if no other place in which they have acquired a settlement can be found.

Persons not belonging to a fixed place are considered homeless, and become chargeable on the place where they may have met with an accident or fallen ill. If such persons cannot earn their living, when they are found begging or going about as vagrants, they are arrested by the police, and brought to the nearest place of jurisdiction; and if no place to which they may belong can be found out they are sent to the workhouse, where they are detained for some time, afterwards clothed in so far as it is absolutely necessary, and then sent away to seek work, of which there is no want in Mecklenburgh, if people are willing and able to do it.

The natives of this country are seldom or never homeless.

If a servant or a homeless person meets with an accident or falls ill, the magistrate of the place where it happens is obliged to provide for the person, and has a legal claim for the disbursements on the place to which the person belongs. If such a place cannot be found out, then of course no restitution can be had. Every inhabitant is obliged to pay certain poor rates, with the exception of military men, up to a certain rank, students, clerks in counting-houses and shops, assistant artisans and servants.

When the Crown lands are let, there is always a clause in the contract, to regulate what the farmer, the dairy farmer, the smith and the shepherd are to give. A day labourer pays 8*d.* yearly. The inhabitants of higher situation and public officers pay voluntarily. They ought to pay one per cent. of their income. If any one pays too little, the overseers of the poor rates can oblige him to pay more. The overseers are chosen by the inhabitants of the district.

In the towns all inhabitants pay a voluntary subscription; it ought to be one per cent. of their income. If they pay too little, the overseers can demand more. The overseers are chosen by the magistrate.

With respect to estates belonging to private individuals, the subsistence of the poor falls entirely to the charge of the proprietor, who is entitled to levy a trifling tax from all the inhabitants of the estate, equal to a simple contribution amounting to 8*d.* for a day labourer per annum, and 4*d.* for a maid servant. Few proprietors, however, levy such a tax.

Every one has a legal claim to assistance, and there is to be distinguished—

- 1st. Able-bodied persons. Work and a dwelling *must* be provided for them, the former at the usual rate, in order not to render them quite destitute, if through chicane, work should be denied to them.
- 2d. People, impotent through age, must perform such work as they are capable of, and so much must be given to them, that they can live upon it, besides a dwelling and fuel.

A father of a family 50 years old cannot be turned out of his dwelling.

Rostock, 5th April 1834.

(signed) George Meyen,
British Vice-Consul.

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P R U S S I A.

LETTER from R. Abercrombie, Esq. to J. Backhouse, Esq.

Appendix (F.)

Sir,

Berlin, September 11, 1833.

Foreign
Communications.

PRUSSIA.

IN reply to your circular despatch of the 12th August, I have now the honour to transmit the following information relative to the Administration of the Relief for the Poor in Prussia.

Throughout the whole kingdom of Prussia, the funds for the maintenance and support of the poor are raised from private charity. No law exists enabling either the government of the country, or the subordinate provincial regencies, to raise funds explicitly appropriated for the provision of the poor, and it is only when private charity does not suffice for the exigencies of the moment, that the government, or the regency, advance money for that purpose. But to enable them to do so, the amount must be taken from those funds which had been destined for other purposes, such as, for improvements in paving, lighting, or for the public buildings of a town, or for the construction of roads, or other public works.

In Prussia, each town, and each commune, is obliged to take charge of the poor that may happen to reside within them; and consequently there is no passing from one parish to another, or refusal to maintain an individual because he belongs to another parish.

In each town there is a deputation (called Armen-direction) or society for the poor, who undertake the collection and distribution of funds raised by charity. In small towns, of under 3,500 inhabitants, exclusive of military, this society is composed of the burgomaster, together with the town deputies (forming the town senate) and burghers chosen from the various quarters of the town.

In large and middle-sized towns, including from 3,500 to 10,000 inhabitants, exclusive of military, to the afore-mentioned individuals is always added the Syndic (or town accomptant), and if necessary, another magistrate. Clergymen and doctors are likewise included in the society, and where the police of the place has a separate jurisdiction from the magistrate, the president of the police has always a seat as a member of the society.

Under this armen-direction the care of the poor is confided to different sub-committees formed of the burghers, and for this purpose the town is divided into poor districts (or armenbezirke). In small and middle-sized towns, these districts are again divided into sub-districts, containing not above 1,000, or less than 400 souls. In large towns the sub-districts are to comprise not above 1,500, or less than 1,000 souls; and in these last towns several sub-districts may, if requisite, be united into one poor district or armenbezirke.

From each armenbezirke must be elected one or more of the town deputies, or burghers, according to necessity, for the management of the affairs of the poor; and it is also required that at least one of those elected should be a member of the society for the poor (or armen-direction), and these individuals are required to find out and verify the condition of the poor of their own district.

The direction of the affairs of the poor is therefore, as thus established, confided entirely to the burghers of the town, and the provision of the funds rests upon the charity and benevolence of the inhabitants.

As regards hospitals and public charities, one or more of the members of the armen-direction undertake to watch that the funds are expended according to the provisions made by the founders.

In the villages, the direction of the funds for the poor is confided to the mayor (or schültze), assisted by individuals chosen for that purpose from amongst the principal inhabitants of the commune.

This body is accountable to the councillor of the district (or land rath), who is in like manner under the jurisdiction of the provincial regency, and the whole is under the inspection of the 1st section of the Home Department.

I have now specified the authorities who control the maintenance for the poor, and who are likewise charged with the care of administering to their wants.

As regards the manner of obtaining the necessary funds, every thing is done by donations and private charity. Each house proprietor, each inhabitant of a floor or apartment, is in his turn visited by some of the members of the sub-committee of the armenbezirke, who, in return for the donation, delivers a receipt for the amount.

The donations from residents are generally monthly, and vary in amount according to the number of individuals in the family, or to the feelings of generosity of the donor. No rate or calculated fixed table exists, regulating the sum to be given by each individual or head of a family.

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.
—
PRUSSIA.

Each town being governed by its own particular laws and customs with regard to the management of its poor, and each from accidental circumstances differing from its neighbour, it is impossible to particularize any other general principle that is followed, than the establishments of the armen-direction, and of the sub-committees; which detailed information I have extracted as above from the Städte Ordnung, or town laws, as revised in 1831.

With regard to the claims of the poor, every poor person has a right to claim relief from the town or commune in which he lives. If he is not a citizen of the place where he seeks relief, he cannot be admitted into the hospitals or establishments set apart for those specific cases; he however obtains assistance from other funds, but his situation is not quite as comfortable as those who are admitted into the hospitals.

Physical incapacity is the only excuse received for not working for the benefit of the charity, during the period that an individual is receiving assistance from the armen-direction.

Such are the general principles which are at present applied to the relief of the poor throughout the kingdom of Prussia.

As an example of the nature of the amount of income, and of the expenditure for the relief of the poor, I transmit a detailed account of the income and expenditure for the years 1822, 1823, 1824 and 1825, for the town of Berlin alone.

It is to be remarked, that according to the census of 1829, the inhabitants of Berlin, (*inclusive* of the garrison, 16,000 men,) amount to 240,000 souls, and that the largest expenditure during those four years, namely, in 1825, is 232,869 dollars; deducting, therefore, the 16,000 soldiers who do not receive relief from the charity, 232,869 dollars were expended for 224,000 souls, leaving more than a dollar a head upon the whole population.

I have likewise the honour to transmit herewith a printed copy of "The Report of the concerns of the Poor of the town of Berlin, for the year 1833," as an example of the manner in which these principles are put into action as regards this capital, in the hope that it may render my explanation more clear and explicit. At page 454 of the translation, s. 23, the amount of relief which can be given to one family by a resolution of the committee, is fixed at five dollars, or nearly 15s. sterling; but in urgent cases, three dollars, or nearly 9s. sterling, may be advanced immediately, with the consent of two other members in addition to the member proposing.

At page 457, s. 68, the regulations respecting medicinal baths are laid down.

At page 464, from s. 167 to 181, are different regulations fixing the epochs at which collections are to be made in the churches, and for calling monthly meetings of the members of the armen commission.

I also transmit an account of the number of patients relieved by public charity in the years 1824 & 1825; the number of bandages, &c. in the years 1822, 1823, 1824 and 1825; and the number of medicinal baths taken during those years.

As regards the practical working of this system, I have no hesitation in affirming, that it is found universally to succeed, that the effect upon the comfort, character, and condition of the inhabitants, is first, to afford speedy and sufficient means of relief when necessary; that it prevents in a great degree false applications, inasmuch as that the districts being small, the really needy are more easily discovered; and secondly, that as no tax is fixed for the maintenance of the poor, it renders all classes more willing and anxious to assist, according to their respective means, in sustaining the funds required for the support of the poor.

As regards the provision for illegitimate children, the laws of Prussia are most severe. The oath of the mother that an individual is the father of her child, is sufficient to enforce the provisions of the law, which require, that a stated sum shall be paid for what is denominated the pains of labour, and which is calculated to defray the expenses entailed by the delivery, and that besides a fixed sum shall be paid monthly until the child has arrived at a sufficient age to be able to procure its own living.

No person can be forced to marry a woman in consequence of pregnancy, unless a document is produced, containing a promise of marriage in distinct terms, or that such a promise has been given before witnesses; but the system above alluded to of adjudging sums for the pains of labour and maintenance of the child, is applicable to all classes, and fixed scales are established which can be enforced, from the nobles inclusive down to persons of light and disreputable character.

I have, &c.

J. Backhouse, Esq.
&c. &c. &c.

(signed) R. Abercrombie.

Enclosure, No. 1,
P. 427-429.

Enclosure, No. 2,
P. 430-459.

Enclosure, No. 3,
P. 459.

Enclosure No. 1.

ACCOUNT of the RECEIPTS and EXPENDITURES of the Committee at Berlin, for the Management of the Poor FUNDS, during the Years 1822, 1823, 1824, and 1825.

RECEIPTS.

	1822.			1823.			1824.			1825.					
	Doll.	Sgr.	Pf.	Doll.	Sgr.	Pf.	Doll.	Sgr.	Pf.	Doll.	Sgr.	Pf.	Doll.	Sgr.	Pf.
1. In hand	-	-	-	106	6	1	-	-	-	4,292	11	9	8,532	16	11
2. Good debts recovered	-	-	-	19	2	1	-	-	-	48	-	-	26	17	6
3. Remains	-	-	-	2,407	11	6	-	-	-	1,617	-	2	742	21	7
4. Loans repaid	-	-	-	8,871	17	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5. Capital taken up	-	-	-	54,995	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8,833	10	-
6. Charge of capital for advantage of exchange	-	-	-	26,786	18	9	-	-	-	7,100	-	-	11,707	25	-
7. Interest upon capital due	-	-	-	3,499	24	-	-	-	-	3,751	8	9	2,983	12	3
8. Rent upon lands, hereditary and ground rent	-	-	-	445	-	-	-	-	-	445	-	-	450	-	-
9. Accidental revenues for the institutions of															
(a) The Orphan House	-	-	-	-	-	-	206	12	6	-	-	-	-	-	-
(b) The New Hospital	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	281	18	5	-	8	10
(c) The Dorethean Hospital	-	-	-	-	-	-	501	21	3	-	-	-	-	28	29
(d) The Coppen Hospital	-	-	-	-	-	-	212	15	-	97	-	-	-	111	22
10. Annual present of His Majesty the King	-	-	-	3,750	-	-	-	-	-	920	18	9	378	18	5
1. Voluntary contributions, presents, and legacies:															
(a) Present of His Majesty the King, upon the marriage of the Princess Alexandrine, of the Crown Prince, and of Princess Louise	3,000	-	-	-	-	-	3,000	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(b) Present of His Majesty, for wood	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,000	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(c) Present of Her Highness the Princess Royal	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,000	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(d) Annual contribution of His Royal Highness the Prince Royal, since the 1st April 1824	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(e) Ditto, of Her Royal Highness the Princess Royal, since ditto	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,350	-	-	-	-	-
(f) Annual contribution of H. R. H. Prince William, since 1 June 1824, 60 dollars monthly	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,350	-	-	-	-	-
(g) Ann ^l contribution of H. R. H. Prince Augustus	680	-	-	-	-	-	680	-	-	440	-	-	-	-	-
(h) Ditto, of some princes of the Royal House	116	-	-	-	-	-	116	-	-	680	-	-	-	-	-
(i) Annual contribution of the Princess Leignitz, since 1 April 1825, 30 dollars monthly	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	68	-	-	-	-	-
(k) Ann ^l contribution of the Gt. Freemasons' Lodge	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(l) Annual ditto of private individuals	200	-	-	-	-	-	200	-	-	200	-	-	-	-	-
(m) Collections in the districts (Bezirken)	165	-	-	-	-	-	160	-	-	306	-	-	-	-	-
(n) Annual ditto in the churches	12,749	29	4	-	-	-	15,985	14	1	20,546	20	1	-	6	10
(o) Product of the poor-boxes	368	3	6	-	-	-	397	29	1	556	20	9	-	23	5
	3	2	9	-	-	-	22	10	1	-	-	-	-	-	-

(continued, next page.)

(continued, next page.)

TOTAL OF EXPENDITURES

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GRAND TOTALS, together with the AMOUNT of the same in STERLING MONEY, according to the present Rate of Exchange.

	1822.			1823.			1824.			1825.		
	Doll.	Sgr.	Pf.	£.	s.	d.	Doll.	Sgr.	Pf.	£.	s.	d.
RECEIPTS	223,516	15	5	32,550	18	11	179,210	26	9	28,060	12	6
							192,682	29	3	34,192	5	9
										234,787	1	1
EXPENDITURES	219,224	3	10	31,925	16	10	170,678	9	10	27,269	17	2
							187,253	-	6	33,913	1	-

Appendix (F.)

Enclosure No. 2.

Foreign
Communications.

PRUSSIA.

Berlin.

Das hiesige städtische Armenwesen umfasst nicht allein die allgemeine Armenpflege, sondern auch folgende milde Anstalten und Stiftungen, als : das grosse Friedrichs-Waisenhaus, das Neue Hospital, das Arbeitshaus nebst Hospital, das Dorotheen-, Koppensche und Splett-haus-Hospital, die Frei-Schulen und mehrere Legaten-Stiftungen.

Die obere Leitung des Armenwesens steht der Armen-Direktion zu. Als deren Unter-behörden besorgen nach §. 179 c. der Städteordnung vom 19. November 1808 die Armen-Kommissionen die Lokal-Armen-Verwaltung in den einzelnen Armenbezirken. Neben diesen Lokalbehörden stehen die Administrationen der vorgenannten Institute, die Frei-schul-Inspektion und die Vorstände der errichteten Kommunal-Armenschulen.

Die innere Einrichtung der Armen-Kommissionen ist im Wesentlichen folgende :

1. Jede Armen-Kommission besteht aus einem Vorsteher und aus einer, der Grösse des von ihr zu verwaltenden Bezirks und der Zahl der darin befindlichen Bedürftigen, entsprechenden Anzahl von Mitgliedern, die von der Stadtverordneten-Versammlung gewählt, und vom Magistrat bestätigt werden.
2. Der Vorsteher wird von sämmtlichen Mitgliedern aus ihrer Mitte nach Mehrheit der Stimmen gewählt, und bei der Armen-Direktion zur Bestätigung in Vorschlag gebracht.
3. Die Wahl desselben muss alle 2 Jahr erneuert werden.
4. Es kann die neue Wahl auch auf den ausscheidenden Vorsteher fallen ; doch muss dessen Bestätigung bei der Armen-Direktion von neuem in Antrag gebracht werden.
5. Die Einführung eines neuen Vorstehers erfolgt im Namen und Auftrag der Armen-Direktion.
6. Dem neu eintretenden Vorsteher sind von dem abgehenden folgende Gegenstände zu übergeben, als :
 - a. das Kassenbuch, dessen Revision die Armen-Direktion zu jeder Zeit sich vorbehält ;
 - b. die Liquidation der laufenden Almosen und die Liquidation der Pflegegeld-Empfänger ;
 - c. das Journal der nicht in baarem Gelde bestehenden Unterstützungen ;
 - d. das Journal der neu eingehenden Sachen ;
 - e. das Heberegister ; dieses mit der Nachricht, bis wie weit nach demselben die Kollektengelder eingegangen und nach den produzierten Quittungen der Haupt-Armekasse an dieselbe abgeliefert worden sind ; auch, was etwa auf's Neue eingezogen worden sei ;
 - f. der eiserne Geldbestand ;
 - g. die etwa noch nicht ausgezahlten Waisen-Kost- und Pflege gelder, imgleichen die noch nicht gezahlten ausserordentlichen Unterstützungen, so wie die noch etwa vorhandenen Holz-Anweisungen und das zu Winter-Unterstützungen bestimmte baare Geld ; die nach der Liquidation der baaren Almosen und der Pflegegelder vorhanden sein sollenden Commissions-Spezial-Akten ; die General-Akten der Commission ; letztere einzeln aufgeführt ;
 - h. die Schrift über die hiesige öffentliche Armenpflege (Berlin 1828 bei G. Reimer. 321 Seiten in 8.) ;
 - i. die neueste gedruckte und hoffentlich wenigstens im Personal der Vorsteher der Armen-Commissionen im Laufe des Jahres berichtigte Nachweisung der mit der Stadt-Armenpflege unmittelbar beschäftigten Personen ;
 - k. die Armen-Ordnung vom 3. October 1826 ;
 - l. die gedruckte Zusammenstellung der gesetzlichen Vorschriften über die Verpflichtung zur Unterhaltung der Armen, und das Erbrecht der Armen-Anstalten der hiesigen Commune. 1832. 8.
 - m. die gedruckte Instruktion für die Stadt-Sergeanten vom 11. Juli 1832, so wie die der Armenwächter vom 15. Juli 1832 ;
 - n. die Ordnung, betreffend den Geschäftsgang bei den Versammlungen der Armen-Commissions-Vorsteher, vom 20. Aug. 1832 ;
 - o. die beiden Stempel, nebst dem zu jedem vorhandenen Stempel-Apparat ;
 - p. die etwanigen besondern Inventariestücke jeder Commission, und
 - q. die Formulare, mit Bezeichnung der übergebenen Anzahl Marken zu warmen Wasserbädern.

Der Uebergabe dieser Gegenstände muss in dem aufzunehmenden und der Armen-Direktion von dem neu eintretenden Vorsteher zu überreichenden Protokolle specielle Erwähnung geschehen. Auf den Grund dieses Protokolls erfolgt die Dechargirung des abgehenden Vorstehers.

7. Wenn

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Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.

PRUSSIA.

Berlin.

7. Wenn der Vorschlag eines neuen Mitgliedes, im Falle eines der bisherigen ausscheidet, oder durch vermehrte Geschäfte bei der Commission eine grössere Zahl von Mitgliedern bedingt wird, von der Armencommission ausgeht, so kann derselbe nur von der vorschriftsmässig versammelten Commission nach Stimmenmehrheit erfolgen.
8. Das Ergebniss der desfallsigen Berathung ist, mittelst des vollständig ausgefüllten und unterzeichneten Fragebogens, der Armen-Direktion zur weitem Veranlassung anzuzeigen.
9. Ist die Wahl des Vorgeschlagenen, und seine Bestätigung verfassungsmässig erfolgt, so wird der neu Gewählte zur nächsten Versammlung der Commission eingeladen, in dieser den anwesenden Mitgliedern von dem Vorsteher vorgestellt, und in deren Gegenwart mit den von ihm wahrzunehmenden Obliegenheiten bekannt gemacht. Demnächst wird er von dem Vorsteher mittelst Handschlags zu seinem neuen Amte verpflichtet und dass solches geschehen, in dem Conferenz-Protokolle nachrichtlich vermerkt.
10. Einem jeden neu eintretenden Mitgliede einer Armen-Commission werden folgende Druckschriften behändigt:
 - a. die Armen-Ordnung für die Residenz Berlin, vom 3. October 1826;
 - b. die Druckschrift über die hiesige öffentliche Armenpflege (Berlin 1828);
 - c. die Nachweisung des mit der Stadt-Armenpflege unmittelbar beauftragten Personals;
 - d. die gedruckte Zusammenstellung der gesetzlichen Vorschriften über die Verpflichtung zur Unterhaltung der Armen und das Erbrecht der Armen-Anstalten der hiesigen Commune.

Wird das Mitglied von seinem Amte entbunden, so hat dasselbe unaufgefordert diese und andre ihm amtlich zugefertigte Drucksachen dem Vorsteher der betreffenden Armen-Commission zurückzugeben, damit darüber anderweit für den Nachfolger disponirt werden kann. Es ist des Vorstehers Sache, darauf zu halten, dass dies, zur Bewirkung möglichster Ersparniss, geschehe.

11. Weder der Vorsteher der Commission, noch sonst ein Mitglied derselben, darf seine Amtsverrichtungen eigenmächtig einstellen und macht sich, falls es doch geschieht, dadurch gegen die Commune verantwortlich. Die Entlassung, wenn begründete Verhinderungen die Beibehaltung jener Aemter untersagen, muss bei der Armen-Direktion nachgesucht und abgewartet werden.
12. Jedes Mitglied ist gesetzlich auf 6 Jahre gewählt, jedoch befugt, nach 3 Jähriger Dienstzeit wieder auszuscheiden.
13. Das ausscheidende Mitglied kann aufs Neue gewählt werden und ist, wenn das Amt angenommen wird, alsdann auf's Neue auf 3 Jahre zu dessen Beibehaltung verpflichtet.
14. Das wegen seiner anderweitigen Bestätigung zu beobachtende Verfahren ist dem gleich, welches zu 4 vorgeschrieben ist.
15. Dem Vorsteher der Commission liegt es ob, darauf zu sehen, dass ein regelmässiger Geschäftsgang bei derselben Statt finde und ist er dafür verantwortlich. Zu dem Ende muss der Commissions-Bezirk möglichst gleich, nach der Zahl der inwohnenden Almosen-Empfänger, unter die Mitglieder vertheilt und das Wirken dieser Letztern genau controllirt werden. Für den letztgedachten Zweck hat der Vorsteher sich durch Lokaluntersuchungen bei den Armen davon zu überzeugen, dass Seitens der Mitglieder der Commission keine der ihnen obliegenden Pflichten, es sei nun gegen die Commune oder gegen den Armen, verabsäumt werde.

Der Umfang dessen, was die durch den wechselnden Eintritt einiger Vorsteher in die Armen-Direktion mit dieser in die engste Verbindung gebrachten Armen-Commissionen im Allgemeinen, und deren Vorsteher und Mitglieder insbesondere zu leisten haben, ist so gross, dass die Armen-Direktion in dankbarer Anerkennung des theilweise auf eine ausgezeichnete Weise, bisher Geleisteten zuversichtlich hoffen darf, auf dem bisher betretenen Wege, dem, was von der täglich schwieriger werdenden Armen-Verwaltung mit Billigkeit zu fordern ist, auch künftig entsprechen, und somit auch auf eine nachhaltige Beförderung ihrer Bemühungen durch willige und freudige Aufopferung von Kräften, Zeit und Mittel Seitens der Einwohnerschaft rechnen zu können. Möchten wir davon am Schlusse des an dem ersten Vierteljahrhundert unsrer Städteordnung noch fehlenden Jahres dankbar zu erzählen haben!

Die nachfolgende

Uebersicht der bei den Armen-Commissionen bestehenden Geschäftsführung ist aus dem Bedürfniss entstanden, eine kurze Zusammenstellung der bestehenden Vorschriften zur Anleitung neu eintretender Armen-Beamten zu besitzen, und dadurch den mannigfachen Nachtheilen zu begegnen, welche oft aus Unbekanntschaft mit den materiellen und formellen Bestimmungen erwachsen, deren Detail überdies leicht dem Gedächtniss entfällt. Diese Uebersicht soll alljährlich genau durchgesehen und geprüft werden, damit wir auf solche allein zusagende Weise zu einer unmittelbar aus dem Leben sich entwickelnden, möglichst einfachen, und wahrhaft praktischen Geschäfts-Instruktion für die Armen-Commissionen gelangen. Für jetzt möge die in den nachstehenden 13 Haupt-Abschnitten versuchte Zusammenstellung genügen.

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- I. Allgemeine Vorschriften; s. 1 bis 18.
- II. Genaue Kenntniss, Beaufsichtigung und Unterstützung der Armen, und zwar
 - a) der Bezirks-Einwohner in vorübergehender Bedürftigkeit; s. 19 bis 34;
 - b) der Almosen-Empfänger; s. 35 bis 54.
- III. Bewilligung freier Kur und Arznei, so wie unentgeltliche Verabreichung von Brillen, Bruchbändern, Bademarken, &c.; s. 55 bis 83.
- IV. Bewilligung unentgeltlicher Hülfe bei Entbindung armer Schwangeren; s. 84 bis 90.
- V. Vermittelung der Hospital-Aufnahme für geeignete Arme im Arbeitshause, Neuen Hospitale, Dorotheen-, Koppenschen- und Spletthaus-Hospitale; s. 91 bis 101.
- VI. Vermittelung der Aufnahme hilfloser Kinder in das Waisenhaus; Beaufsichtigung der im Bezirke untergebrachten Waisenhaus-Kostkinder und Unterstützung der ausschliesslich der Fürsorge ihrer Mütter anheim fallenden Kinder; s. 102 bis 124.
- VII. Bewilligung freier Schule für arme Kinder; s. 125 bis 142.
- VIII. Ausfertigung von Armuths-Attesten; s. 143 bis 148.
- IX. Anweisung auf freies Begräbniss; s. 149 bis 153.
- X. Verfahren beim Absterben unterstützter Armen, in Beziehung auf deren Nachlass; s. 154 bis 160.
- XI. Prüfung und Begutachtung der von der Servis- und Einquartirungs-Deputation der Deputation der Königl. Gewerbesteuer und der Salarienkasse des Königl. Stadtgerichts eingehenden Befreiungs-Gesuche; s. 161 bis 166.
- XII. Einziehung und Einsammeln der Haus- und Kirchen-Kollektengelder; s. 167 bis 177.
- XIII. Verminderung der Haus- und Strassen-Bettelei; s. 178 bis 181.

I. Allgemeine Vorschriften.

S. 1. Der Vorsteher empfängt sämtliche eingehende Sachen, führt ein Tagebuch darüber, deputirt zwei Mitglieder zu den Prüfungen, besorgt in der Konferenz die schriftlichen Verhandlungen und führt die gesammte Korrespondenz; er führt über sämtliche Ausgaben und Einnahmen ein Cassa-Buch und sorgt, dass die darin verausgabten Posten von dem Mitgliede, welches sie zur Zahlung an die Armen empfangen hat, in der letzten Rubrik quittirt werden. Die in der Konferenz aus dem eisernen Bestande gezahlten Gelder werden, nach Anerkennung der Richtigkeit, im Laufe des Monats aus der Haupt-Armekasse gegen unterschriebene und gestempelte Quittung erstattet.

S. 2. Der Bezirksvorsteher ist jederzeit Mitglied der Kommission, kann jedoch der speziellen Aufsicht eines Reviers überhoben bleiben, sofern er nur bei Einziehung der Kollektengelder, bei Untersuchungen, &c. wirksam ist und den Conferenzen beiwohnt.

S. 3. Die Versammlung der Armen-Kommissionen findet in der Regel an einem der letzten Tage jeden Monats Statt. In dringenden Fällen setzt der Vorsteher auch besondere Konferenzen an.

S. 4. Alle Mitglieder haben gleiche Stimme, und in zweifelhaften Fällen entscheidet die Mehrheit derselben. Sind die Stimmen gleich getheilt, so giebt die des Vorsitzenden den Ausschlag.

S. 5. Um einen gültigen Beschluss in der Monats-Versammlung zu fassen, müssen wenigstens drei Mitglieder gegenwärtig sein, einschliesslich des Vorstehers.

S. 6. Die Protokolle, Beschlüsse, Berichte, &c. werden von dem Vorsteher und allen Mitgliedern unterschrieben, die der Berathung beigewohnt haben.

S. 7. Welche Gegenstände und in welcher Form das Konferenz-Protokoll sie umfassen soll, ist durch ein Schema bestimmt.

S. 8. Ueber die nicht in baarem Gelde bestehenden Unterstützungen, als: freie Kur, freies Begräbniss, Freischule, Brillen, Bruchbänder, &c., führt der Vorsteher ein besonderes, alimonatlich der Armen-direktion vorzulegendes Journal, welches, wie das Konferenz-Protokoll, von der Kommission unterzeichnet wird.

S. 9. Bei eingehenden Unterstützungs-Gesuchen hat der Vorsteher zu erforschen, ob der Bittsteller schon früher unterstützt worden ist, und in solchen oder anderen geeigneten Fällen sich von der Unterstützungs-Registratur der Armen-Direction, dem Arbeitshause oder Waisenhaus, &c. die Akten verabfolgen zu lassen.

S. 10. Armen-Kommissionen dürfen mit auswärtigen Behörden nicht kommunizieren, haben vielmehr die Armen-Direction von dem Gegenstande vollständig in Kenntniss zu setzen und derselben das Weitere zu überlassen.

S. 11. Sie

S. 11. Sie können jedoch auf Ersuchen hiesiger Behörden, Vereine, und Einwohner über Armuths-Verhältnisse einzelner Personen Auskunft geben und solche von ihnen einziehen.

S. 12. Alljährlich wenigstens einmal, muss bei sämmtlichen im Revier wohnenden Almosen- Waisenkost- und Pflegegeld-Empfängern eine Lokal-Recherche abgehalten werden, um zu ermitteln, ob sich ihre Verhältnisse vielleicht geändert haben, und die Unterstützung vielleicht ganz oder theilweise aufhören kann. Diese Prüfung wird jedoch unter die Mitglieder der Kommission dergestalt vertheilt, dass nicht immer das Revier-Mitglied die unter seiner speziellen Aufsicht stehenden Armen allein revidirt, sondern das Mitglied für eine andere Revier-Abtheilung ihm hierbei behülflich ist, damit auf solche Weise die sämmtlichen Mitglieder nach und nach mit allen Armen des Kommissions-Bezirks bekannt werden.

S. 13. Der Armen-Kommission überwiesene Gesuche bleiben, wenn darauf ohne Weiteres abschlägiger Bescheid erfolgt ist, bei derselben, wogegen sie, im Fall frühere Verhandlungen beilagen, oder wenn sich in dem Gutachten über die Verhältnisse der Individuen der Aufbewahrung werthe Notizen befinden, an die Armen-Direktion zurück zu senden sind. Letzteres geschieht auch mit allen Suppliken, welche von der Armen-Direktion der Kommission zur Prüfung überschickt werden und mit einer Journal-Nummer der Armen-Direktion versehen sind, selbst wenn die Bittsteller durch die Kommission abschlägig beschieden worden, indem die sonst unumgänglich nöthige Rückforderung unnütze Weitläufigkeiten erzeugt.

S. 14. Gelder und Quittungen sind aus Vorsicht keinem Boten anzuvertrauen und dem Sergeanten nie über Nacht zu belassen. Ueber Zahlungen an Kommissions-Mitglieder hat Letzterer sofort Quittung zu überbringen.

S. 15. Bei Anfuhr des Winterholzes haben die Armen-Kommissionen möglichst dahin zu wirken, dass solche durch Wohlthäter ganz oder theilweise unentgeltlich erfolge. Die der Armen-Direktion über das vertheilte Brennmaterial von der Armen-Kommission zu legende Berechnung muss derselben unfehlbar spätestens Ende März eingereicht werden.

S. 16. Tag und Stunde der Monats-Konferenz ist jedesmal dem oder den Stadtverordneten, dem Bezirksvorsteher und dem Armenarzte schriftlich durch den Vorsteher bekannt zu machen; erforderlichen Falls kann auch der Armenwundarzt eingeladen werden.

S. 17. Lithographirte Zirkular-Verfügungen sind jederzeit in den Monats-Konferenzen vorzulesen und von allen Anwesenden, zum Zeichen der erfolgten Bekanntmachung, zu unterschreiben. Abwesenden Mitgliedern sind sie nachträglich zur Kenntnissnahme vorzulegen, und dann zu den betreffenden Kommissions-Akten zu nehmen.

S. 18. Diejenigen Personen, welche von Armenanstalten, milden Stiftungen und Privat-Wohlthätigkeitsvereinen, die nicht von der Armen-Direktion abhängig sind, Unterstützung erhalten, werden den Armen-Kommissionen mittelst lithographirter Extrakte namhaft gemacht. Es sind diese Personen, wenn sie ihre Wohnung wechseln, der Armen-Kommission, in deren Bezirk sie ziehen, unter genauer Angabe aller jener Verhältnisse bekannt zu machen. Zu diesem Ende ist es nöthig, dass die Armen-Kommissionen eine besondere Liste über dergleichen Individuen führen und vierteljährlich prüfen lassen, ob sie noch im Bezirk wohnen. Wird eine solche Liste nach dem Alphabet eingerichtet und fortgeführt, so erleichtert sie die Uebersicht, und ist von besonderem Nutzen, wenn dergleichen Personen sich wegen Unterstützung melden.

II. Genaue Kenntniss, Berücksichtigung und Unterstützung der Armen.

A. Bezirks-Einwohner in vorübergehender Bedürftigkeit.

S. 19. Für arm ist derjenige anzusehen, welcher weder zureichendes Vermögen, noch physische oder geistige Kräfte besitzt, um sich und seinen nicht arbeitsfähigen Familiengliedern den zum Unterhalt durchaus nöthigen Bedarf an Nahrung, Kleidung, Obdach und Feuerung zu verschaffen.

S. 20. Sind gesetzlich zur Unterstützungs-Leistung verpflichtete, und dazu fähige Verwandte vorhanden, (Seite IV. unter dem Buchstaben s.) so ist, obiger Verhältnisse ungeachtet, noch keine Verpflichtung der Commune zur Unterstützung begründet.

S. 21. Auch ist zu beachten, ob ein Armer einer mit besonderen Armen-Fonds versehenen Korporation angehört.

S. 22. Unterstützungen werden entweder durch die Armen-Kommission, und unter dringenden Umständen sofort bewilligt, oder desfallsige Anträge bei der Armen-Direktion gemacht. Die für einen Dürftigen von der Armen-Direktion einmal bewilligte Extra-Unterstützung darf nur für diesen, nicht aber zu Gunsten eines andern Bedürftigen, es sei ganz oder theilweise, verwendet werden; das Geld muss vielmehr, wenn zwischen der Zeit des Antrages und der erfolgten Bewilligung Seitens der Direktion, die Umstände des zu Unterstützenden sich verbessert haben und er der Unterstützung nicht mehr bedarf, an die Haupt-Armekasse zurückgezahlt werden.

S. 23. Bis zur Höhe von 5 Thalern darf durch Beschluss der Armen-Kommission die Familie eines Armen auf einen Monat ohne weitere Anfrage unterstützt werden; in
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dringenden Fällen ist auch der Vorsteher berichtigt, mit Zuziehung zweier Mitglieder der Kommission, Unterstützungen, jedoch nur bis auf Höhe von 3 Thlr. auf einen Monat zu bewilligen. Es muss jedoch in der nächsten Monats-Konferenz davon Nachricht gegeben werden.

S. 24. Die Zahlungen an die Armen leistet nie der Vorsteher, sondern jederzeit das betreffende Mitglied.

S. 25. Die in der Konferenz liquidirten Extra-Unterstützungen, mit Ausschluss der den Allmosen- und Pflegegeld-Empfängern bewilligten, werden in einer besondern Nachweisung zusammengestellt, welche der Armen-Direktion mit dem Konferenzprotokolle und den einzelnen Bewilligungs-Beschlüssen eingereicht wird. Vorschläge zu Unterstützungen werden in der Nachweisung vor der Linie bemerkt.

S. 26. Unterstützungen werden theils baar, theils durch Ueberweisung des Erforderlichen *in natura* geleistet.

S. 27. In dringenden Fällen der augenblicklichen Noth müssen die Armen-Kommissionen sofort Hülfe gewähren, ohne Rücksicht ob der Arme zur hiesigen Commune gehört, oder andere Personen und Communen die gesetzliche Verpflichtung haben derselben abzu-
helfen.

S. 28. In letztgedachtem Falle müssen jedoch die Armen-Kommissionen der Armen-Direktion sofort Anzeige machen.

S. 29. Was die Verhältnisse des Gesindes, der Handwerksgesellen, der Militairpersonen und deren Angehörigen, &c. betrifft, so wird deshalb auf die Seite IV. unter dem Buchstaben l. erwähnte gedruckte Zusammenstellung Bezug genommen.

S. 30. Männer, welche in den Jahren 18 $\frac{11}{12}$ bei der Berliner Landwehr gestanden, oder freiwillig sich eingestellt haben, und ihre Invalidität als Militairs nachweisen können, sind bei Ansuchung um Unterstützung an die hiesige Städtische Kommission zur Unterstützung der Freiwilligen und Landwehrmänner zu verweisen.

S. 31. In Fällen, wo ein Gesuch auf Krankheit gestützt wird, ist, ehe die Vermögens-Umstände untersucht werden, ein ärztliches Gutachten einzuholen. Der Hülfesuchende ist aber mit der Supplik selbst nicht an den Armen-Arzt zu weisen, sondern diese wird dem Letztern durch den Stadt-Sergant versiegelt zugeschickt und Ersterem bloß angedeutet: dass ihm, wenn der Arzt sich von dem wirklichen Vorhandenseyn der angeblichen Krankheit oder des Gebrechens überzeugt haben wird, unentgeltliche Hülfe geleistet werden soll, weshalb er sich am folgenden Tage, zur bestimmten Sprechstunde bei demselben zu melden habe. (Siehe s. 78.)

S. 32. Die Verrechnung der Extra-Unterstützungen an Almosen- und Pflegegeld-Empfänger erfolgt in den Monats-Liquidationen. Alle Extra-Unterstützungen, besonders die Kranken-Unterstützungen, welche auf unbestimmte Zeit und länger als einen Monat bewilligt werden, werden in den Liquidationen der Almosen- und Pflegegeld-Empfänger aufgeführt, und in denselben die Dauer der Zeit, für welche sie gereicht werden soll, bemerkt. Die betreffenden Verhandlungen bekommen ebenfalls die fortlaufende Nummer der Verhörbogen und werden erst dann zur Registratur der Armen-Direktion abgeliefert, wenn die Unterstützung aufhört. Auch erhalten die Empfänger solcher Unterstützungen den gewöhnlichen Almosenzettel, jedoch oben mit dem Vermerk: "auf unbestimmte Zeit."

S. 33. Durch Geburt, Stand, Bildung, &c. ausgezeichnete, jedoch in Folge von Unglücksfällen heruntergekommene Personen, haben wegen jener Verhältnisse keinen Anspruch auf ausgezeichnetere oder reichlichere Unterstützung; sie können jedoch aus besonderen Legaten-Fonds unterstützt werden, und es ist deshalb in einem jeden solchen Falle vollständig und unter Benutzung des neuen abgekürzten Verhörbogens an die Armen-Direktion zu berichten. Bei dergleichen Prüfungen mögen die Armen-Kommissionen bedenken, dass dergleichen Personen in der Regel noch unglücklicher sind, als andre, welche die Hülfe der Communal-Armenpflege in Anspruch zu nehmen genöthigt sind, und also bei ihrem Benehmen die Berücksichtigung jener Verhältnisse nicht vergessen, oder hintenansetzen.

S. 34. Jede Prüfung muss nach Lage der Umstände möglichst schnell, der Gründlichkeit unbeschadet, erfolgen, und die Verhandlung dann sofort an den Vorsteher zurückgehen. Es muss hierbei ganz besonders die von der Armen-Direktion am 14. April 1830 erlassene Verfügung beachtet werden, nach welcher sämmtliche im Laufe des Monats eingegangene, den deputirten Mitgliedern zur Prüfung überwiesene Sachen, welche in der Monats-Konferenz zum Vortrag kommen, wenigstens 3 Tage vorher vollständig erledigt an den Vorsteher zurückgeschickt werden sollen, damit derselbe sich von den Gutachten gründlich unterrichten und sie eben so vortragen kann.

B. Almosen-Empfänger.

S. 35. Die gesammten Verhältnisse eines Armen, der auf Almosen-Bewilligung anträgt, müssen genau ermittelt werden. Ein Protokoll (Verhörbogen) ist darüber aufzunehmen. Dieses Protokoll wird von dem Hülfesuchenden und demjenigen Mitgliede, welches dasselbe aufnimmt (in der Regel der Vorsteher) unterschrieben. Ist der Hülfesuchende des Schreibensunkundig, so sind von demselben drei Kreuze in Gegenwart eines glaubwürdigen Zeugen, zu unterzeichnen, welcher den Namen des Bittstellers zu unterschreiben und zugleich

zugleich dabei, unter Beifügung seines eignen Namens, zu bescheinigen hat, dass solches im Auftrage des erstern geschehen sei. Es ist dieses Verfahren wegen des durch den Verhörungsbogen festzustellenden Erbrechts des Armen-Fonds nothwendig.

S. 36. Die Angaben dieses Verhörungsbogens werden durch 2 Mitglieder gemeinschaftlich geprüft und das Gesuch ist von ihnen zu begutachten.

S. 37. Nach Rücksendung der Verhandlung an den Vorsteher erfolgt darauf, sofern nicht eine sofortige Unterstützung durch die Umstände nöthig wird, in der nächsten Konferenz der Beschluss.

S. 38. Als anfängliche Beihülfe eines neu aufgenommenen Almosen-Empfängers sind bisher monatlich 15 bis 20 Sgr. angenommen worden. In Fällen, wo ein höherer Betrag sofort bewilligt werden muss, sind die Gründe in dem Beschlusse der Armen-Kommission besonders auseinander zu setzen.

S. 39. Die Beschlüsse sind, wie alle andere, von sämmtlichen anwesenden Mitgliedern zu vollziehen.

S. 40. Das bewilligte Almosen unterliegt, so wie jede Erhöhung desselben, der Genehmigung der Armen-Direktion; diese erhält durch den Monatsbericht Kenntniss davon.

S. 41. Almosen werden zu Anfang jeden Monats für denselben durch das Revier-Mitglied gezahlt, und durch letzteres auf einem, jedem Armen zu behändigenden und von diesem allmonatlich vorzuzeigenden, gedruckten Almosen-Schein eingetragen. Das Almosen darf nur von derjenigen Kommission gezahlt werden, in deren Bezirk der Empfänger wirklich wohnt. Beim Jahresschlusse werden die Almosenzettel sämmtlich eingezogen, zu den Akten der Empfänger gebracht und ihnen dagegen neue Zettel gegeben.

S. 42. Almosen müssen in der Regel von dem Empfänger selbst erhoben werden; die Mitglieder sind für die Richtigkeit der Person, welcher sie Zahlung leisten, verantwortlich. Almosen dürfen nicht dem Stadt-Sergeanten übergeben werden, um sie den Empfängern einzuhändigen.

S. 43. Ueber jeden Almosen-Empfänger führt die Armen-Kommission ein besonderes Aktenstück, welches mit der in der Monats-Liquidation verzeichneten fortlaufenden Nr. zu versehen ist.

S. 44. Verlässt ein Almosen-Empfänger den Bezirk, so ist seine neue Wohnung vom Revier-Mitgliede auf dem Almosenscheine zu vermerken, und er damit an den Vorsteher zu weisen, welcher den Schein unterschreibt, und dem Inhaber desselben den Namen und die Wohnung des Vorstehers derjenigen Armen-Kommission, in deren Bezirk der Arme zieht, deutlich angeben muss, damit dieser sich bei demselben melde.

S. 45. Bei einer solchen Anmeldung, durch Abgabe des Almosenscheins, hat sich der Vorsteher zuerst gegen Quittung die Akten (Verhörungsbogen) von der früheren Armen-Kommission zu verschaffen, und solche an zwei Mitglieder zum Gutachten, nach Anleitung des den Armen-Kommissionen unterm 11. Juli 1832 zugeschickten Berichts-Formulars, zu senden.

S. 46. Bei jeder Almosen-Bewilligung bleibt zu ermitteln, ob der fragliche Arme bei einer Kranken- oder Sterbekasse oder bei mehreren betheiligt ist, auch ob er sich im Besitz eines geliehenen Arbeitsstuhls, Bettes, Spulrads oder anderer Utensilien von der Armenbehörde befindet, und ist solches und das Nähere darüber in den Akten, die geliehenen Gegenstände aber sind auf dem Titelblatte derselben zu vermerken. Auch ist es den Haus- oder Schlafwirthten solcher Almosen-Empfänger, welchen von der Armen-Direktion mit ihrem Stempel versehene Inventarien-Stücke geliehen worden sind, anzuzeigen, dass solche nicht des Miethers oder Einliegers Eigenthum sind, und demnach nicht für Miethsreste gepfändet werden dürfen. Den Vorstehern der Sterbekasse ist auch das bestehende Almosen-Verhältniss bekannt zu machen, um bei eintretendem Todesfalle zu verhindern, dass das Sterbekassengeld ohne Zuziehung der Armen-Commission ausgezahlt werde. Zur schnelleren Uebersicht wird auf dem Umschlagendeckel des Verhörungsbogens eines solchen Almosen-Empfängers, welcher bei einer Sterbekasse konkurriert, neben der Jahreszahl, ein rothes Kreuz vermerkt. Damit Ueberzeugung gewonnen werde, dass die Armen-Kommissionen wirklich untersucht haben, ob ein Almosen-Empfänger Mitglied von Sterbekassen sei, ist auf dem Umschlagendeckel der nicht mit einem rothen Kreuz bezeichneten Kommissionsakten eine rothe Null alsdann zu setzen, wenn der Almosen-Empfänger bei keiner solchen Kasse konkurriert.

S. 47. Auch bei Almosen-Empfängern findet die Bestimmung im S. 23. Anwendung.

S. 48. Jedes Mitglied führt über die von ihm auszuzahlenden monatlichen Almosen eine mit der Almosen-Liquidation übereinstimmende Liste, so dass der Abschluss der erstern dieselbe Summe enthalten muss, welche die Summen aller Revier-Listen der Mitglieder zusammen ergeben, wodurch eine Kontrolle gebildet wird. Nach Abschluss des Jahres bleiben die Revierlisten in den Akten der Kommission, wogegen deren Almosen-Liquidation in den Akten der Armen-Direktion aufbewahrt wird.

S. 49. Jedes Mitglied ist verpflichtet, die in seinem Revier befindlichen Almosen-Empfänger wenigstens monatlich einmal in ihren Wohnungen zu besuchen, damit es fortwährend über ihre Lage eine vollständige Kenntniss habe.

S. 50. In der Regel erhält jeder Almosen-Empfänger im Winter eine Unterstützung an Brennmaterial, sofern er eigene Wohnung hat; als Einlieger aber eine mässige Geldentschädigung, und zwar, bei geringer Zuverlässigkeit, in monatlichen Raten. Ist ein Armer jedoch den Tag über nicht zu Hause oder bedarf er überhaupt keiner solchen Unterstützung, so darf sie ihm auch nicht verabreicht werden, Wie es hierunter mit

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den Empfängern von Waisenkost- und Pflegegeld zu halten ist, müssen die besondern Umstände näher ergeben.

S. 51. Die Armen-Behörde hat ein gesetzliches Erbrecht auf den Nachlass eines in einer Anstalt verpflegten und darin verstorbenen Armen oder eines bis an seinen Tod aus den Armen-Fonds Unterstützten, wenn demselben das vorerwähnte Erbrecht in der vorgeschriebenen Art bekannt gemacht worden ist (S. 35); sie hat auch die Befugniß, wenn sie von jenem Erbrechte nicht Gebrauch machen will, die Erstattung aller, dem verstorbenen Armen aus Kommunalmitteln dargereichten Unterstützungen, mit Inbegriff der Begräbnisskosten, aus seinem Nachlasse zu entnehmen. In allen dergleichen Fällen ist unter Einsendung der Akten, an die Armen-Direktion zu berichten.

S. 52. Beim Absterben eines Almosen-Empfängers in der Charité, worüber der Armen-Kommission stets Nachricht zugeht, wird in Ansehung des Nachlasses so verfahren, wie bei anderen Almosen-Empfängern. (S. Abschnitt X. Verfahren beim Absterben, &c.)

S. 53. Da übrigens jeder Arme—Almosen-Empfänger und bis an seinen Tod Unterstützte oder nicht—zum Ersatz der erhaltenen Unterstützungen aller Art verpflichtet ist, so hat die Armen-Kommission an die Armen-Direktion zu berichten, wenn ein unterstützter Armer zu Vermögen gelangt, oder wenn sich unterstützungspflichtige und leistungsfähige Verwandte ermitteln lassen.

S. 54. Dasselbe ist zu thun, wenn die Armen-Kommission vernimmt, dass ein Almosen-Empfänger oder Unterstützter gegründete Forderungen oder Rechtsansprüche hat, die ihm hier oder sonst wo verweigert werden.

III. Bewilligung freier Kur und Arznei, so wie unentgeltliche Verabreichung von Brillen, Bruchbändern, Bademarken, &c.

S. 55. Anspruch auf den Beistand des Armen-Arztes und freie Medizin haben Alle, die so arm sind, dass sie beides nicht bezahlen können; ihre Vermögensverhältnisse sind daher genau zu prüfen.

S. 56. In dringenden Fällen kann zwar unter allen Umständen der begehrte Krankenschein ertheilt werden, doch nur vorläufig auf 3 Tage, und muss unverzüglich darauf die vorschriftsmässige Prüfung eintreten.

S. 57. Das betreffende Kommissions-Mitglied hat das Formular zum Krankenschein vollständig und die Nummer der Kommission besonders deutlich auszufüllen, zu unterschreiben und den Patienten damit an den Vorsteher zu verweisen, der den Schein unterzeichnet, stempelt und in eine besondere Liste einträgt. Es muss dabei die in dem Formular benannte Apotheke genau vermerkt und dem Patienten bedeutet werden, dass er das Glas oder das Gefäß, worin er in der Apotheke Medizin bekommen, bei jedesmaligem Wiederkommen nach Medizin unfehlbar mitzubringen habe.

S. 58. Bewilligt die Armen-Kommission in einzelnen Fällen nur freie ärztliche Behandlung, so ist die Stelle wegen der freien Medizin und der Aufnahme in die Charité auf dem Scheine mit der Feder durchzustreichen.

S. 59. In der Regel darf ein Schein nicht über 14 Tage, und nur bei chronischen, &c. Krankheiten auf einen Monat ausgestellt werden. Die Wahl der Apotheke bleibt dem Kranken überlassen, und wird die selbstgewählte in dem Medizinschein benannt, auf welchen dann nur die benannte Apotheke die verordneten Arzneien anfertigen darf.

S. 60. Wegen des Abschlusses der Apotheker-Rechnungen können die Anweisungen nur bis zum letzten Tage eines jeden Monats erfolgen, so dass z. B. am 29. der Schein nur noch für den 30. oder 31. gelten darf, und vom 1. des künftigen Monats ab ein neuer Schein gegeben werden muss.

S. 61. Wo mehrere Glieder einer Familie in einer und derselben Wohnung krank sind, ist nicht für jede einzelne Person ein besonderer Schein, wohl aber derselbe auf eine und dieselbe Apotheke auszufertigen. Almosen-Empfängern kann ohne vorhergehende Untersuchung freie Kur und Medizin bewilligt werden; es ist jedoch ihrer Eigenschaft als Almosenempfänger ausdrücklich in dem Scheine zu erwähnen.

S. 62. Sämmtliche Patienten sind dem Armenarzte zu überweisen, wenn nicht äussere Schäden oder Augenübel die Zuziehung des Armen-Wund- oder Augenarztes erfordern; in der Anweisung ist die Wohnung des Kranken aufs sorgfältigste und allergenaueste zu bezeichnen.

S. 63. Findet der Arzt die Absendung des Kranken nach der Charité nöthig, (wovon der Arzt die betreffende Armenkommission sofort in Kenntniss setzen muss) so verliert der Patient den Anspruch auf freie Kur und Medizin, so fern er nicht Folge leistet; mit ansteckender Krankheit behaftete Personen müssen dagegen, äussersten Falls durch polizeiliches Einschreiten, zur Charité befördert werden. Kranke, die in ihrer Wohnung nicht die zur Heilung erforderliche Wartung erhalten können, sind ebenfalls zur Charité zu senden.

S. 64. Führen zum Transport der Kranken dahin besorgt der Pächter des Leichenfuhrwesens auf Vorzeigung des ärztlichen Charité-Scheins; auch ist es dem Patienten gestattet, einen Begleiter mitzunehmen.

S. 65. Ausserdem steht im Neuen Hospital an der Waisenbrücke, im Arbeitshause und im deutschen Thurm auf dem Gensd'armen-Markte ein Tragekorb für Patienten, die ohne Nachtheil nicht gefahren werden können, auf Anweisung der Armen-Medizinalpersonen, bereit, wozu auch Träger beschafft werden.

S. 66. Wünscht ein armer Kranker in einer klinischen Anstalt behandelt zu werden, so ist auf dem zu ertheilenden Krankenscheine die Stelle wegen Aufnahme in der Charité zu unterstreichen,

unterstreichen, die Anweisung der Apotheke auf Medizin aber, so wie die Dauer seiner Gültigkeit durchzustreichen.

S. 67. Unentgeltliche Arznei kann nur auf Verordnung des armenärztlichen Personals verabfolgt werden.

S. 68. Werden vom Armenarzte russische Schwitz-, Douche-, Schwefel- und andere künstliche Bäder, die Benutzung auswärtiger Heilquellen, oder der Gebrauch der hiesigen Trinkanstalt künstlicher Mineral-Wasser verordnet, so ist über die Nothwendigkeit des Gebrauchs, so wie über die Anzahl der Bäder, unter Beifügung des armenärztlichen Attestes an die Armen-Direktion zu berichten. Die für arme Kranke bewilligte Marken zu russischen und andern künstlichen Bädern sind nicht auf ein Mal, sondern nur jedesmal 2 bis 3 Stück von der Armen-Kommission dem Kranken zu verabreichen, und muss darüber eine möglichst genaue Kontrolle geführt werden. Diejenigen Marken, welche binnen vier Wochen, von dem Kranken, auf dessen Namen sie ausgefertigt worden, nicht abgeholt oder benutzt sind, müssen durch die Armen-Kommission an die Registratur der Armen-Direktion zurückgesandt werden.

S. 69. Sind aber nur lauwarme oder kalte Wasserbäder verordnet, so hat der Arzt eine Bescheinigung über die erforderliche Anzahl an den Armen-Kommissions-Vorsteher zu senden, welcher dieselbe auf den hierzu aus der Registratur der Armen-Direktion im Vorrath zu beziehenden Formularen ausfertigt, stempelt und unterschreibt. Weisse Marken gelten für die Pochhammersche Anstalt, blaue für die Welpersche; ersterer sind die Armen-Kommissionen No. 33—56 und No. 4, und letzterer die Armen-Kommissionen No. 1—3 und No. 5—32 zugewiesen.

S. 70. Verweigert die Königl. Charité die Aufnahme eines ihr zugewiesenen armen Kranken, und kann derselbe in seiner Wohnung nicht behandelt werden, so ist hierüber bei der Armen-Direktion Anzeige zu machen.

S. 71. Diätetische Hülfsmittel der Kur, als Fleisch, Fleischbrühe, Eier, Wein, Kaffee, &c. sind auf Verordnung und Requisition des Armenarztes dem Kranken zu reichen, und ist der Geldbetrag dafür in der Nachweisung der ausserordentlichen Unterstützungen zu liquidiren.

S. 72. Für zünftige Gesellen muss in Erkrankungsfällen das betreffende Gewerk Sorge tragen.

S. 73. Die Verpflegung eines kranken Lehrlings liegt in der Regel seinem Meister, so wie eines erkrankenden Dienstboten seiner Herrschaft ob, und nur in Fällen, wo die Nicht-Verpflichtung klar nachgewiesen wird, auch gesetzlich verpflichtete und zahlungsfähige Verwandte nicht vorhanden sind, tritt die Armen-Kommission zu und veranlasst nach Bewandniss der Umstände entweder die Charité-Aufnahme, oder die häusliche Behandlung. Eben so wird verfahren, wenn Meister oder Herrschaft ihre Verpflichtung in Abrede stellen, wovon in jedem Falle der Armen-Direktion Anzeige zu machen ist.

S. 74. Wird aber ein kranker Lehrling oder ein kranker Dienstbothe zur Charité befördert, so ist, Behufs des an den Meister oder die Dienstherrschaft zu nehmenden Regresses wegen der Kosten, das Dienstverhältniss und die Zahlungsfähigkeit des Meisters oder der Dienstherrschaft auf dem Scheine zur Aufnahme in die Charité zu bemerken.

S. 75. Bei Professionisten ist auf dem Krankenscheine stets zu bemerken, ob sie Meister oder Gesellen, und in einer Privat-Kranken- oder Gesellen-Krankenkasse sind oder nicht? Letztern Falls nur steht auch ihnen für ihre Person Anspruch auf freie Medizin zu, ausserdem bloß für die Familie. Sowohl die verheiratheten als auch die unverheiratheten zünftigen Webergesellen, müssen bei der Weber-Gewerks-Gesellen-Kranken- und Sterbekasse concurriren, also ihre Beiträge zu derselben (Auflagen) entrichten, mithin auch aus dieser in Krankheits- oder Todesfällen die übliche Unterstützung erhalten. Der Altmeister ist von dem Gewerks-Assessor angewiesen, hiernach für die Zukunft zu verfahren, und der Magistrat hat nicht nur diese Massregel genehmigt, sondern auch die bisherige Observanz, nach welcher die verheiratheten Webergesellen von der Gesellenkasse ausgeschlossen waren, aufgehoben.

S. 76. Laut Circular-Verfügung vom 6. Septbr. 1831 werden in den Militair-Lazarethen nur diejenigen Individuen aufgenommen, welche noch bei den Invaliden-Compagnien stehen, mithin auch die bei dem hiesigen Invaliden-Bataillon stehenden.

S. 77. Alle übrigen mit dem Gnaden-Gehalte von 1, 2 oder 3 Thalern entlassenen Invaliden, fallen dagegen der Commune hinsichtlich der ärztlichen Behandlung und Verabreichung freier Medizin anheim. Hinsichts der, auf unbestimmte Zeit mit Vorbehalt des Rechts zum Wiedereintritt beurlaubten Individuen der Garnison- und Invaliden-Compagnien ist aber in dem Reglement für die Friedens-Lazarethe im Jahre 1826 festgesetzt: dass denselben die Aufnahme in die Militair-Lazarethe gewährt werden muss.

S. 78. Die Armen sind anzuweisen, sich in allen weniger dringenden Fällen nur in der ihnen vom Armenarzte bestimmten Stunde bei letzterm einzufinden.

S. 79. Die Armen-Kommission kann die Medizinal-Armen-Beamten über den Zustand oder die Arbeitsfähigkeit einzelner Individuen konsultiren.

S. 80. Auch steht es ihr zu, dieselben zur Ausstellung von Impfscheinen und zur Attestirung der Krankheit eines im Bezirke untergebrachten Waisenhaus- Kost- oder Pflegekindes zu veranlassen.

S. 81. Augenschwache Kranke, die einer Brille bedürfen, oder eine nicht mehr passende umtauschen wollen, zu beiden aber durchaus die Mittel nicht besitzen, sind mittelst eines Armuthsattestes, in welchem die Art des Geschäfts genau zu bezeichnen ist, dem betreffenden Armen-Arzt zu überweisen.

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S. 82. Bedarf ein Armer eines Bruchbandes, so fertigen nach erfolgter genauer Prüfung seiner Vermögens-Verhältnisse, das betreffende Mitglied und der Vorsteher eine Bescheinigung, durch Ausfüllung des vorhandenen gedruckten Formulars, aus, womit jener sich, Behufs der chirurgischen Prüfung und desfallsigen Anzeige bei dem Armen-Wundarzt meldet. Diese Bescheinigung wird hierauf nebst dem ärztlichen Gutachten durch den Armen-Wundarzt der Armen-Direktion eingereicht.

S. 83. An zünftige Handwerksgesellen kann ein Bruchband nur bewilligt werden, wenn sie durch ein Attest des Assessors ihres Gewerks nachweisen, dass sie von dem letztern diese Unterstützung nicht erhalten können.

IV. Bewilligung unentgeltlicher Hülfe bei Entbindung armer Schwangeren.

S. 84. Arme Kreissende sind an die nächstwohnende Hebamme zu weisen, welche gegen den taxmässigen Preis von 15 Sgr. die erforderliche Hülfe bei und nach der Geburt zu leisten hat.

S. 85. Die desfallsigen Rechnungen der Hebammen können, falls die Armen-Kommission von der Armuth der Entbundenen, so wie auch davon überzeugt ist, dass zur Zahlung zunächst verpflichtete bemittelte Verwandte nicht vorhanden, bei unehelichen Geburten aber der Schwängerer ebenfalls mittellos ist, ohne Weiteres aus dem Bezirksfond bezahlt, und gehörigen Orts zur Erstattung liquidirt werden.

S. 86. Wo die Hülfe eines Geburtshelfers nothwendig wird, ist die Hebamme verpflichtet, einen von denjenigen Geburtshelfern herbei zu rufen, welche Seitens der Armen-Direktion dem betreffenden Bezirk zur unentgeltlichen Hülfsleistung zugetheilt und sämtlichen Hebammen ausdrücklich bekannt gemacht worden sind.

S. 87. Nur wenn Gefahr im Verzuge ist, und die Hülfe der s. 86. erwähnten Geburtshelfer nicht zur gehörigen Zeit zu haben gewesen ist, (welches bescheinigt werden muss) soll es zulässig sein, einen andern zur Hülfe zu rufen.

S. 88. Ist in dringenden Fällen, wo nicht gleich ein Krankenschein zu beschaffen steht, sofortige Verordnung von Medizin nöthig, so hat die nächste Apotheke solche zu liefern, der Geburtshelfer auf dem Recepte aber zu bemerken, dass die Arznei für eine arme Kranke verschrieben ist. Am Ende jeden Monats hat der Apotheker solche Recepte der Armen-Kommission zur Attestirung vorzulegen.

S. 89. Werden Klystiere an weibliche Personen verordnet, so sind für jedes 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ Sgr. der Hebamme zu vergütigen.

S. 90. Melden sich arme Schwangere zur Aufnahme in die Charité Behufs ihrer Entbindung, so ist ihnen zu eröffnen, dass sie keiner schriftlichen Anweisung dazu bedürfen, sondern ohne solche im achten Monat ihrer Schwangerschaft sich bei der Charité-Administration zur Aufnahme zu melden haben.

V. Vermittlung der Hospital-Aufnahme für geeignete Arme im Arbeitshause, Neuen Hospitale, Dorotheen-, Koppenschen- und-Spletthaus-Hospitale.

S. 91. In's Hospital des Arbeitshauses werden aufgenommen: arbeitsunfähige Personen oder Krüppel, die wegen mangelnden Familien-Anhalts, selbst mit Geldunterstützungen, ausser einer Anstalt zu bestehen nicht im Stande sind, sich gleich wohl durch Verbrechen, Sittenlosigkeit, Trunk, &c. der Aufnahme ins Neue Hospital unwerth gemacht haben, ferner: Personen, die sich wegen Obdachlosigkeit oder angeblichen Arbeitsmangels, &c. freiwillig melden, bis zu ihrem anderweiten Unterkommen, desgleichen Blöd- und Schwachsinnige gutmüthiger Art, dafern sie nicht besonderer Aufsicht bedürfen, oder die Haus-Ordnung stören; wogegen Wahnsinnige und alle solche Gemüthskranke, die spezieller Aufsicht bedürfen, durch den Armenarzt und Physikus in die Irrenanstalt der Charité zu befördern sind.

S. 92. Muthwillige Bettler werden gleichfalls dem Arbeitshause überwiesen.

S. 93. Gesuche, entartete Kinder dahin zu bringen, sind an die Armen-Direktion zu richten.

S. 94. Steht Obdachlosigkeit bevor, so ist wegen Aufnahme in's Arbeitshaus an die Armen-Direktion zu berichten; ist jedoch Obdachlosigkeit schon vorhanden, so bedarf es keines Berichts, es kann vielmehr die Ablieferung an das Arbeitshaus durch den Stadt-Sergeanten oder auf andere Art sofort nebst schriftlicher Ueberweisung erfolgen.

S. 95. Zur Aufnahme in das Neue Hospital eignen sich ehelose, arbeitsunfähige, hülfsbedürftige Personen beiderlei Geschlechts von makelloser Führung, wenn sie keine zu ihrer Erhaltung gesetzlich verpflichtete und leistungsfähige Verwandte haben. Hiesige Bürger, deren Wittwen und Kinder, haben bei gleicher Bedürftigkeit den Vorzug.

S. 96. Ueber die Aufnahme entscheidet die Armen-Direktion, an welche daher stets, unter Einreichung der Akten, zu berichten ist.

S. 97. Die Verpflegung geniesst ein Hospitalit bei fortdauernder Nothwendigkeit seiner Beibehaltung und guter Aufführung, auf Lebenszeit.

S. 98. Gegen eine jährliche Beköstigungs-Summe oder ein Eintrittsgeld können auch arbeitsunfähige Personen, selbst wenn sie noch einiges Vermögen haben, in's Neue Hospital aufgenommen werden. Der Abschluss eines solchen Uebereinkommens geschieht durch die Armen-Direktion.

S. 99. Alte, wenig arbeitsfähige Personen weiblichen Standes, die einige Unterstützung von Privaten oder anderweit beziehen, einen tadellosen Wandel führen, und nur zu bestehen im Stande sind, wenn ihnen Obdach und einige Beihülfe gewährt wird, eignen sich zur Aufnahme

Aufnahme in eines der kleinen Hospitäler: in das Dorotheen-, das Koppensche- oder das Spletthaus-Hospital, wo ihnen Wohnung, freies Brennmaterial, eine monatliche Geldbeihilfe, freie Kur und Medizin in Krankheitsfällen und beim Ableben freies Begräbniss zu Theil wird.

S. 100. Auch hier hängt die Aufnahme ebenfalls von der Entscheidung der Armen-Direktion ab, und erfolgt nach Umständen unentgeltlich oder gegen Entrichtung eines Eintrittsgeldes, wovon die Aufgenommene, nach der mit ihr getroffenen Einigung, auch die Zinsen in Anspruch nehmen kann.

S. 101. Es ist aber wohl zu beachten, dass dort nur wenige Stellen vorhanden sind, und daher nur selten darauf gerichtete Anträge Berücksichtigung finden können.

VI. Vermittelung der Aufnahme hilfloser Kinder in das Waisenhaus; Beaufsichtigung der im Bezirke untergebrachten Waisenhaus-Kostkinder und Unterstützung der ausschliesslich der Fürsorge ihrer Mütter anheimfallenden Kinder.

A. Aufnahme in's Waisenhaus.

S. 102. Zur Aufnahme in's grosse Friedrichs-Waisenhaus und Unterbringung für Rechnung desselben eignen sich

- a. vater- und mutterlose Kinder, die ohne sonstige, gesetzlich verpflichtete und leistungsfähige Verwandte, arm, und christlicher Religion sind, sofern sie nicht zur französisch-reformirten Gemeinde gehören, in welchem Falle der letztern die Versorgung obliegt.
- b. arme Kinder, deren Aeltern zwar noch am Leben, aber wegen Abwesenheit, längerer gefährlicher Krankheit oder einer abzubüssenden Gefängniss-Strafe ausser Stande sind, sie zu verpflegen.
- c. Kinder, welchen in andern dringenden Fällen ein sofortiges Unterkommen beschafft werden muss.

S. 103. Soll unter solchen Umständen die Aufnahme eines Kindes erfolgen, so ist durch die Armen-Commission, wo möglich unter Einreichung des Tauf- und Impfungs-Scheins, jedenfalls aber unter Benutzung des auszufüllenden kleinen Verhörbogens, an die Armen-Direktion zu berichten, von welcher die Entscheidung abhängt.

S. 104. Es kann aber eine Armen-Commission, wenn durch Absterben der Aeltern oder auf andere Weise Umstände eintreten wodurch Kinder plötzlich hilflos werden, und weder durch Verwandte noch auf andre Weise ihre Unterbringung, selbst gegen ein mässiges Kostgeld, im Bezirke möglich ist, diese unmittelbar zum Waisenhause senden; doch darf dies nur in den dringendsten Fällen geschehen, damit eine Ueberfüllung der Anstalt vermieden werde; auch ist dann unverzüglich darüber an die Armen-Direktion zu berichten.

B. Beaufsichtigung der im Bezirk untergebrachten Waisenhaus-Kostkinder.

S. 105. Die dem Waisenhause überwiesenen Kinder verbleiben entweder darin, oder werden gegen ein monatliches Kostgeld, auf Grund eines von der Administration des Waisenhauses auf weissem Papier ausgefertigten Kotscheins, bei rechtlichen Familien und Personen untergebracht, die dann für Unterhalt, regelmässigen Besuch der Freischule, so wie für Kleidung und Erziehung Sorge zu tragen haben.

S. 106. In Krankheitsfällen steht diesen Kindern freie Kur zu.

S. 107. Das Kostgeld wird in der Regel bis zum vollendeten 14ten Lebensjahre bewilligt.

S. 108. Die Armen-Commissionen führen, von verständigen und christlich gesinnten Frauen ihres Bezirks unterstützt, nicht nur die specielle Aufsicht über die in ihren Bezirken untergebrachten Waisenkinder und sorgen für deren Wohl, sondern sie haben sich auch zu bemühen, Personen und Familien zu ermitteln, die geeignet und geneigt sind, dergleichen Kinder in Kost und Pflege zu nehmen. Sie erhalten von jedem durch die Waisenhaus-Administration veranlassten Zu- und Abgange der Kostkinder Nachricht, und notiren solchen in der ihnen zu Anfang jeden Jahres für dasselbe zugehenden Liste. Das Letztere geschieht auch, wenn ihnen von den Pflegeältern zuerst ein Umzug in einen andern Bezirk gemeldet wird. Die Armen-Commissionen haben dann auch diesen Umzug der Administration des Waisenhauses, mit Benutzung des dazu bestimmten Formulars, anzuzeigen und die Wohnungs-Veränderung auf dem Kotscheine zu bemerken.

S. 109. Die Liquidation über die Kostgelder wird allmonatlich bei der Administration des Waisenhauses, und zwar spätestens bis zum 20. eingereicht, und von derselben nach wenigen Tagen revidirt und festgestellt, der Commission zurückgesendet. Letztere erhebt alsdann die festgestellte Summe in den letzten Tagen des Monats bei der Waisenhaus-Administration, gegen die von dem Commissions-Vorsteher ausgefertigte Quittung.

S. 110. Nach dem Jahresschluss und unter Begleitung der von den Pflegeältern eigenhändig durch Unterschrift oder zu attestirende Unterkreuzung zu vollziehenden Kotscheine, welche dadurch zugleich zur Quittung über die im Laufe des Jahres gezahlten Monats-Beträge dienen, stellt der Vorsteher eine Haupt-Jahres-Quittung über die Gesamt-Summe aus, und erhält dagegen die Monats-Quittung zurück. Jede dieser verschiedenen Quittungen muss übrigens mit dem Commissions-Stempel versehen seyn.

S. 111. Das Kostgeld wird nicht von Tag zu Tag, sondern jederzeit nach vollen oder Drittel-Monaten berechnet und folglich nur vom 1ten, 10ten oder 20ten Tage des Monats ausgezahlt.

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S. 112. Einen Wechsel der Pflegeeltern darf die Armen-Commission nur innerhalb ihres Bezirks vornehmen und muss die Administration des Waisenhauses davon ungesäumt benachrichtigt werden.

C. Unterstützung der ausschliesslich der Fürsorge ihrer Mütter anheimfallenden Kinder.*

S. 113. Die Bewilligung von Unterstützungen (Pflegegeld) auf dergleichen Kinder ist fortan in die Hände der Armen-Commissionen gelegt und geschieht nach den Grundsätzen, welche auf Almosen-Empfänger Anwendung finden.

Dem zu Folge werden Mütter, die ausser Stande sind, ihre Kinder ohne Unterstützung zu erhalten, und nicht im Concubinat leben, gleich andern Armen, mit Rücksicht auf die Zahl ihrer Kinder, unterstützt.

S. 114. Diese bisher sogenannten Mutter-Kinder, die nunmehr, zum Unterschiede der Kostkinder, Pflegekinder genannt werden, stehen unter der Aufsicht der Armen-Commissionen und der mit ihnen vereinigt wirkenden Frauen. Es wird deshalb auf die besonders gedruckte und den Armen-Commissionen zugefertigte Anleitung, in Betreff der Wirksamkeit dieser Frauen, vom 19. Juli 1832 Bezug genommen.

S. 115. Für jedes Pflegekind fertigt die Armen-Commission, in deren Bezirk es sich befindet, einen Pflegeschein auf rothem Papier aus. Mit diesem und in der Regel mit dem betreffenden Kinde haben sich die Empfänger des Pflegegeldes monatlich zu demjenigen Mitgliede der Armen-Commission, welchem die Auszahlung obliegt, zu begeben, um das Pflegegeld zu empfangen. Ist die persönliche Vorstellung des Kindes nicht möglich, so muss dessen Leben oder Krankheit, bei Kindern über 7 Jahren aber der Schulbesuch auf dem Pflegezettel bescheinigt seyn.

Die erfolgte Zahlung des Pflegegeldes wird in dem Pflegeschein bemerkt.

S. 116. Gesunde und arbeitsfähige Mütter erhalten auf ein einzelnes Kind kein Pflegegeld. Haben sie deren 2, so erhalten sie nach Umständen auf eins, und bei 5 oder 6, das Pflegegeld höchstens auf 3 bis 4 Kinder; jedoch haben sie eine solche Bewilligung niemals als ein Recht in Anspruch zu nehmen, sie also nicht als etwas anzusehn, das sich von selbst verstehe und ihnen von der Commune gewährt werden müsse; es beruht vielmehr das Urtheil, ob ein Pflegegeld, und für wie viel Kinder, und auf welche derselben es zu bewilligen, lediglich auf der pflichtgemässen Ueberzeugung der betreffenden Armen-Commission von der Beschaffenheit eines jeden einzelnen Falles, und ihrem darauf gegründeten Ausspruche.

S. 117. Für Soldatenkinder, die während des activen Militair-dienstes ihres Vaters ehelich geboren sind, zahlt das grosse Militair-Waisenhaus in Potsdam Kostgeld; es muss daher in solchen Fällen dasselbe von den Müttern und Vormündern bei der Direktion des grossen Potsdamschen Militair-Waisenhauses — Wilhelms-Strasse Nr. 81 — nachgesucht werden.

S. 118. Das Pflegegeld beträgt in der Regel nie mehr als 1½ Thlr. monatlich für das Kind, es kann aber nach Umständen niedriger seyn. Für Kinder unter zwei Jahren, oder für sieche Kinder kann, bei der grössern Mühe, die ihre Wartung erfordert, auch ein höheres Pflegegeld bewilligt werden. Sobald jedoch die Umstände, welche dasselbe bedingt haben, es gestatten, ist es wieder zu ermässigen.

S. 119. Die Bewilligung des Pflegegeldes erfolgt, wenn nicht ein kürzerer Zeitraum genügt, immer nur auf ein Jahr, und die Lage der Mutter muss alsdann, bevor eine fernere Bewilligung erfolgt, auf's Neue untersucht werden.

S. 120. Vor der Bewilligung des Pflegegeldes muss stets der dazu besonders bestimmte Verhörbogen aufgenommen, so wie auch der Tauf- und Impfschein des Kindes beigebracht werden. Mit diesen 3 Documenten sind für jedes Pflegekind einzelne Commissions-Aktenstücke anzulegen, es sey denn, dass mehrere Kinder bei ihrer Mutter sich befinden, in welchem Falle für sie zusammen nur ein Actenstück einzurichten ist. Hinsichts dieser Acten ist überhaupt, und zumal bei Wohnungs-Veränderungen, das sonst bei den Commissions-Acten der Almosen-Empfänger übliche Verfahren zu beobachten.

S. 121. Sind die Pflegekinder nicht bevormundet, so ist solches der Armen-Direktion zur weitem Veranlassung anzuzeigen.

S. 122. Bedürfen sie des freien Schul-Unterrichts, so bewirkt die Armen-Commission denselben, unter Beobachtung der hierüber vorgeschriebenen Formen. (Abschnitt VII.)

S. 123. Treten Todesfälle der Kinder ein, oder verändern sich die Umstände der Mütter in dem Maasse, dass die Einziehung des Pflegegeldes unbedenklich ist, so kann die Armen-Commission gleich damit vorschreiten. Treten aber in den persönlichen Verhältnissen der Mütter, entweder wegen ihrer anderweiten Verheirathung, oder in Beziehung auf ihren Wandel oder sonstige Ursachen solche Veränderungen ein, die das zu beobachtende Verfahren, mit Rücksicht auf das Interesse der Pflegekinder, zweifelhaft machen; so ist deshalb an die Armen-Direktion zu berichten.

S. 124. Behufs der Buchung und Liquidation der für die Pflegekinder gezahlten Pflegegelder wird für das Jahr 1833 eine besondere Nachweisung den Armen-Commissionen zuge stellt, welche von dem Vorsteher in der betreffenden Monats-Colonne unterschrieben, gleich der

* Die unter C. enthaltenen Vorschriften treten erst vom 1. April d. J. in Kraft, bis dahin bleibt es also bei der bisherigen Einrichtung, wonach auch diese Kinder, wie die unter B., von der Administration des Waisenhauses abhängen.

der Almosen-Liquidation mit dem monatlichen Conferenz-Protocoll bei der Armen-Direction, zur Anweisung des Betrages, monatlich eingereicht, und nach erfolgter Feststellung, den Armen Commissionen, zur Erhebung des Betrages aus der Haupt-Armen-Kasse, zurückgeschickt wird.

VII. Bewilligung freier Schule für arme Kinder.

S. 125. Den Armen-Kommissionen liegt es ob, dafür zu sorgen, dass schulpflichtige Kinder armer Aeltern Schulunterricht geniessen und regelmässig die Schule besuchen.

S. 126. Die Schulpflichtigkeit derselben fängt observanzmässig hier mit Ablauf des 7ten Lebensjahres an, und endigt, wenn das Kind, nach dem Zeugniß seines Seelsorgers, die für seinen Stand nothwendigen Kenntnisse und Fertigkeiten erlangt hat, der Regel nach mit dem 14ten Jahre. Sollten Kinder später noch Unterricht geniessen müssen, die Eltern aber zu arm sein, diesen ihnen zu beschaffen, so ist der Armen-Direktion zur weitem Veranlassung hiervon Anzeige zu machen.

S. 127. Ausser den Armen hiesiger Stadt, (wobei jedoch s. 21. zu berücksichtigen ist) eignen sich zur Aufnahme als Freischüler die Kinder verstorbener Soldaten, welche aus dem grossen Potsdamschen Waisenhaus unterstützt werden, desgleichen die Kinder der aus dem Invalidenhaus mit Gnadengehalt entlassenen Invaliden, wenn die Aufnahme in die Garnisonschule nachweislich nicht erfolgen kann. Kinder, welche wegen unumgänglichen Broderwerbes die Tagesschule nicht länger besuchen können, sind, dafern sie zum Konfirmations-Unterricht noch unreif erklärt werden, einer Nachhülfe-Schule zu überweisen.

S. 128. Wenn gewissenlose Eltern Kinder ohne Unterricht aufwachsen lassen, muss die Armen-Kommission durch Ermahnungen, oder, wo diese nicht fruchten, durch Requisition der Polizei-Kommissarien, und äussersten Falls durch Anzeige bei der Armen-Direktion dahin wirken, dass dergleichen Kinder der Schule zugeführt werden. Ermittelt sich dabei, dass die Eltern das Schulgeld entrichten können, es aber verweigern, so ist ebenfalls zu berichten.

S. 129. Auch für den möglichst regelmässigen Besuch der Schule haben die Armen-Kommissionen auf dem vorbezeichneten Wege nachdrücklichst zu sorgen. Die ihnen monatlich zugehenden Extrakte der stattgehabten Schulversäumnisse werden dabei zum Anhalt dienen.

S. 130. Zur Aufnahme von Freischülern, deren Bedürftigkeit durch die Armen-Commissionen festgestellt worden, ist die Beibringung des Tauf- und Impfscheins erforderlich. Zur Erlangung des ersteren stellt der Vorsteher oder das damit beauftragte Kommissions-Mitglied dem Nachsuchenden ein Exemplar der dazu gedruckten Taufschein-Formulare zu, womit dieser zu dem Küster der Kirche geht, wo das Kind getauft ist; letzterer fertigt dann den Schein unentgeltlich aus. Der Vorsteher füllt hierauf das Formular eines Freischul-Scheins aus, und lässt auf dessen Rückseite die vorgedruckten Verpflichtungen durch Unterschrift des Vaters, Vormundes, &c. von diesem anerkennen.

S. 131. Der Vorsteher sammelt die im Laufe eines Quartals eingehenden Schul-Scheine, fertigt davon eine Liste, und sendet beides Mitte März, Juni, September und Dezember entweder an den Vorstand der Kommunal-Armen-Schule, oder wo eine solche noch nicht besteht, an die Freischul-Inspection (im Waisenhaus).

S. 132. Letztere weist die Schule an und sendet die Schul-Zuweisungs-Scheine dem Vorsteher zurück, um vermittelt ihrer, nach vorheriger Visirung des betreffenden Freischul-Verordneten, die Kinder der Schule zu überweisen.

S. 133. In Fällen, wo Kinder aus mehreren, zu einem Kommunal-Armenschul-Bezirk gehörigen Armen-Kommissionen nicht in die betreffende Kommunal-Armenschule untergebracht werden können, fertigt der Schul-Vorstand dieser Schule eine Nachweisung über die noch unterzubringenden Kinder an, und schickt diese mit Tauf- und Impfungsscheinen an die Freischul-Inspection zur anderweitigen Unterbringung. Diese weist nach Vorschrift die Schule an, und sendet die ausgefertigten Schul-Zuweisungs-Scheine an den Vorstand zurück, wodurch derselbe über den Verbleib der Kinder in Kenntniss gesetzt wird und demnächst der betreffenden Armen-Kommission die Schul-Zuweisungs-Scheine übersendet, um danach wie zu s. 131. zu verfahren.

S. 134. Bei Aufnahme von Freischülern ist zu erforschen, ob die Angehörigen derselben etwa im Begriff stehen, ihre Wohnung zu wechseln, in welchem Falle sie dann unverzüglich der Armen-Kommission zu überweisen sind, in deren Bezirk sie zu ziehen gedenken.

S. 135. Wenn Freischulkinder mit ihren Aeltern oder Angehörigen aus dem Bezirk, worin die ihnen angewiesene Schule liegt, wegziehen und in einem anderen entlegeneren Revier Wohnung nehmen, muss denselben der Schul-Zuweisungsschein zurückgegeben werden, mit der Anweisung, sich in ihrem jetzigen Bezirk, wegen Ueberweisung in eine Communal-Armen- oder andere Schule, an die betreffende Armen-Kommission zu wenden.

S. 136. Gehen Beschwerden über die Lehrer, oder von diesen über die Kinder ein, so müssen solche erörtert und wo möglich in Güte ausgeglichen werden. Ist dies nicht zu bewirken, so muss zur weitem Verfügung an die Armen-Direction berichtet werden.

S. 137. Entziehung von Almosen, Waisenhaus-Kost- und Pflegegeld ist zulässig, wo aller Ermahnungen ungeachtet der regelmässige Schulbesuch nicht zu bewirken steht.

S. 138. Bei den, den Kommunal-Armenschulen zu überweisenden Kindern ist in dem Falle, dass ein monatlicher Schul-Beitrag von 5—10 Sgr. entrichtet werden kann, dies auf dem Freischul-Schein zu bemerken.

S. 139. Bedarf ein Freischüler einer Bibel, so bescheinigt der Schullehrer deren Bedarf und den Schulbesuch, die Armen-Commissionen aber das Zahlungs-Unvermögen. Auf eine solche Bescheinigung verabfolgt die hiesige Haupt-Bibel-Gesellschaft (jetzt durch Herrn Prediger Schweder—Stralauer Stasse Nr. 38—Montags Vormittags von 8 bis 10

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Uhr) eine Bibel gegen Erlegung von 5 Sgr. Kinder von Almosen-Empfängern, Waisenhaus-Kost- und Pflegekinder empfangen die Bibel aber unentgeltlich.

S. 140. Gesuche um Bekleidung armer Schulkinder sind, nachdem die an Ort und Stelle abgehaltene Untersuchung solche als begründet dargethan, von der Armen-Kommission, unter Beifügung der darüber gepflogenen Verhandlungen und des Attestes des Lehrers, durch den Vater, Vormund, &c. nebst den Kindern an den Verein zur Beförderung des Schulbesuchs armer Kinder zu verweisen, welcher zu diesem Behuf den zweiten und vierten Mittwoch jeden Monats Nachmittags 5 Uhr im deutschen Dom auf dem Gensd'armen-Markt öffentliche Sitzungen hält. Auf Kinder, für welche Waisenkostgeld gezahlt wird, und auf Kinder von Almosen-Empfängern, dehnt der gedachte Verein, wegen beschränkter Mittel, seine Fürsorge nicht aus. Während der Sommermonate können in den städtischen Armenschulen die Kinder baarfuss, und in Hemdsärmeln, jedoch reinlich, erscheinen.

S. 141. Den Armen-Commissionen liegt es ob, jährlich einmal, die Verhältnisse der in dem Bezirk wohnenden Eltern solcher Kinder, welchen der freie Schulunterricht bewilligt worden ist, untersuchen zu lassen, um zu ermitteln, ob sie dieser Wohlthat auch noch ferner bedürftig sind und erhalten die Armen-Commissionen zu diesem Behuf von der Freischul-Inspection im Januar jedes Jahres ein Verzeichniss derjenigen Kinder, welchen aus ihrem Bezirk der freie Schulunterricht für Rechnung der Armen-Direction bewilligt ist.

S. 142. Diejenigen Armen-Kommissionen, welche eine Mitaufsicht über solche Parochial- und Privatschulen führen, denen Freischul-Kinder für Rechnung der Commune zugewiesen sind, werden auf die Instruction für die Freischul-Verordneten hingewiesen.

VIII. Ausfertigung von Armuths-Attesten.

S. 143. Armuths-Atteste dürfen von keinem einzelnen städtischen Beamten, und von der Armen-Kommission nur zu bestimmt vorgeschriebenen Zwecken, welche, so wie die Behörde, bei der davon Gebrauch gemacht werden soll, ausdrücklich in den Attesten benannt seyn müssen, ertheilt werden.

S. 144. Zur Erlangung von Taufzeugnissen, die bei der Vormundschafts-Behörde eingereicht werden sollen, so wie zur Niederschlagung von Gerichtskosten beim Königl. Stadt-Gerichte, und zum Erlass oder zur Stundung der Miethsteuer bedarf es dergleichen Atteste nicht; vielmehr ist der Arme anzuweisen, in dergleichen Fällen der betreffenden Behörde seine Zahlungs-Unfähigkeit vorzustellen, worauf jene das Weitere veranlasst.

S. 145. Zum Gebrauch bei den höchsten und hohen Herrschaften oder bei Privatpersonen dürfen Armuths-Atteste nur dann ertheilt werden, wenn sie von denselben in bestimmten Fällen ausdrücklich verlangt worden sind.

S. 146. Eben so wenig darf an hiesige Einwohner zum Gebrauch ausserhalb Berlins ein Armuths-Attest ertheilt werden, vielmehr ist in solchem Falle an die Armen-Direction zu berichten.

S. 147. Die von der Kommission ausgefertigten Armuths-Atteste sind mit der Firma der Armen-Kommission zu bezeichnen, von dem Vorsteher und zweien Mitgliedern zu unterschreiben und mit dem Kommissions-Stempel zu versehen.

S. 148. Auf ausdrückliches Verlangen des Predigers können an Bezirksarme, die Erlass von Kirchen-Gebühren bei demselben nachgesucht haben, z. B. bei Taufen, Kopulationen, &c. dergleichen Armuthsatteste gegeben werden.

IX. Anweisung auf freies Begräbniss.

S. 149. Beim Absterben eines Armen bewilligen die Armen-Kommissionen das freie Begräbniss, wenn zu dem letztern keine Mittel in dem Nachlasse sich vorfinden.

S. 150. Insofern die Angehörigen eines Verstorbenen sich deshalb melden, und eine Prüfung die Zulässigkeit des Gesuchs ergiebt, wird ein Frei-Begräbniss-Schein, welcher von dem Vorsteher zu unterschreiben und zu stempeln ist, ausgefertigt, und der Empfänger damit zunächst an den Küster der betreffenden Kirche gewiesen. Hat Letzterer auf dem Scheine die Eintragung im Todten-Register vermerkt, so ist der Schein durch den Nachsuchenden in der Unterstützungs-Registratur der Armen-Direction vorzuzeigen, woselbst dann die zum Begräbniss erforderlichen Anweisungen ertheilt werden. Uebrigens ist den Hinterbliebenen vor der Ertheilung des Scheines zum freien Begräbniss noch genau bekannt zu machen, dass während der sechs Wintermonate die Leichen der auf Kosten der Armenkasse zu beerdigenden Individuen zur Anatomie abgeliefert werden müssen.

S. 151. Ein theilweise freies Begräbniss ist nicht zulässig, und folglich muss Jeder für den ein solches in Anspruch genommen wird, auf dem Armen-Kirchhofe in der für Arme festgestellten Weise beerdigt werden.

S. 152. Wie es mit dem Begräbnisse derjenigen Armen zu halten, die bei einer Sterbekasse interessiren, wird später bestimmt werden.

S. 153. Begräbnisskosten für Gesinde zu bezahlen, ist keine Herrschaft verbunden. Wenn also für einen Diensthofen ein Frei-Begräbniss nachgesucht wird, so ist ein solches zwar zu bewilligen, allein die Armen-Kommission hat alsdann den Nachlass und das etwa rückständige Lohn sicher zu stellen und darüber an die Armen-Direction zu berichten.

X. Verfahren beim Absterben unterstützter Armen in Beziehung auf deren Nachlass.

S. 154. Gleich nach dem Ableben eines Almosen-Empfängers nimmt das betreffende Kommissions-Mitglied von dessen Nachlass Kenntniss, lässt ihn erforderlichen Falls in sichere Verwahrung nehmen, fertigt ein Verzeichniss darüber an, wobei der Sergeant hülfsreiche Hand leisten muss, und macht davon dem Vorsteher Anzeige.

S. 155. Etwa vorgefundene Baarschaften werden an die Haupt-Armen-Kasse, Mobilien und

und Kleidungsstücke aber mittelst einer von dem Mitgliede und dem Vorsteher vollzogenen Spezifikation mit einem Atteste des Armen-Arztes über die Beschaffenseit der Krankheit des Verstorbenen, an die Administration des Neuen Hospitals gesendet; das von derselben quittirt zurückerfolgende Exemplar wird dann mit den Personal-Akten des Almosen-Empfängers an die Armen-Direktion eingereicht.

S. 156. Hält der Arzt eine augenblickliche Vernichtung von solchen Nachlasstücken, die einen Ansteckungsstoff in sich enthalten, für nöthig, so hat die Armen-Kommission dem Revier-Polizei-Kommissarius dies mitzuthemen und der Armen-Direktion Anzeige davon zu machen.

S. 157. Der Transport der Mobilien &c. geschieht unter Begleitung des Stadt-Sergeanten durch möglichst genau zu bedingende Fuhren, wovon die Kosten in der nächsten Konferenz liquidirt und in Rechnung gestellt werden müssen, insofern sie nicht aus dem baaren Nachlasse zu bestreiten sind.

S. 158. Ist der Nachlass ganz unbedeutend oder von keinen erheblichen Werthe, so kann er den Hinterbliebenen, wenn sie seiner bedürfen, auf deren Wunsch, nach vorheriger Anfrage bei der Armen-Direktion überlassen werden.

S. 159. Ermittelt sich, dass der verstorbene Almosen-Empfänger ausser den in seiner Wohnung befindlichen Gegenständen noch anderes Vermögen besessen hat, so ist auch davon der Armen-Direktion Anzeige zu machen.

S. 160. Wegen des der Armen-Verwaltung auf den Nachlass der Almosen-Empfänger zustehenden Erbrechts, werden die Armen-Commissionen auf die s. 51. befindlichen Vorschriften hingewiesen.

XI. Prüfung und Begutachtung der bei der Servis-und Einquartirungs-Deputation, der Deputation der Königlichen Gewerbesteuer und der Salarien-Kasse des Königl. Stadtgerichts eingehenden und den Armen-Kommissionen zur Begutachtung zugewiesenen Stundungs-oder Niederschlagungs-Gesuche.

S. 161. Die von vorgenannten Behörden, &c. eingehenden Verhandlungen werden in gleicher Art behandelt wie die Armen-Sachen. Die Prüfung erfolgt ebenfalls durch zwei Mitglieder, welche die zu beantwortenden Fragen mit aller Sorgfalt zu erwägen, und die Gutachten vollständig auszusprechen haben.

S. 162. Almosen-Empfänger oder andere Einwohner, die nach sorgfältiger Untersuchung ihnen gleichgestellt werden müssen, sind von Mieths-Abgaben frei.

S. 163. Letzteres gilt aber nur für den Theil der Wohnung, wofür sie selbst die Miethe aufzubringen haben, nicht aber für das Quantum, was durch Aftermieter oder Einlieger aufkommt, sofern sich diese nicht in gleichem Armuths-Verhältniss befinden oder zu den steuerfreien Personen gehören.

S. 164. Fertigt die Servis-Deputation der Armen-Kommission ein Verzeichniss der bisher von der Mieths-steuer Befreiten zum Gutachten über die fernere Befreiung zu, so sind die Verhältnisse jedes Einzelnen genau zu erforschen und in der betreffenden Colonne zu begutachten. Die etwa anderweit noch im Bezirke vorhandenen Einwohner, bei welchen eine Steuer-Befreiung nothwendig erscheint und vollständig gerechtfertigt werden kann, hat die Armen-Commission in dem Verzeichnisse nachzutragen.

S. 165. Krankheit, Nahrungslosigkeit oder sonst ausserordentliche Bedrängnisse, rechtfertigen einen Antrag auf periodische Mieths-Steuer-Befreiung, Stundung von Prozesskosten &c.

S. 166. Bei den Gewerbe-Steuer-Begutachtungen ist niemals das Nahrungs- oder Gewerbs-Verhältniss, sondern lediglich das Armuths-Verhältniss zu berücksichtigen.

XII. Einsammlung und Berechnung der Haus- und Kirchen-Kollekten-Gelder.

S. 167. Bei den immer bedeutender werdenden Ausgaben der Haupt-Armen-Kasse ist mit Eifer dahin zu wirken, dass die freiwilligen Kollekten-Gelder-Beiträge der Einwohner sich nicht nur erhalten, oder verringern, sondern möglichst vermehrt werden.

S. 168. Halbjährig ist das Heberegister zu revidiren und zu prüfen, ob ausser den Beitragenden nicht noch vermögende und namentlich ihrer Standes-Verhältnisse wegen gesetzlich von der Mieths-Steuer befreite Personen im Bezirk vorhanden sind, von welchen ein Beitrag erlangt werden könnte, oder ein bereits bewilligter zu erhöhen seyn dürfte.

S. 169. Die Einsammlung erfolgt monatlich durch den Stadt-Sergeanten, und ein Mitglied (in der Regel der Bezirksvorsteher) fertigt unter Mit-Unterschrift des Kommissions-Vorstehers, die Quittungen nach Anleitung des Kollektengelder-Buchs (Heberegisters) aus.

S. 170. Nicht honorirte Quittungen müssen zurückgeliefert, und bei erfolgten Wohnungs-Veränderungen mittelst Abmeldung—nach dem lithographirten Formulare—der betreffenden Armen-Kommission übersandt werden. Letztere bescheinigt die Anmeldung auf der Quittung, und remittirt sie, um als Belag des Minus im Heberegister zu dienen.

S. 171. Bei Einlieferung der Kollektengelder, die spätestens 12 Tage nach Ablauf eines Monats bei der Haupt-Armen-Kasse erfolgen muss, sind jederzeit der Lieferzettel (welchen der Vorsteher und ein anderweitig bei Einziehung der Collecten beschäftigtes Mitglied zu vollziehen haben) das Heberegister und der Quittungs-Bogen bei der Armen-Direktion einzureichen. Auch abschlägliche Zahlungen in runden Summen können zur Hauptarmen-Kasse geschickt werden.

S. 172. Kollektengelder dürfen nie zu Ausgaben für den Bezirk verwendet werden.

S. 173. In sämtlichen Kirchen wird am zweiten Osterfeiertage und am Gedächtnistage der Verstorbenen (im November) des Vor- und Nachmittags für die Armen und die Armen-Schulen durch die Armen-Kommissionen kollektirt.

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S. 174. Nach dem hierüber festgestellten Turnus haben gewöhnlich je zwei und zwei Armen-Kommissionen dies Geschäft durch ausreichende Besetzung der Kirchthuren zu besorgen.

S. 175. Die Einnahme wird nach beendigtem Gottesdienste in der Sakristei in Gegenwart des Predigers ausgezählt. Das über den Betrag aufzunehmende Protokoll wird von den anwesenden Mitgliedern und dem Prediger unterzeichnet. Des folgenden Tages werden die Gelder von der in dem Turnus zuerst genannten Armen-Kommission mit dem Protokolle an die Armen-Direktion abgesendet.

S. 176. Ausser den gewöhnlichen Kollektengeldern dürfen die Armen-Kommissionen ohne ausdrückliche Genehmigung der Armen-Direktion, keine Privatsammlung veranstalten. Auch ist den Stadt-Sergeanten untersagt, auf Bücher, Bilder u. s. w. Subscriptionen zu sammeln oder dergleichen Gegenstände zum Verkauf den Bewohnern des Bezirks anzubieten, wenn sie ihnen von Privat-Personen, zum Besten des Armenfonds oder eines Privat-Vereins übergeben werden, ohne hierzu durch die Armen-Direktion den Auftrag erhalten zu haben.

S. 177. Gehen einer Armen-Kommission irgend woher Gelder für einen bestimmten Armen oder einen bestimmten Zweck zur Verwendung zu, so müssen dergleichen Gelder im Kassenbuche, gleich den aus der Haupt-Armen-Kasse empfangenen Geldern, in Einnahme und Ausgabe nachgewiesen werden und nach der Bestimmung des Einsenders gewissenhaft verwendet werden. Sind an dergleichen Bewilligungen Bedingungen geknüpft, welche der Armen-Kommission bedenklich scheinen, so ist deshalb an die Armen-Direktion zu berichten.

XIII. Verminderung der Strassen- und Haus-Bettelei.

S. 178. Vorsteher und Mitglieder der Armen-Kommissionen haben ihre Wirksamkeit möglichst dahin zu richten, dass ihre Mitbürger vermocht werden, alle von Bettlern vorgezeigten Schriften, Atteste &c. zurückzubehalten, und an die Armen-Kommission, in deren Bezirk sie wohnen, einzuliefern, die Bettler selbst aber zur Prüfung ihrer Lage dorthin zu weisen.

S. 179. Almosen- und Pflegegeld-Empfängern ist das Betteln bei Verlust des Almosens und Pflegegelds zu untersagen.

S. 180. Es ist die Pflicht der Stadt-Sergeanten auf Bettler zu achten, und sie im Betretungsfalle zu verhaften, was ihnen daher öfters in Erinnerung gebracht werden muss.

S. 181. Es ist zu wünschen, dass es den Bemühungen der Armen-Commissionen gelingen möge, diejenigen Mitbürger und Einwohner, welche monatlich oder in anderen Fristen kleinere oder grössere Unterstützungen in den Häusern und Läden austheilen, dahin zu vermögen, dass sie diese zur Beförderung der demoralisirenden Bettelei gereichenden Spenden einstellen.

Berlin, den 1sten Januar 1833.

Translation of Enclosure No. 2.

THE poor laws regulations of this city extend not only over the general administration, but also over the following benevolent institutions and foundations, viz. the Frederick Orphan Asylum, the New Hospital, the Workhouse and Hospital, the Dorothy Hospital, the Koppen Hospital, the Spletthaus Hospital, the Free Schools, and several endowed institutions.

The supreme management of the poor laws regulations belongs to the overseers of the poor, and the inferior authorities are the commissioners for the relief of the poor, who, by Article 179 of the City Ordinance of the 19th November 1808, are appointed to the local administration in each separate district; independent of those local authorities, there are the administrations for the before-mentioned institutions, inspectors of the free-schools, and the principals of the existing public schools for poor children.

The arrangements of the commissions for the relief of the poor are briefly as follows :

1. Each commission for the poor consists of a chairman and a certain number of members, proportionate to the extent of the district under its administration and to the number of paupers therein residing; which members are elected by the assembly of the district commissions, and confirmed by the magistrate.
2. The chairman is elected by the whole of the members from amongst themselves, by a majority of votes, and afterwards proposed to the directors of the poor for confirmation.
3. The election must be renewed every two years.
4. On the chairman going out office, should he be re-elected, it is legal, but he must be again proposed to the directors of the poor for confirmation.
5. The appointment of a new chairman takes place in the name and at the request of the directors of the poor.

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6. The following items are to be delivered to the new chairman by the one going out of office, viz.:

- a. The cash-book; the revision of which the directors of the poor reserve to themselves at any time.
- b. The balance in hand of the funds of the poor and the nurse money.
- c. The journal containing a statement of the relief granted (not in ready money).
- d. The journal of contributions received.
- e. The register, showing what monies have been collected, received and paid into the receiver's office for the poor, according to the receipts produced, and also stating what may have been subsequently received.
- f. The iron money chest.
- g. The orphan and nurse expenses, as also the extraordinary supplies which have not been received or paid, as well as the present stock of wood, and the funds destined for relief in winter; the special minutes of the commissions which may be in existence, showing the balance of cash in hand for the poor, and nurse-money, and the general minutes of the commission; the latter to be kept separately.
- h. The book relating to the public administration of the poor of this city (Berlin, 1828, by G. Reimer, 321 pages, in 8vo.)
- i. The last list of the names of all persons who are engaged in the administration for the relief of the poor.
- k. The regulations of the poor of the 3d October 1826.
- l. The printed compilation of the legal prescripts in respect to the obligation of supporting the poor, and of the hereditary right of the institutions for the poor of this commune; 1832, 8vo.
- m. The printed instructions for the town serjeants, of the 11th July 1832; and for the police, of the 15th July 1832.
- n. The regulations as to the routine of business to be observed at the meetings of the chairmen of the administering commissions, of the 20th August 1832.
- o. The two stamps, together with the stamping apparatus belonging thereto.
- p. All such particular inventories as belong to each of the commissions, which may be there.
- q. The nature and particulars of the number of tickets for warm-water baths, as may have been delivered.

The delivery of all these things to the new chairman must be specially mentioned in the protocol which is to be presented to the directors of the poor, by virtue of which said protocol the outgoing chairman is to be discharged.

7. If a new member is proposed to be elected in consequence of another member going out, or a greater number of members being required from increase of business, it emanates from the commission of the poor, and such election can only be effected by the assembling of a proper number of the commissions, by a majority of votes.
8. The requisition is to be sent to the directors of the poor, accompanied by a list of interrogatories, which must be filled up and signed.
9. After the election of a proposed candidate has taken place, and his appointment been confirmed, the newly-elected member is invited to attend at the next meeting, at which he is to be presented to the members present by the chairman, and in their presence made acquainted with the obligations to be incurred by him. The chairman then introduces him into his new office by shaking hands with him, and the fact of this having taken place is to be entered in the protocol of the meeting.
10. To each new member of the commission for the relief of the poor, the following printed papers are to be delivered:
 - a. The regulations for the poor of the city of Berlin, of the 3d October 1826.
 - b. The regulations of the public administration for the relief of the poor of this city (Berlin, 1828).
 - c. The list of the names of persons charged with and engaged in the administration for the relief of the poor.
 - d. The printed compilation of the legal prescripts in respect to the obligation of supporting the poor, and of the hereditary right of the institutions for the poor of this commune.

Whenever a member is discharged from his office, he is to deliver, without being asked so to do, all the above-mentioned as well as all other printed papers which he may have obtained possession of by virtue of his office, to the chairman, in order to be delivered up to his successor. It is the chairman's duty to see this effected, for the purpose of avoiding expense.

11. Neither the chairman of the commissions nor any other member of the same, is allowed to resign his office at his own will; if he does so, he is responsible to the community.

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community. Should strong obstacles prevent him from continuing in his office, he must solicit his discharge from the directors of the poor, and if found proper, the same is to be granted by them.

12. Each member is legally elected for six years, but permitted to resign his office after three years' actual service.

13. The member going out of office may be re-elected; and if he accepts office again, he is bound to serve three years longer.

14. The proceedings to be observed for his confirmation, are the same as stated in Article 4.

15. It is the duty of the chairman of the commission to see that the regular routine of business is kept up in the assembly; if he neglects to do so, he is answerable for it. The district commissions must, for that purpose, be divided amongst the members as equally as possible, and according to the number of the resident poor, and their proceedings must be strictly controlled; for which purpose the chairman has to satisfy himself, by interrogating the poor and by local investigation or otherwise, that no member of the commission has violated any of the duties imposed on him, either against the community or against the poor.

The business to be transacted on changing the chairman, by the directors of the poor, as well as by the commissions for the relief of the poor, is so laborious, not only on the part of the chairman, but on that of the members, that the directors of the poor, in gratefully acknowledging the admirable manner in which the commissions of the poor have hitherto discharged the duties of their office, confidently rely on their continuing to pursue the same course, and that they will improve in their experience, as the administration is daily becoming more difficult, in order that by their exertions, they may be enabled firmly to rely on the willing and cheerful sacrifice of health, time and means on the part of the inhabitants, and to express their gratitude at the end of the present year, which will complete the quarter of a century since the establishment of the City Ordinance.

The following review of the existing routine of business in the commissions for the relief of the poor has originated from the consideration, that the new members ought to be in possession of something which may guide and acquaint them with the existing prescripts, in order to prevent the many injuries which often arise from the ignorance of the principal and formal stipulations, and particularly as the details thereof may easily escape the memory. This review should be correctly revised and examined every year, that we may, by such exertions, produce at last an introduction to the business to be transacted by the commissions of the poor, which being developed from life, is as simple as possible and very practical. For the present, the following 13 Articles of an attempt at compilation must suffice:

I. General prescripts; see *infra*, S. 1 to 18.

II. Correct knowledge, inspection and support of the poor; that is to say,

a. Of the district inhabitants, in cases of transitory distress; see 19 to 34.

b. Of the receivers of alms; see 35 to 54.

III. The free medical attendance, with medicine, and the gratuitous delivery of spectacles, trusses, tickets for bathing, &c.; see 55 to 83.

IV. The gratuitous aid to poor pregnant women during their confinement; see 84 to 90.

V. The reception of the poor in the Workhouse, the New Hospital, the Dorothy Hospital, the Koppen Hospital, and the Spletthaus Hospital; see 91 to 101.

VI. The reception of helpless children by the Orphan Asylum, the inspection of the boarders of the orphan-house in the district, and the maintenance of the children depending exclusively on their mothers; see 102 to 124.

VII. A free-school for poor children; see 125 to 142.

VIII. The certificates of poverty; see 143 to 148.

IX. A free burial; see 149 to 153.

X. Proceedings to be taken on the death of paupers, relating to property left by them; see 154 to 160.

XI. Investigations and decisions on the petitions for liberation sent in by the service and military-quarter procuring directors, by the directors of the royal tax on trade, and by the salary pay office of the royal court of this city; see 161 to 166.

XII. The drawing and receipt of monies collected in houses and churches; see 167 to 177.

XIII. Diminution of begging at houses and in the streets; see 178 to 181.

I. General

I. General Prescripts.

S. 1. The chairman receives all contributions, keeps a journal thereof, deposes two members for investigations, enters the proceedings, of the meetings in writing, and conducts the whole correspondence; he keeps a cash-book to enter all monies received and expended, and takes care that the entries of the expenditure be receipted in the last rubric, by the member who receives such money for the payment to the poor. The monies paid at the meetings out of the iron chest, are, after being acknowledged to be correct, to be restituted by the chief poor's pay office, in the course of the month, upon giving stamped and signed receipts.

S. 2. The district chairman is at all times a member of the commission, but he may be exempted from being inspector of any part of the country, provided he is assiduous in the collection of outstanding subscriptions, in the investigations, &c., and by properly attending the meetings.

S. 3. The meetings of the commission for the poor generally take place at the end of each month, but in cases of emergency the chairman may direct the meeting of the commission on any other day.

S. 4. All members have an equal vote, and in doubtful cases the majority decides. If the votes are equal, then the chairman gives the casting vote.

S. 5. For proceeding to a legal resolution at the monthly meetings, the presence of three members, inclusive of the chairman, is requisite.

S. 6. The protocols, resolutions, reports, &c. are to be signed by the chairman and all the members who may be present at the meeting.

S. 7. The objects and form of the protocols of the meeting, are to be written agreeably to certain regulations.

S. 8. The chairman is to deliver monthly, to the directors of the poor, a journal containing accounts of such reliefs as have been granted, not in ready money, but in free medical attendance, free funerals, free schools, spectacles, trusses, &c.; which, as well as the protocol of the meetings, is to be signed by the commissioners.

S. 9. On receiving petitions for relief, the chairman has to ascertain whether the petitioner has at any time previously received any relief, and in such or in other similar cases he has to procure the minutes from the registry of the reliefs granted by the directors of the poor, or from the workhouse or orphan asylum.

S. 10. The commissioners for the relief of the poor are not to have any communication with foreign authorities; but should they receive any, they are to give the fullest information thereof to the directors of the poor, and to leave the rest to them.

S. 11. They are, however, permitted to answer the questions of the authorities, associations and inhabitants of this city, respecting the circumstances of distress of any particular person, and also to obtain information from them.

S. 12. Once in the year at least, a local search is to be made in the dwellings of all those persons who receive relief either by alms, orphan, or nurse money, and who are living in the district, in order to ascertain whether their circumstances have so changed that the relief might entirely, or at least partially, be discontinued. The duty of this investigation is however divided amongst the members of the commission in such a manner that the member of a district does not alone revise the relief granted to the poor under his own inspection, but he is accompanied by another member of a different district to assist him, in order that in this manner all the members may by degrees become acquainted with all the poor of the districts comprised in the commission.

S. 13. The petitions presented to the commission for the poor, in writing, and which have been immediately refused, remain with the same commission, but the latter may return them to the directors of the poor, in case of such claims being a continuation of former proceedings, or the writing contains some motives worthy to be preserved. The same takes place also with all petitions which are sent by the directors of the poor to the commission for examination, and bear the number of the journal of the directors of the poor, even if the petitioners have received a refusal by the commission; thereby saving unnecessary trouble and all applications for the return of them.

S. 14. By way of precaution, no money or receipts are to be confided to the messengers or left in the hands of the serjeants during the night.

S. 15. At the time when the supply of fire-wood for the winter is to be taken in, the commissions for the poor have to use their best exertions, that the whole supply, or at least part thereof, be gratuitously delivered by benevolent men. An account of the manner in which the fuel has been divided is to be laid before the directors of the poor, by the commission for the relief of the poor, at the latest by the end of March.

S. 16. The day and hour of the monthly meetings is always to be communicated in writing to the city deputy or deputies, to the district chairman, and to the surgeon of the poor; the latter, however, may, in case of necessity, only be invited.

S. 17. Lithographic circular orders must at all times be read at the monthly meetings, and also be signed by all those that are present, as a proof of such orders being published. They are afterwards to be laid before the members who were absent, and then to be added to the minutes of the commission.

S. 18. Those persons who receive any relief from some charity or benevolent institution, or private benevolent society, such not being dependent on the directors of the poor, must be made known to the commissions for the relief of the poor, by means of lithographic extracts. Those persons, when moving to another dwelling, have to give to the commission for the relief of the poor, into whose district they have moved, a correct and true statement

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of their circumstances. It is therefore necessary for this purpose that a list of the names of such individuals be kept and examined every quarter of a year, in order to ascertain if any of them have left the district. If such a list is arranged in alphabetical order and so continued, the object intended will be greatly facilitated, and it will be of much use, particularly if such persons should attempt to make another claim for relief.

II. Correct Knowledge, Consideration and Support of the Poor.

S. 19. A person is to be considered poor, who is neither possessed of a sufficient fortune, nor physically or mentally capable of procuring for himself and for such members of his family as are unable to work, the necessary food, clothing, shelter and fuel.

S. 20. Such a person in such circumstances above stated, cannot however justly claim relief, if he has relations who are legally bound and able to support him.

S. 21. It is also to be ascertained whether a pauper belongs to a corporation who has funds for the relief of their poor.

S. 22. Relief is given either by the commission for the poor, or under pressing circumstances immediately, or notice of it is to be given to the directors of the poor. The extraordinary relief being granted by the directors to a poor person, must be applied only for him, and not in favour of any other poor person, be it the whole or part thereof; on the contrary, the money must be returned to the office for paying the poor, in case, between the time of claiming such relief and its being granted by the directors, the circumstances of the claimant should have improved, and he be no longer in want of relief.

S. 23. The commission for the poor may, by their own resolution and without asking leave, grant a relief of a sum of money not exceeding five dollars for one month, to the family of a poor person; and in pressing cases, the chairman, in conjunction with two members of the commission, is also justified in granting relief, but only to a sum not exceeding three dollars for one month, and of which circumstance information must be given to the monthly meeting.

S. 24. The payments to the poor are never to be made by the chairman, but always by the member concerned.

S. 25. The extraordinary relief which may have been granted at the meetings, exclusive of that which has been granted to the receivers of relief and nurse money, is to be entered in a separate book, and the book, together with the protocol of the meeting, is to be presented to the directors of the poor. Proposals for granting relief are to be set down in the book before the line.

S. 26. Relief is given either in ready money or in kind.

S. 27. In pressing cases of momentary distress, the commission of the poor have the power to grant immediate relief, without being required to take into their consideration whether the person in distress belong to that commune, or whether other persons and communes are under legal obligations to relieve him.

S. 28. In the last-mentioned case, the commission for the relief of the poor have to acquaint the directors of the poor therewith immediately.

S. 29. Regarding the circumstances of servants, journeymen, military persons, and those belonging to them, &c., there is a reference made to them at page 4, under Letter I. of the above-mentioned printed compilation.

S. 30. Men who have served in the Berlin landwehr, during the years from 1813 to 1815, or those who have voluntarily enrolled themselves, and who can prove their incapacity as soldiers, are, when they apply, referred to the commission for the relief of volunteers and landwehr men of this city.

S. 31. In cases where the claim is said to be founded on illness, the opinion of the surgeon is to be obtained previous to the investigation of his circumstances; but the claimant for relief is not to be sent to the surgeon of the poor with the petition itself, but the latter is to be sent to the surgeon by the serjeant, sealed up; and the petitioner is given to understand that, if the surgeon should confirm the actual existence of his illness, or his complaint, he will be relieved; and that he may come again the next day at the hour fixed for consultation, and announce himself to the surgeon (*see p. 78*).

S. 32. The extraordinary relief granted to the receivers of alms and nurse-money, is accounted for at the monthly meetings. All extraordinary reliefs, particularly reliefs to persons who are ill, which are granted for an indefinite time, and for longer than one month, are to be stated in the liquidation of the receivers of alms and nurse-money, and the length of time for which it is intended to grant the relief, is also to be added. The proceedings on such occasions, as also the running number of the sheets of examinations, are to be delivered to the directors of the poor, for the purpose of being registered only, after the relief has ceased. The receivers of such relief also receive the usual ticket for alms, however with the remark above mentioned, for an indefinite time.

S. 33. Persons who are distinguished by birth, rank, education, &c., but reduced through calamities, have, in consequence of such being the case, no claim for more distinguished or more ample relief; they may, however, be relieved from the particular fund arising from legacies, and of which a report is to be made to the directors of the poor, using at the same time the new and reduced sheet of examination. The commissions for the relief of the poor have at such examinations to consider whether such persons generally have been much more unfortunate than others who are necessitated to apply to the communal administrations for the poor, for relief; they have therefore not to overlook the consideration of those circumstances before they decide.

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S. 34. Every examination must be effected according to circumstances as quickly as possible, but nevertheless perfectly accurately; and the proceedings taken down in writing are then to be returned to the chairman. The order issued on the 14th of April 1830, by the directors of the poor, stating that all cases received in the course of the month by the deputed members for examination, which are to come before them at the monthly meetings, must be delivered three days previous to the chairman, that he may inform himself of the correctness of the opinion of the members, and be able to confirm the same, must on this occasion be most particularly observed.

B. Receivers of Alms.

S. 35. The whole circumstances of a poor person petitioning for the purpose of procuring relief must be correctly ascertained. A protocol (sheet of examination) is to be drawn up thereon; this protocol is to be signed by the applicant for relief, and by the member who has drawn up the protocol, which is generally done by the chairman. If the applicant for relief cannot write, he is to make three crosses in the presence of a witness worthy of credit, who is to write down the name of the petitioner, and by adding his own name to certify that he has done so at the request of the other: this proceeding is necessary for the purpose of charging the fund for the hereditary right of the poor, by means of the examination list.

S. 36. The statements contained in the said examination list are to be scrutinized by two members jointly, and they have to give their opinion on the petition.

S. 37. After the proceedings have been sent to the chairman, a decision is to be given at the next meeting, provided circumstances do not make an immediate relief necessary.

S. 38. As a commencement of relief to recent admitted applicants, from 15 to 20 silver groschen per month have hitherto been granted. In cases where a larger amount is to be immediately granted, the grounds of such a resolution by the commission for the relief of the poor, must be explicitly stated.

S. 39. The resolutions are, like all others, to be executed by the whole of the present members.

S. 40. The granting of relief, as well as the increasing of the same, depends on the consent of the directors of the poor, the latter receiving information thereof by the monthly report.

S. 41. Alms are paid at the end of each month for such month, by the district member, and by the latter a memorandum is made on the printed alms-ticket which each pauper receives, and which he has to present every month. The alms are to be paid only by that commission in whose district the receiver actually resides. At the end of the year, all the alms-tickets are drawn in, they are then added to the minutes of the receivers, and new tickets are given to them.

S. 42. Alms must be received by the receivers themselves; this being the general rule, the members are answerable for the identity of the person to whom they make the payment: alms must not be delivered to the city serjeants for the purpose of handing them over to the receivers.

S. 43. The commission for the poor keeps separate minutes for each of the receivers of alms, which is marked by the running number as given in the monthly settlement.

S. 44. If a receiver of alms leaves the district, the member of that district has to write his new address on the alms-ticket, and he is sent therewith to the chairman, who also signs the ticket, and acquaints the holder of it with the name and address of the chairman of the commission for the relief of the poor in whose district the pauper is removing, that he may call there to announce himself.

S. 45. On such an announcement, by the delivery of the alms-ticket, being made, the chairman has to procure for himself, first, the minutes (sheets or lists of examination) of the former commission for relief of the poor, by giving a written acknowledgment thereof, and send them to two members for their opinion, as directed under date of the 11th of July 1832, to the commissions for the poor, by the formulars for reports.

S. 46. On every occasion of granting of alms, it is to be ascertained whether the claimant in question be a member of any benefit or other society, and whether he be in possession of any loom, bed, jenny, or other utensils borrowed from the administrators of the poor; this and all other particulars are to be stated in the minutes, but the borrowed things are to be written on the title page. It is also to be made known to the proprietors of houses and sleeping rooms, that the articles mentioned in the inventory, which have been lent by the directors of the poor to many of the receivers of alms, and which are stamped, are not the property of their tenants or occupants, and cannot be touched for rent in arrear. The circumstance of the receiving of alms is also to be made known to the chairman of the benefit society, in order to prevent, in case of death, the money subsequently to be received of such benefit society from being paid without the concurrence of the commission for the relief of the poor: as a quicker reference, a cross with red ink is to be made on the cover of the sheets or lists of examination of such persons as receive alms, who are members of any benefit society, such cross to stand at the side of the number of the years, in order to be properly convinced that the commission for the poor did actually endeavour to find out whether such receivers of alms be a member of any benefit society or not; and if not a member of any benefit society, then a zero with red ink is to be marked on the cover of such of the minutes of the commission as are not designated with a cross in red ink.

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S. 47. The rules laid down in s. 23, are also applicable to the receivers of alms.

S. 48. Every member keeps a list of the monthly alms paid by him, which is in accordance with the liquidation of alms, so that when cast up the former must contain the same sum as the different sums of all the district lists of the members produce when added together, by which a control is formed. At the settlement at the end of the year, the district lists remain with the minutes of the commission, but those of the latter are to be kept with the minutes of the directors of the poor.

S. 49. Each member is bound to visit the receivers of alms in his district, at least once in the month, at their dwellings, that he may be constantly acquainted with their situation.

S. 50. Each receiver of alms generally receives, during the winter, a quantity of fuel, if he has any habitation of his own, but if not he receives, instead of fuel, a moderate sum in money, which, as there is not much confidence to be reposed in them, is to be paid only monthly; but if a pauper is not at home all day, or if he is not in want of such relief, it ought not, of course, to be given to him. In what manner the receivers of orphan board and nurse money are to be dealt with, must depend on the particular circumstances of the case.

S. 51. The authorities for the relief of the poor have a legal hereditary right to the property of any pauper who has been nursed in any of their institutions and died there, or had been supported out of the poor's fund until he died; provided the pauper has been informed of the above-mentioned hereditary right in the manner prescribed (*see* s. 35). The said authorities have also a right, in case they do not avail themselves of that hereditary right, to the restitution of all the relief granted to the pauper from the means of the community, including the burial expenses, out of such property as the pauper may leave. In all such cases, reports are to be made to the directors of the poor, by sending in the minutes.

S. 52. On the death of a receiver of alms in the Charité Hospital, of which the commission for the poor is always to be informed, the property of the deceased is to be dealt with as that of the other receivers of alms (*see* Article X., Proceedings on Death, &c.)

S. 53. Each pauper being a receiver of alms, and having received support until his death or not, is bound to restitute the value of the relief received of every description; the commission for the poor have therefore to acquaint the directors of the poor when a supported pauper inherits any property, or when his relations, legally bound to support him and able to do so, are ascertained.

S. 54. The same steps are to be taken if the commission of the poor hears that a receiver of alms or supported pauper has some well-founded claims and legal rights, which are refused him, either here or elsewhere.

III. Granting of free Medical Attendance with Medicine, as well as the gratuitous delivery of Spectacles, Trusses, Bathing-tickets, &c.

S. 55. All persons who are so poor that they cannot pay for medical attendance or for medicine, are entitled to the attendance of the doctor for the poor, and to medicine, gratis: their pecuniary circumstances are therefore strictly to be investigated.

S. 56. In cases of emergency and under any circumstances, the certificate of sickness may be immediately given, but only for three days, during which the investigation is to take place.

S. 57. The member of the commission concerned has to fill up the form of the certificate completely, to write the number of the commission particularly legible, and also to sign the same, and then to show the patient to the chairman, who also signs the certificate, stamps it, and enters it on a particular list. The patient must be informed where the shop of the apothecary, who is named in the certificate or ticket, is to be found, and he is further to be told that he must, on applying, after the first time, for medicine, always carry with him the phial in which he received his medicine on the first occasion.

S. 58. If the commission for the poor merely grant free medical attendance, the words relative to the free medicine and the reception into the Charité Hospital are to be struck out with the pen.

S. 59. A certificate or ticket is seldom made out for a longer duration than 14 days, but in chronic and other diseases it may be made out for the period of one month. The patient may choose any apothecary he likes; the name of the latter must be stated in the medicine ticket, and he alone has to prepare the requisite medicine.

S. 60. In consequence of the settling of the apothecaries' bills, the tickets for medicine can be issued only up to the last day of each month; so that a ticket which, for instance, has been given on the 29th, is only valid on the 30th or the 31st, and a new one will be given on the 1st day of the following month.

S. 61. Where there are several members of a family lying ill in one house, there is not to be a ticket for medicine given to each person, but one single ticket for medicine for the same apothecary will do. The receivers of alms may receive without a previous investigation, free medical attendance and medicine; their situation, as receivers of alms, is however to be expressly mentioned in the ticket.

S. 62. All patients are to be referred to the district doctor, if exterior hurts or diseases of the eye do not require the immediate presence of the surgeon of the poor, or of the oculist; the dwelling of the patient is to be carefully and correctly described in the order.

S. 63. If

S. 63. If the doctor finds it necessary to send the patient to the Charité Hospital (of which the doctor must immediately inform the commission of the poor concerned), the patient loses his claim to free medical attendance and to free medicine, if he does not consent to such removal; persons afflicted with contagious diseases must, in cases of extremity, be taken to the Charité Hospital by the police.

S. 64. Vehicles for carrying them to the Charité Hospital will be procured from the contractor of funerals, on showing the order for the Charité by the doctor, and the patient is allowed to take a conductor along with him.

S. 65. Besides this, there is in the New Hospital near the Orphan-house Bridge, a large basket for patients, who without injury cannot be conveyed in carriages, which is to be obtained by an order from the medical attendant of the poor, and porters are to be procured there also.

S. 66. If a poor person is desirous to go into a clinical institution, then the place in the ticket to be received by him, ordering his reception in the Charité Hospital, must be underlined, and the order to the apothecary for medicine, as well as the duration of its validity, must be struck out.

S. 67. Medicine can be given gratuitously only by an order from any of the medical men who attend the poor.

S. 68. If the doctor of the poor orders Russian perspiration, or douche, sulphur or other artificial baths, or the use of foreign watering places, or that of the Drink Institution of artificial mineral waters here, the necessity thereof, and also the number of baths, must be stated to the directors of the poor, and sent to them with the medical certificate of the poor. The tickets for poor patients for Russian or other artificial baths, are not to be presented to them by the directors of the poor all at once, but only from two to three each time, and there must be a control kept over them as strict as possible. Those tickets which have not been fetched away or used by the patients in whose names they have been filled up, within four weeks, must then be returned by the commission for the poor to the directors.

S. 69. If only tepid and cold-water baths are ordered, the doctor has to send a certificate of the number that is requisite to the chairman of the commission for the poor, who signs the same, agreeably to the forms which he receives in large quantities from the registry of the directors for the poor, and then stamps and signs it. White tickets are valid at the establishment of Pochhammer, blue ones at the establishment of Welper; to the former are assigned the commissions for the poor, No. 35 to No. 56, and to the latter the commissions for the poor, No. 1 to No. 3, and No. 5 to No. 32.

S. 70. If the Charité Hospital refuses to receive poor patients who have been ordered to be sent there, and if they cannot be attended at their own dwelling, then notice is to be given of it to the directors of the poor.

S. 71. Dietetic remedies for invalids, such as meat, meat broth, eggs, wine, coffee, &c. are to be given to the patients upon the order and at the request of the doctor for the poor, and the value thereof in money to be liquidated by the voucher for extraordinary reliefs.

S. 72. In cases of illness of journeymen belonging to a corporation, the company professing the trade which he follows has to take care of him.

S. 73. The nursing of all apprentices who may be taken ill, is generally one of the conditions agreed on at the engagement of the apprentice by the master, and the same is also the case with servants who make it a condition to be attended to in the house of their master or mistress, whenever they are taken ill; and only in such cases where the non-agreement can be clearly proved, and where there are no relations existing, legally bound and able to support them, the commission for the poor interferes, and causes the applicant either to be received by the Charité Hospital or to have attendance at home, according as the circumstances may require. The same is to be done if the master of an apprentice, or the master or mistress of a servant, deny having made such an agreement; but of this there is at all events a notice to be given to the directors of the poor.

S. 74. But if a sick apprentice or a sick servant be sent to the Charité Hospital, there must be written on the order for his reception there, some statement of the services of the servant, and of the capability of the master of the apprentice to pay, in order that redress may be had of them.

S. 75. With respect to tradesmen, it is always requisite to state in the certificate of sickness whether the applicant be a master or a journeyman, and whether he ever had any connexion with any private asylum for the sick, or with the benefit societies for the sick journeymen, or not. In the latter case only they are entitled to free medicine for themselves, but in the former case they are not in themselves entitled thereto, but their families are. The journeymen weavers, married or single, belonging to corporate companies, ought to become members of the journeymen weavers' benefit society for sickness and death; and as they must then contribute towards it, they must only look to that society in case of illness or death, for relief. The elder master has been ordered by the trades' assessor to act in future accordingly, and the magistrate has not only approved of this measure, but also entirely abolished the custom hitherto existing, by which the married journeymen weavers were excluded from the journeymen's benefit society.

S. 76. According to the circular or order of the 6th September 1831, there are to be received into the military hospitals only such persons as are still in the companies of invalids, consequently those also belonging to the battalion of invalids at this place.

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S. 77. All other invalids who have been dismissed and have received one, two or three dollars on that occasion, fall to the community, when in need of free medical attendance and of free medicine. With respect to those individuals of the garrison and companies of invalids who are on furlough for an indefinite period, and have the right of re-entering reserved to them, there is, by the regulation of the year 1826, for the peace hospitals, ordained that they must be received into the military hospitals.

S. 78. The poor have to call on the doctor of the poor, in cases which are of less emergency, only at the usual hour appointed by him.

S. 79. The commission of the poor may consult with the medical man for the poor, about the state and capability of working of any individual.

S. 80. The said commission have it also in their power to cause the medical man for the poor to write orders for the purpose of attesting the illness of any person in the orphan asylum, or nurse-houses or nursery for the district.

S. 81. Persons whose eyesight are weak and who are in want of a pair of spectacles, or wish to exchange a pair which no longer suits them, for a new pair, and who do not at all possess the means of procuring the same, have their wants supplied by the oculist, who by means of a certificate and statement of the case procures the spectacles.

S. 82. If a poor person is in want of a truss, the member concerned and the chairman draw up, after a strict investigation of his circumstances, a certificate, by filling up the printed forms for the same, and he immediately proceeds to the surgeon for the poor, to show himself there and undergo a surgical examination; this certificate, together with the surgeon's opinion, is then to be delivered by the surgeon to the directors of the poor.

S. 83. A journeyman of any trade, who belongs to a corporate company, can only receive a truss after having proved by the handwriting of the assessor of his trade, that he could not get this relief from the latter.

IV. Granting of gratuitous Attendance at the Confinement of Poor Pregnant Women.

S. 84. Poor pregnant women are to be attended by the midwife living near them, who, for the taxed price of 15 silver groschen, will give her the necessary assistance at and after her delivery.

S. 85. The bill of the midwife is, however, to be immediately paid out of the district fund, and liquidated at the proper place for restitution, in case the commission for the poor are convinced of the poverty of the woman, and also that there exist no relations of her's who are legally bound and able to make such payment, and in cases of illegitimate birth, that the father be without any means.

S. 86. If the assistance of an accoucheur is necessary, the midwife is bound to call in one of those accoucheurs who are appointed by the directors for the poor to that particular district, for the purpose of giving their gratuitous assistance, and who have been expressly made known to all the midwives.

S. 87. In cases of imminent danger and when the assistance of the accoucheur mentioned at S. 86 cannot be immediately obtained (which must be certified), then only it is allowed to call in the assistance of another.

S. 88. If in pressing cases, when a certificate of illness cannot be quickly obtained, an immediate prescription of medicine should be necessary, the nearest apothecary has to deliver the same, and the accoucheur has to state on the receipt that the medicine was prescribed for a poor woman. The apothecary, at the end of each month, has to lay all such receipts before the commission for relief of the poor.

S. 89. For each clyster ordered to a female, 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ silver groschen is to be paid to the midwife.

S. 90. If poor pregnant women wish to lye-in at the Charité Hospital, there is no occasion to present an order for their reception; they have only to go the Charité Hospital in the eighth month of their pregnancy, and make known their intention.

V. Regulation for the reception into the Hospitals of proper Poor Persons, and also in the Workhouses, the New Hospital, and the Dorothy, Koppen and Spletthaus Hospitals.

S. 91. There are to be received by the hospital of the Workhouse persons unable to work, or cripples, who having no relations to take care of them, are unable to subsist beyond the walls of the institution, even if relief in money was granted to them, and who by their crimes, immorality, drunkenness, &c. have made themselves undeserving of being received into the New Hospital; and also persons who, on account of their having no shelter and no employment, voluntarily present themselves until they are able to procure some employment, as well as idiots and weak-minded persons of good temper, who do not require any particular restraint or are not apt to disturb the order of the house; but all insane persons, and all who are delirious in mind and who require particular restraint, are to be sent by the doctor for the poor and the physician, to the asylum of the Charité Hospital for insane persons.

S. 92. Insolent beggars are also to be sent to the Workhouse.

S. 93. The request to have illegitimate children taken in there is to be made to the directors of the poor.

S. 94. If a pauper expects to be without a shelter, a report must be made thereof to the directors of the poor, in respect to his reception; but if he is already without a shelter, no report

report is necessary, and he may immediately be taken into the Workhouse by the serjeant, with a written transfer.

S. 95. For reception into the New Hospital the persons must be qualified, viz. unmarried, unable to work and worthy of being relieved, who are of a blameless character, and have no relations who are legally bound and able to support them. The citizens of the place, and their widows and children, have the preference in this respect.

S. 96. The directors decide on the reception; therefore a report must be made to them on presenting the minutes.

S. 97. Every inmate of the hospital is kept and nursed there for life, if the necessity for his remaining an inmate continues, and he conducts himself with propriety.

S. 98. By paying an annual sum of money for boarding, or a sum at entrance, persons who are unable to work and are even still in possession of some trifling property, may be received into the New Hospital. The concluding of such an agreement is the business of the directors of the poor.

S. 99. Elderly females who are unable to do much work, but who enjoy some support from private individuals or otherwise, who conduct themselves with propriety, and who are only able to subsist if a shelter and some additional relief be granted to them, are proper persons to be received in one of the small hospitals; such as the Dorothy, the Koppen, or the Spletthaus hospitals, where they are to receive lodging, fuel, a monthly supply of money, free medical attendance and medicine in case of illness, and after death a free funeral.

S. 100. In such cases the decision is also dependent on the directors of the poor, and it is granted by them according to circumstances, either gratuitously or by the payment of a certain sum of money at entrance, for which the female received has, according to the agreement made with her, to claim the interest.

S. 101. It is, however, to be borne in mind, that there are but few places there, and therefore it is but seldom that an application can be taken into consideration.

VI. Regulations for the reception of helpless Children into the Orphan Asylum, for the inspection of the Orphans who are boarded elsewhere in the District, and for the support of those Children who are exclusively under the care and attention of their Mothers.

A. Reception into the Orphan Asylum.

S. 102. For the reception into Frederick the Great's Orphan Asylum, and procuring them board on account of the said Orphan Asylum, the following description of children are only qualified:

- a. Children without father and mother, who are without any relations legally bound and capable of maintaining them, are poor, and of the Christian religion, but not of the French reformed community, who are to provide for their orphans themselves.
- b. Poor children, whose parents are living, but through absence, long and dangerous illness, or penitential imprisonment, are unable to bring them up.
- c. Children to whom in other urgent cases an immediate shelter must be procured.

S. 103. If a reception under such circumstances is to be effected, the commission for the poor has to report the case to the directors for the poor, and at the same time, if possible, to present the certificate of baptism, and also the short list or sheet of examinations properly filled up, and the decision then depends on the said directors.

S. 104. But any commission for the relief of the poor can immediately send children to the Orphan Asylum, if by the death of their parents or otherwise, circumstances occur by which the children suddenly become unprotected, and cannot be taken care of either by relations or otherwise, even if a place for their board and for money were to be found within the district. This, however, is to be done only in the most urgent cases, as the overcrowding of the institution is to be avoided; the case must immediately be reported to the directors of the poor.

B. Inspection over the Orphan Children boarded out, but within the District of the Orphan Asylum.

S. 105. The children sent to the Orphan Asylum either remain therein, or are sent out upon the payment of a monthly sum for their board, and by means of a boarding ticket, filled up by the administration of the Orphan Asylum, on white paper, to honest families and persons, who have to board them, to see that they go regularly to the free-school, and to provide for their clothing and education.

S. 106. Those children, in case of illness, have free medical attendance.

S. 107. The money for boarding is generally granted up to the time of the children completing their 14th year.

S. 108. The commission of the poor, being assisted by intelligent and good christian-hearted females, not only keep an especial inspection over the boarded orphan children in their districts, and take care of their welfare, but they have also to exert themselves for the purpose of finding out families who are disposed and capable of taking such children to board and foster. Of the going out and taking in of the boarded children, caused by the administration of the Orphan Asylum, they receive information, and write it down on the list, which is to be sent to them at the beginning of every year. The latter proceeding must also be observed when they are informed by the foster parents of a removal to another district. The commission for the poor then have to communicate such removal to the administration of the Orphan Asylum, by means of the forms destined for that purpose, and to write the alteration of residence on the boarding ticket.

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S. 109. The settlement of the money for boarding is to take place on the 20th of every month at the latest, by the administration of the Orphan Asylum, and after being revised and settled it is to be returned to the commission in the course of a few days; the latter then receives the fixed sum, during the last days of the month, from the administration of the Orphan Asylum, by giving a receipt for the same, signed by the chairman of the commission for the relief of the poor.

S. 110. At the conclusion of the year, and when the vouchers are presented for the expenses, signed by the foster-parents themselves, or marked with crosses by their own hands (which said vouchers also serve as a receipt for the monthly payments that have been made during the year), the chairman signs a general receipt for the total sum, and receives the monthly receipts back, each of which receipts must be furnished with the stamp of the commission.

S. 111. The money for boarding is not to be accounted for day by day, but always from one-third of the month to the other third, and consequently only paid on the 1st, on the 10th, and on the 20th of the months.

S. 112. A change of the foster-parents can only be made by the commission for the poor within their district, and in such case the administration of the Orphan Asylum must forthwith be informed thereof.

C. Maintenance of Children* who are exclusively under the care and attention of their Mothers.

S. 113. The granting of relief (nurse-money) for such children has been entrusted to the commissions for the relief of the poor, and is transacted on the principles which are applicable to the receivers of alms; in consequence of which, those mothers who are unable to keep their children without relief, and who do not live in a state of concubinage, are to be supported according to the number of their children, like other poor.

S. 114. Those children hitherto called "mothers' children," are now, in contradistinction to the boarded children, to be called "nursed children;" they are placed under the superintendence of the commissions for the poor, and the females who act unitedly with them. Reference is therefore made to the book of the 19th July 1832, purposely printed, respecting the efficiency of those females, of which each commission for the poor receives a copy.

S. 115. The commission for the poor executes for each nursed child, in the district in which it is living, a nurse-ticket on red paper; with that, and also generally together with the child concerned, the receivers of the nurse-money have to repair every month to that member of the commission for the poor whose duty it is to pay it, in order to receive the nurse-money. If the personal presentation of the child is not possible, its being alive, or illness, and with children above seven years of age, also its going to school, must be certified on the nurse-ticket. The payment of the nurse-money is to be mentioned on the nurse-ticket.

S. 116. Healthy mothers who are able to work, with only one child, receive no nurse-money; if they have two, they receive nurse-money for one; and if five or six, they receive nurse-money for three or four children; they have however no right to claim such grants, and to consider them as a matter of course to be granted to them by the community, as the decision, if any nurse-money, and for how many children, and in what manner it shall be granted, depends solely on the judgment and conviction of the commission for the poor, on the state of each case, and the claim founded thereon.

S. 117. For soldiers' children, born in lawful marriage, during active military service of their fathers, the great Orphan Asylum of Potsdam grants board-money; therefore it is to be asked by the mothers and guardians, of the great Military Orphan Asylum at Potsdam, No. 81 Wilhelm's-street.

S. 118. The nurse-money generally does not amount to more than 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ dollar per month for each child; but it may be less, according to circumstances. For children under two years, or for sick children, who require more care and attention, a larger amount of nurse-money may be granted, but as soon as circumstances will admit of it, it is to be reduced.

S. 119. The granting of nurse-money always takes place for one year, provided a shorter period is not considered sufficient; and before grants of the money are renewed the situation of the mother is to be inquired into.

S. 120. Previous to granting of nurse-money, the sheet or list of examination expressly intended for that purpose is to be filled up, and the certificate of baptism, and inoculation or vaccination, to be given in. Separate minutes of the commission are to be established with these three documents for each nursed child; but if several children live with their mother, then one act or single minute is only required for all of them. The rules to be observed in respect to the minutes of the commissions for granting of alms, are to be followed in respect to the minutes kept in the above cases.

S. 121. If the foster children have no guardian, notice thereof is to be given to the directors of the poor.

S. 122. If they are in need of a free-school education it will be provided for them by the commission of the poor, under observance of the forms prescribed in respect thereto (Paragraph VII).

S. 123. In

* The regulations contained sub letter C. are to take effect only on the 1st of April next,; until that time the old regulations remain in force, according to which those children are depending the same as those sub letter B., on the administration of the Orphan Asylum.

S. 123. In case of death of one of the children, or in case the circumstances of the mother have improved so much that the withdrawal of the nurse-money can be effected, the commission for the relief of the poor may withdraw the same immediately; but if the circumstances of the mothers again alter, either by their marrying again, or by their own misconduct, or from other causes which make the treatment in respect to the interest of the nurse-children doubtful, the directors of the poor are then to be informed thereof.

S. 124. For entering and liquidating the money to be paid for the nursed children, the commissions for the relief of the poor will receive for the year 1833 a particular voucher, which when signed by the chairman in the monthly column, as thereby directed, is to be presented monthly to the directors for the poor, together with the minutes of the meeting for the payment of the amount thereof, and after the same has been settled it is to be returned to the commissions for the poor, to receive the amount from the principal receiver's office for the poor.

VII. Granting of Free Schooling to Poor Children.

S. 125. It is the duty of the commissions for the relief of the poor to take care that the children of poor people who are able to go to school, do attend the same regularly, and receive instruction.

S. 126. The period of children being sent to school regularly commences at the completion of the child's seventh year, and terminates when the child, according to the testimony of the minister, has acquired that knowledge and perfection which are necessary for his station in life, and which generally occurs on his attaining his 14th year. Should any child require instruction beyond that period, and its parents are poor, then the directors of the poor are to be applied to, and the case left to their decision.

S. 127. Besides the poor of this city (S. 21 is however to be referred to), the following description of children are to be received as free scholars, viz. the children of deceased soldiers, who are supported by the Great Military Orphan Asylum of Potsdam; as also the children of such invalids who have been dismissed from the hospital for invalids, with a certain sum of money, provided it can be shown that their reception into the Garrison School cannot be effected. Children who from the absolute necessity of earning their own living, cannot attend the day-school any longer, are to be transferred to the assistant schools, if they are declared to be unacquainted with the necessary instruction for their being religiously confirmed.

S. 128. If any parents allow their children to grow up without receiving any instruction, the commissions for the relief of the poor have to remonstrate with them, by telling them that such children should be sent to school; and if this should be of no avail, the commissary of the police is to interfere; and should this also be without effect, information thereof is to be given to the directors of the poor. If it be ascertained that the parents are able to pay the school-money, but refuse to do so, a report is also to be made thereof.

S. 129. The commissions for the relief of the poor have also expressly to take care that the children do regularly attend the schools in the manner before mentioned. The monthly extract from the list of the names, of such children who may have occasionally absented themselves from school, and which is to be sent every month to the commissions for the relief of the poor, will give them an opportunity to remonstrate with such children.

S. 130. For the reception of such free scholars whose cases have been decided on by the commissions for the relief of the poor, it is necessary to produce the certificates of baptism and inoculation or vaccination. For the procuring of the first, the chairman or any member of the commission thereunto appointed, has to give a copy of the form of the printed certificate of baptism to the claimants, and the latter has to take the same to the clerk of that church in which the child has been christened, and which the clerk then fills up gratuitously; the chairman then fills up the form of a free-school ticket, and causes the obligations printed on the back thereof to be acknowledged by the signature of the father, guardian, &c.

S. 131. The principal of the school collects all the school-tickets of the children who have entered during one quarter of the year, makes out a list of them, and sends both, in the middle of March, June, September and December, to the principal of the communal school for the poor; or where such a school does not exist, to the inspectors of the free schools in the Orphan Asylum.

S. 132. The latter appoint the school, and send back the ticket, with the appointment of the school, to the head master, in order by means of such ticket to deliver over the children, who must be previously examined by the head master of the school.

S. 133. In cases where children, who are sent from several commissions for the relief of the poor, but who belong to the same communal school for the poor of the district, cannot be received in the local communal schools for the poor, the head master has to make out a list of all the children he is unable to receive therein, and send it, together with the certificates of baptism and inoculation or vaccination, to the inspector of the free schools, in order that such children may be placed in some other school by them; the latter appoint the school accordingly, and return the ticket of the appointment to the head master, by which he ascertains where the children are then living, and he then sends the tickets appointing the schools to the local commission for the relief of the poor, in order to act therewith, according to what is stated at S. 131.

S. 134. On the reception of free scholars, it is to be ascertained whether the relations of them are about to change their places of residence, in which case the children are immediately

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diately to be transferred to that commission for the relief of the poor, into whose district the relations intend to remove.

S. 135. Whenever free-school scholars remove with their parents or relations out of the district in which the appointed school is situate, into another distant district, and there take lodgings, then the ticket appointing the school must be delivered back, and the parties are to be informed that they must apply to the commission for the poor in their present district, for the transfer to any communal school for the poor, or other school there.

S. 136. If complaints are made about the teachers, or by them about the children, they must be investigated and amicably settled; if this cannot be effected, then information thereof must be given to the directors of the poor, whose decision must be waited for.

S. 137. The withdrawal of the benefit from the receipt of alms, orphan-board and nurse-money, irrevocably follows in cases where, notwithstanding every remonstrance, a regular attendance of any of the children at school cannot be effected.

S. 138. On transferring children to a communal charity school, in the case of their contributing a monthly school payment of five to ten silver groschen, mention must be made thereof on the free-school ticket.

S. 139. If a free-school scholar is in want of a Bible, the master certifies the want thereof and his regular attendance at school, and the commission for the poor certifies his incapability of paying for it. For such a certificate, the General Bible Society here (through the Rev. Mr. Schweder, of No. 18, Stralan-street, on Mondays from eight to ten o'clock in the forenoon) sends a Bible, on payment of five silver groschen; but children of receivers of alms, orphan-board or nurse-money, receive such Bible gratuitously.

S. 140. Applications for clothing poor school children, which must have been previously ascertained by means of an investigation on the spot, are to be referred, by the father, guardian, &c., with the children, and also together with all the written proceedings thereon, and the certificates of the master, to the society for promoting the attendance of poor children at school, who hold their public meetings in the German Dom, near the Gens-d'armen-market, every second and fourth Wednesday in each month, at five o'clock in the afternoon; the said society, however, does not, on account of its limited means, extend its assistance to those children for whom orphan-board is paid, nor to the children of those who receive alms: during the summer months the children may go bare-footed and in their shirt-sleeves, but they must be clean.

S. 141. It is the duty of the commission for the relief of the poor, to cause an annual investigation to be made into the circumstances of the parents, within their district, of such children to whom free schooling is granted, and to ascertain whether they are still deserving of such benefit; and the said commissions for the poor are, for that purpose, to be supplied (in the month of January in every year,) by the inspectors of the free schools, with a list of the names of those children to whom a free schooling within their district has been granted on account of the directors of the poor.

S. 142. Those commissions for the poor, who have a joint inspection over such parochial and private schools as are conducted on the free-school system for account of the community, are to be referred to the instructions for the management of free schools.

VIII. The granting of Certificates of Poverty.

S. 143. Certificates of poverty must not be granted by any individual functionary of the city; and those granted by the commissions for the poor must only be for distinctly prescribed purposes, which, with the authority who intends to make use of it, must be distinctly stated in the certificates.

S. 144. For procuring certificates of baptism, to be presented to the authorities of guardianship, as well as for the exemption of payment of judicial costs in the Royal City Court of Justice, and also for the excusing or deferring of the payment of rent, there will not be required any such certificate; all that the poor man has to do in such cases is to represent to the authorities concerned his inability to pay, whereupon that authority acts thereon.

S. 145. Certificates of poverty, to be used with the highest or high personages, or private individuals, are only to be given when they have been expressly demanded by them in particular cases.

S. 146. Certificates of poverty, to be used out of Berlin, are also not allowed to be given, but the case must be stated to the directors of the poor.

S. 147. The certificates of poverty granted by the commissions for the poor are to be signed with the name of the commission for the poor, by the chairman and two members, and the seal of the commission is to be thereunto affixed.

S. 148. At the request of the minister, certificates of poverty may be granted to those district poor who have petitioned him to excuse them the church dues, as, for instance, for baptism, marriages, &c.

IX. Granting of Free Burial.

S. 149. The commissions for the poor grant a free burial on the death of a poor person, if the deceased leaves no property to defray the expenses thereof.

S. 150. When the relations of the deceased have appeared and proved the fairness of the request for a free burial, a free-burial ticket is then to be executed, and to be stamped and signed by the chairman, and given to the receiver, who has to deliver it to the sexton of the church concerned. After the latter has made an entry in the register of burials, and noted such

such registration on the ticket, the claimant has to present such ticket to the registry for the support of the poor, by whom all the necessary orders for the burial are to be given. Previously to the delivery of the free-burial ticket to the relations, they are to be informed that the bodies, to be buried during the six winter months at the expense of the poor's pay office, are to be then given up for anatomy.

S. 151. A burial partially free is not admissible; and, consequently, every one for whom it is claimed must be buried in the burial-ground in the manner ordained for the poor.

S. 152. The manner in which the burial of those poor who have been members of benefit societies is to take place, will be fixed upon hereafter.

S. 153. No master or mistress is bound to pay the funeral expenses of his or her servant. If, therefore, a free burial is demanded for a servant, it is to be granted; but the commission for the poor has then a right to take possession of the property left by the deceased, or to secure the wages which may be in arrear, and to report thereon to the directors of the poor.

X. Proceedings to be taken on the Death of supported Poor People, with respect to the Property left by them.

S. 154. Immediately after the death of a receiver of alms, the member of the commission concerned takes cognizance of the property left by the pauper, and in case he thinks proper so to do, puts it into safe custody; makes an inventory thereof, being assisted thereto by the serjeant, and reports the same to the chairman.

S. 155. The ready money which may be found with a deceased pauper is to be sent to the chief office for paying the poor; but furniture and clothes, with an inventory thereof, drawn up by the member and the chairman, are to be sent, with a certificate from the doctor of the poor, stating the nature of the illness or complaint of which the deceased died, to the administration of the new hospital, and a copy of which is to be returned by the latter, receipted, which is then to be presented, together with the minutes thereof, to the directors of the poor.

S. 156. If the doctor is of opinion that there is anything infectious in the clothes left by the deceased, and that they ought therefore to be destroyed, he has to report the same to the commission for the poor and to the commissary of the police for the district, and also to make it known to the directors of the poor.

S. 157. The furniture, &c. are carried away by waggons, which must be hired at the lowest possible rate, under escort of the city serjeant; the expenses thereof must be liquidated at the next meeting and entered in the accounts, provided they cannot be defrayed out of the ready money left by the deceased.

S. 158. If the property left is very inconsiderable, or of little or no value, it may be given up to the relations, provided they wish to have it and are in need of it, and have previously applied to the directors of the poor for that purpose.

S. 159. Should it be found that a deceased receiver of alms has been in possession of some property besides the articles in his lodgings, the directors of the poor are to be made acquainted therewith.

S. 160. For the hereditary right of the administration of the poor to the property of a deceased receiver of alms, the commissions for the poor are referred to the regulations contained in S. 51.

XI. Investigation of, and Opinion on, all Requisitions, &c. release or cancelment of Debts, which are sent to the Service and Billetting Directors, to the Pay-office of the Royal City Court, and to the Trades' Tax Directors, are to be referred to the Commissions for the Poor, for their opinion thereon.

S. 161. All proceedings coming from the above-mentioned authorities are to be dealt with in the same manner as the concerns of the poor; the investigation is to be effected by two members, who have carefully to take into their consideration the questions to be answered, and to give their full opinion thereon.

S. 162. Receivers of alms, or other inhabitants who, after a strict investigation, have been put on the same footing with them, are to be free of the rent-tax.

S. 163. This is, however, only for that part of the dwelling for which they themselves have to pay the rent; the other parts let to under-tenants, or as sleeping-rooms, are to pay the rent-tax, except the occupiers be in the same circumstances as to poverty, or belong to that class of persons who are exonerated from the payment of taxes.

S. 164. If the acting directors forward to the commissions for the poor, for their consideration, a list of those who have hitherto been free from the rent-tax, whether they are to remain free from it any longer, the circumstances of each of those persons exempted are to be strictly investigated, and an opinion given thereon in the proper column; the inhabitants living elsewhere in the district, and who may deserve to be exempted from payment of the rent-tax, are to be put down by the commission for the poor in an appendix to the list.

S. 165. Illness, want of nourishment, and other great distress, justify a claim for the exemption from payment of the rent-tax, and costs of law-suits, &c. during a certain period.

S. 166. On giving opinions in cases of the trades-tax, the circumstances to be considered are not those of the mode of living, or of the trade, but only those of poverty.

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XII. The Collection, and accounting for the Monies collected, in Houses and Churches.

S. 167. As the expenses of the chief pay-office for the poor are every day increasing, great exertions are to be made that the money voluntarily subscribed by the inhabitants does not diminish, and that they will increase their subscriptions as much as possible.

S. 168. Every half-year the register is to be revised and looked into, in order to ascertain whether there are not other persons in the district, besides those who already subscribe, who being wealthy, and, from the circumstances of their superior situation in life, legally exempt from the rent-tax, might not be induced also to subscribe, or if they have already done so, to increase the amount of their subscription.

S. 169. The collection takes place monthly; the city serjeant and one member (generally the chairman of the district) signs, together with the chairman of the commission, the receipts, as prescribed by the book, for the money collected.

S. 170. Receipts which have not been paid must be returned, and in case a change of residence has taken place, they are to be sent with the lithographic form to the commission for the poor concerned.

S. 171. On the delivery of the monies which have been collected, the payment whereof is to be made to the chief pay-office of the poor, 12 days after the expiration of one month at the latest, the delivery ticket (which must be signed either by the chairman or by some other member occupied in the collecting of the subscriptions), the book of collections, and the sheet or list of receipts, are always to be presented to the directors of the poor.

S. 172. The money collected is never to be applied to the payment of the expenses of the district.

S. 173. On Easter Monday, and on the day kept in memory of the dead (in November), there are to be collections made for the poor, and for the charity schools, in all the churches, after divine service, in the forenoon and in the afternoon.

S. 174. By the regulation generally adopted, two of the commissions for the poor have to perform the duty of standing at the church doors with plates in their hands on these occasions.

S. 175. The money collected, after the final conclusion of divine service, is to be counted in the vestry-room, in the presence of the minister, and a memorandum, stating the amount received, is to be signed by all the members present, and also by the minister: on the following day, the money and the memorandum are to be sent to the directors of the poor by the two commissions.

S. 176. Except those monies usually collected, no commission for the poor, unless expressly approved by the directors of the poor, is allowed to make any private collection; nor is the city serjeant allowed to solicit subscriptions on books, prints, &c., or to offer such things as may be received from private persons or from private societies, for the benefit of the fund for the poor, to the inhabitants of the district for sale, unless he be ordered by the directors of the poor so to do.

S. 177. If any commission for the poor receives money for a certain poor person, or for a certain stated purpose, such money is to be entered in the cash-book, and a regular debtor and creditor account kept thereof, as is done with the money received of the chief pay-office for the poor, and to be conscientiously applied according to the wish of the donor; but if any of such grants are restricted by conditions which the commissions for the poor may think impracticable, they are to report thereon to the directors of the poor.

XIII. Decrease of Begging in the Streets and Houses.

S. 178. The chairman and members of the commissions for the poor have to exert themselves to the utmost, in order to induce their fellow citizens to retain all writings, petitions, &c. which may have been presented to them by beggars, and to deliver the same to the commissions for the relief of the poor of the district in which they live, and to cause the beggars to be taken before the said commissions, in order that their cases may be investigated.

S. 179. Receivers of alms and nurse-money are not to beg, on pain of forfeiting their claim to such alms or nurse-money.

S. 180. It is the duty of the city serjeants to watch the beggars, and to take them up when they transgress; a duty of which they are often to be reminded.

S. 181. It is desirable that the commissions for the poor should increase their endeavours to induce those citizens and inhabitants, who are in the habit of distributing relief in small or large sums, monthly or oftener, in houses or shops, to discontinue such distributions, as it only tends to a demoralizing beggary.

Berlin, the 1st of January 1833.

Enclosure No. 3.

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RESULT of Observations of the Board of Health respecting the Poor; extracted from the
Report of the Committee of Management.

In 1824:

Sick remaining from the year 1823	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	439
New Patients	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	11,104

11,543

Of these however were dismissed as cured	-	-	-	-	-	-	7,682
Removed to the Charité Hospital	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,558
Remained after cure	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,242
Dead	-	-	-	-	-	-	595

11,077

Remaining in treatment - - - - 466

In 1825:

New Patients	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10,591
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TOTAL - - - - 11,057

Of these were dismissed as cured	-	-	-	-	-	-	7,542
Removed to the Charité Hospital	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,425
Remained after cure	-	-	-	-	-	-	991
Dead	-	-	-	-	-	-	650

10,680

To be carried on to the year 1826 - - - - 449

Trusses and Bandages furnished:

In 1822	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	219
1823	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	299
1824	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	364
1825	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	303

Artificial Baths granted:

In 1822, 455 Russian baths; 30 sulphur ditto.
 In 1823, 560 Russian baths; 60 sulphur ditto; 12 salt ditto.
 In 1824, 623 Russian baths; 66 sulphur ditto; 11 herb ditto.
 In 1825, 744 Russian baths; 21 sulphur ditto.

ANSWERS to QUESTIONS respecting the *Prussian PAUPER REGULATIONS*, &c.
 from *Alexander Gibsone, Esq.*, His Majesty's Consul, *Dantzic*.

Dantzic.

VAGRANTS.

1. Mendicity does not much prevail in this country, particularly not in this or the adjacent provinces, there being, in general, sufficient employment for all who are able and willing to work. In the large and populous towns, particularly in those existing chiefly by commerce, shipping or trade, when these become less thriving, and the labouring classes thence suffer, mendicity is a consequence. It follows also, in some degree, when there is much employment at some seasons of the year, but little at others, and the labourers do not provide against the time of need. But when mendicity prevails much, it is owing to a lax administration of the laws against it, which are strict, and prescribe suitable preventive means, as will be seen hereafter.

Mendicity shows itself by begging in the streets or on the public roads, often by children or by mothers with children, and sometimes by asking alms at dwelling-houses, the latter chiefly by stranger-beggars. It is frequent at public Catholic festivals, to which beggars resort in numbers, and on which occasions the police is less disposed to interfere, being strictly prohibited from disturbing, in any way, meetings for religious worship.

2. Persons seeking work can usually find it, though perhaps not always immediately. Travelling handicraftsmen commonly obtain some assistance from corporations of their craft, where such still voluntarily exist, for they mostly ceased upon the free exercise of industry being established in 1810. Persons going about the country, seeking work, must have passports from the authority under whose jurisdiction they have dwelt, and they do not receive

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such without being able to show that they have the means of support while unemployed. In general it is the duty of the police authority in every community, where any person in distress may come, to render him the needful assistance for the moment, which must be repaid

- a) by the provincial pauper fund, if the person be a foreigner, or have no domicile; or,
- b) by the community, or owner of the estate (called the dominium,) he belongs to, if a native of the country.

DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

1. These are in no cases quartered on householders. Every pretended needy person is duly examined by a medical man, whether he be bodily and mentally able to maintain himself (it is the same with families,) by work, and in this case he is required by the police to do so, and to conduct himself properly. Any one who does not, is sent to the poor-and-workhouse (the work is compulsive,) of the province, where he is taught to earn a livelihood. If the distress be temporary, the proprietor of the estate (called the dominium), or the community in which the indigent person has acquired a settlement, is bound to afford the requisite relief; yet having the right to claim restitution, upon the assisted person becoming able to make it. When this is not the case, and the relief has been afforded by a community, the members of it must bear the expense, if in a town, out of its general funds; if in the country, in the proportions they pay the land-tax to the king, called war-contribution. The support is rendered in giving a dwelling, (with a garden, if in the country,) fuel, salt, money, &c., wholly or partly, sometimes by boarding the pauper, according to the necessity of the case.

2. They are only boarded with individuals, in or out of the community, by agreement with these, when such mode of assistance is deemed necessary, and which is done at the expense of the community. In Dantzic, this is chiefly done only with children, when not received into one of the public charitable institutions, and at an expense of 1 rx. (dollar) to 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ rx. monthly (about 35 $\frac{1}{10}$ to 46 $\frac{1}{2}$ pence).

3. There is in every province a poor-and-workhouse (the work compulsive,) for receiving the following persons:

- a) such as have indeed a fixed place of abode in the country, yet seek their livelihood by begging, although able to work;
- b) actual paupers, who receive a fixed maintenance or aid from communities, benevolent institutions &c., yet notwithstanding wander about the country begging;
- c) invalid soldiers, found begging, as every soldier who has been rendered invalid in war enjoys a pension from the state (a very small one);
- d) travelling handicraftsmen, as none are permitted to travel in their profession who have not the means of subsistence, or are above 30 years old;
- e) foreign vagabonds, until they can be transported over the borders;
- f) those who have been punished for crime, in the fortress or house of correction, and after expiration of their term of punishment, are unable to show how they can earn an honest livelihood;
- g) such as by particular sentences are, or by future laws may be, declared subjects for the compulsive workhouse.
- h) Parents and guardians are also permitted, with the approbation of the court of guardianship, and of the supreme high guardian of the province, to send degenerate children and foster-children to the workhouse for a fixed period, but upon paying for them.

In Dantzic there is a municipal poor-and-workhouse, but the wardens are so particular in receiving the inmates, that few are fit to work.

4. In some towns there exist (and even in the country, though rarely,) family charitable institutions, hospitals, and bequests to churches, for rendering more or less support to impotent paupers, till their death. These alms institutions, however, are only considered as private establishments, and do not belong to the public institutions for the poor.

5. It is left to every proprietor of an estate (called the dominium), to every town and village community, to provide and select, at their option, a livelihood for those individuals, having a settlement under their jurisdiction, who cannot procure such for themselves. Should a proprietor of an estate, or a community, not fulfil this obligation, it is compelled to do so, but which seldom is necessary.

6. This is partly answered in No. 5; but it is to be observed, that when, from bad crops, inundations, &c., a general scarcity occurs in particular parts of the country, works of public utility, such as turnpike-roads, drains, and the like, are ordered by Government, in order to afford the inhabitants the means of subsistence, which work is paid for with money, grain, salt or other articles, as most suitable, according to circumstances.

7. No person, able-bodied or capable of earning a livelihood, has a legal claim for support, but he can only, when misfortune befalls him, receive a temporary aid in the way of an advance. For further answer to this question, see the preceding answers.

8. All children capable of going to school are obliged to attend it. Those whose parents are unable to pay the expense must be sent thither at the cost of the community to which they belong, which must also do the needful for clothing, feeding, educating and apprenticing them. Such children also frequently receive assistance from private benevolent societies and individuals.

9. The

9. The law prescribes that parents and grand-parents must support their children and grand-children, and *vice versa*, also brothers and sisters each other, when requiring aid from sickness, impotence through age, misfortunes, &c., and upon the court judging the support necessary, when it determines as to the obligation to contribute, and to the amount to be given, according to circumstances.

The legal prescriptions for mutual support by relations are to be seen in the accompanying Paper, marked (A). *

10. In general, no assistance is given by loans. Under peculiar circumstances, as in times of general dearth in a province, seed-corn is sometimes delivered by Government, to be returned in kind, or paid for gradually.

IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

1. The maintenance of persons said to be unfit for work must, as before said, always be grounded on an attest from a medical man, that such is actually the case, and the maintenance must be provided for as follows :

- a) in particular by relations, ascendants, descendants or collaterals, as stated in the preceding answer, 9 ;
- b) when the relations have not the means to furnish support and subsistence, this obligation devolves on the community or the proprietor of the estate to which the needy person belongs ;
- c) should the pauper belong to no community, he must be supported out of the provincial poor-fund, either in the provincial poor-and-workhouse or in a private manner.

The Dantzic poor-house contains usually from 270 to 300 inmates, (about two-thirds male and one-third female,) but can receive as far as 350.

2. In the towns, the community must provide for all the absolute wants of the poor out of the municipal funds, and in every town a board is established for directing the management of these affairs.

In the country, the proprietors of the estates, or the village authorities, must provide for these wants, for which, in the latter case, the members of the village community must contribute in the proportions as they pay the taxes to the King, say the land-tax, called war contribution.

In Dantzic, the poor, besides being placed in the poor-house or otherwise assisted, receive alms at their homes from a charitable society of the citizens, whose funds arise partly from private contributions, partly from an annual supply out of the municipal funds. From this society about 1,000 persons yearly receive support, (about one-third males and two-thirds females), but not above about 3 s. to 4 s., and not under 1 s. monthly, for the time the support is required. In winter, when severe, they get also firing, partly in fir-wood but chiefly in turf. The sum thus disbursed is now considerably less than before, from the control on the part of the magistracy being much stricter. The whole annual expense of the society is about 1,200 l. sterling.

3. This is answered, for the most part, in the preceding reply. It is altogether voluntary with individuals to receive paupers as boarders.

4. This question is also answered in the reply to No. 2. None are quartered or billeted on the householders without the consent of these. In the country, the farmers and cottagers sometimes give board and lodging to paupers by turns, chiefly to children ; but this is not properly allowed of, and it is not to be recommended, being injurious to the paupers.

5. The reply to this is contained mostly in that to No. 1. All the absolute wants of the paupers must be supplied in the ways mentioned.

SICK.

1. The law prescribes that every town and every village community must support its own members when in distress, provided there be no relations able to do so, and the owners of estates are under a similar obligation ; hence the sick stand under the same regulations as the impotent through age.

In populous towns, institutions for the sick are established at the expense of the community, generally under the direction of a committee composed of members of the magistracy and of citizens.

In the country, generally, hospitals are only established at different points, for the cure of infectious and loathsome diseases, at the expense of the provincial pauper-funds.

In Dantzic there is an infirmary for the poor sick inhabitants of the town and its territory, under the direction of four citizens, in which there are usually about 400 sick, on an average, above the half of which are males and nearly the half females, in general, about two-thirds of whom pay nothing, and the remainder only about 3 s. per week. Further particulars of this institution are to be seen in a separate paper.

2. In the towns, the poor sick are provided for in public infirmaries or at their homes, at the expense of the community, accordingly as they require medical or surgical relief. In the country, every district (circle) under a landrath (the public officer administering the police in the first stage) has a physician and a surgeon appointed for it, the former having about 30 l., the latter about 18 l., yearly salary, who upon the appearance of any epidemical sickness determine its nature, and, according to the necessity of the case, are directed by the landrath to make the arrangements required by that. The medical measures of police are

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defrayed out of the revenue of the State; the cure of the sick in their dwellings is at the expense of the housekeeper, or, in case of his inability, of the community. The physician and surgeon of the circle are paid their salaries by Government.

3. In order to facilitate the cure of the sick paupers, the landrath makes it his business to effect an arrangement between the community of each circle and its medical superintendents, for curing the destitute sick, for inoculating the cow-pox, &c., and the expense, with that of supporting the destitute sick, is paid out of the public fund of the circle. The states of the circle are left at liberty to determine in what manner the contributions for the necessary disbursements of the circle are to be raised by it.

4. Midwives are appointed for suitable districts, as well in the towns as in the country, for assisting lying-in women, and are remunerated for each case at a fixed very moderate rate. Very poor inhabitants, unable to pay the remuneration, are exempted from it, and the midwives are indemnified by a small salary from the provincial pauper funds. The sick expenses of lying-in women, in necessary urgent cases, are defrayed, according to the regulations previously stated, by their relations, or by the community to which they belong.

There is an institution in Dantzig for giving regular instruction in midwifery, at the expense of Government. In furtherance of this object, from 115 to 125 poor women are annually delivered in it, and maintained till their recovery, gratis; besides which, other poor women are delivered at their own homes, also without remuneration. The pupils receive instruction, with the necessary books, and are maintained free of expense; and on leaving the establishment, they get a case with the necessary instruments for exercising their profession. There are two courses of instruction annually, in each of which from 16 to 20 pupils are instructed. The object of the establishment is, to provide thorough-bred midwives for the province of West Prussia and a part of Pomerania. The total yearly expenses of the establishment amount to about 670*l.* sterling.

There is a similar institution, I believe, in every province.

5. There are no general regulations for affording public assistance to the sick, except those stated; but support is never refused, on the part of Government, in cases when whole communities are attacked with epidemical sickness, and are unable to provide for the necessary assistance.

CHILDREN :

Illegitimate.

1. Illegitimate children are baptized in the name of the mother, which they must bear, and she educates them, at least till their fourth year; the father, however, is bound to pay her the expenses of child-bed, and of a suitable education until the child is 14 years old, which are fixed by the court according to circumstances, (at least one dollar, or about 3*s.* monthly,) the court also appointing a guardian. The legal prescriptions for their maintenance by the father or mother, also for assistance from the relatives of these, are contained in a separate Paper herewith, marked (B).

2. The answer to this query is partly contained in that to the preceding one. In cases of inability to pay the expenses, the regulations for the support of paupers come into effect.

3. They are no where supported at the public expense, say at that of Government; but the expense of education and maintenance, when the parents or relatives are unable to bear it, is provided for according to the regulations for the support of paupers.

In Dantzig there are two municipal hospitals for receiving, maintaining and educating children; namely, one for this from their birth until confirmed, and one from their sixth year until confirmed; which hospitals are supported partly from the interest of their own funds, partly from public collections which are allowed to be made, and from assistance received from the town's funds.

The former hospital supports about 150 children within, and about 250 without doors; the latter at an expense of about 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.* weekly, being chiefly boarded in the country.

The children of poor persons are received into both hospitals, (in the latter, chiefly orphans,) gratis. In the former of the two institutions some are received, chiefly illegitimate, at certain rates of remuneration.

Further particulars respecting these hospitals shall be transmitted very soon.

Orphans, Foundlings, or Deserted Children.

4, 5, 6, & 7. The answers to these questions are exactly as stated in the three preceding ones. They are no where quartered or billeted on householders, unless by agreement with these. In small communities, such children are usually provided for by boarding them with the poorer inhabitants, at a monthly expense of about 3*s.* to 4*s.* to the community. Sometimes, in villages, the inhabitants maintain poor children belonging to the village by turns, but this is not properly permitted by law, and it is not beneficial to the children.

CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND :

Cripples.

1. Cripples are provided for and subsisted by the communities to which they belong, according to the laws and regulations for the maintenance of paupers.

Deaf

Deaf and Dumb.

Such are provided for in establishments for larger districts of the country, (usually for more than one province,) whereof the expense is defrayed by Government, or from the provincial pauper funds or contributions. These institutions have for object, to receive such children from 10 to 14 years old, to educate them, and afterwards to get them bred to a trade, by which their future subsistence may be ensured. Every other support, besides this provision, must be rendered by their relatives, by the community or estate to which they belong, or from the provincial pauper funds, according to the regulations for the support of paupers.

In the Dantzic regency department, having a population of 315,731 souls, there are 301 deaf and dumb.

Blind.

1. There are no provincial institutions for these. They are provided for according to the regulations for the support of paupers, and to the legal prescriptions for assistance from relatives.

2, 3, & 4. In this department there are 203 blind. The regulations and prescriptions just mentioned are applicable to the objects of these questions.

In the country, cripples, deaf and dumb, and blind, are sometimes maintained (in small villages) by the inhabitants, by turns, but this is irregular. When maintained at the expense of the community, this costs from about 2*l.* 14*s.* to 3*l.* 12*s.* sterling yearly, for each of these helpless persons; but the expense is uncertain, as depending upon the number of his children.

IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

1, 2, 3, & 4. In fixed portions of the country there are asylums for mentally deranged persons, whereof the expenses are defrayed according to the regulations and legal prescriptions for the support of paupers, by the community or by their relations. The expense for each of these unfortunate persons amounts, as I have been credibly informed, to about 10*l.* 10*s.* sterling annually. Those not dangerous are, particularly in the country, often retained in the community, and provided for privately at perhaps about one-third of the expense.

The municipal infirmary at Dantzic never refuses, in urgent cases, to receive unfortunate persons of this description.

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

1. The regulations for the support of paupers operate beneficially on industry. Every proprietor of an estate, every community of a town or village, has unquestionably the most correct knowledge of the bodily condition, of the moral conduct, of the expertness, of the capability to earn a livelihood in whole or in part, and of the pecuniary circumstances, of the needy persons under their jurisdiction, whom they are bound to support, as well as of the circumstances of their relatives. The pauper knows that aid must always be given when necessary, and he applies to the proper authority for it, when not duly afforded; while he is, on the other hand, deterred from making exorbitant claims, by his situation being so thoroughly known in every respect, and from ungrounded demands not being complied with. In general, therefore, neither the party called upon for assistance, nor that requiring it, inclines to let the authority interpose, but an amicable arrangement usually takes place between them, according to existing circumstances. The pauper must perform what service or work he can for those who must assist him, or for himself, towards contributing to his own support as far as in his power; while those rendering assistance can seek only in themselves the means to do so, of course in the least expensive and most suitable manner. The paupers are employed at various kinds of work and service, accordingly as such is wanted and as they are able to perform it, and this as well for their supporters, privately, as in the public workhouses.

2. This reciprocal obligation, therefore, operates favourably on the frugality of both parties, particularly on that of the pauper, because of his standing under the immediate control of those obliged to support him, with respect to his moral conduct, and to the supplying of his wants.

But, under these circumstances, the success of the due interpretation of the law, and its beneficial operation, depend upon the appropriate and energetic interposition of the public authorities; hence is this branch of administration generally very carefully and strictly superintended. Particular vigilance has to be directed to such claims for assistance as arise from disinclination to work, that these do not fall unnecessarily hard upon the party providing for them, but that they be always, and properly, removed through the medium of the provincial workhouse. Thus also is mendicity entirely prevented in those districts where the police regulations are strictly enforced; and the local authorities apprehend and deliver up to the police every mendicant, in order to be supported by the community or estate to which he belongs, or to be consigned over to the provincial workhouse. In the same measure as the local authorities are lax in performing this duty, do the evils it is intended to remove gain ground. Beggars are generally very averse to being sent to the poor or work house.

3. As all idleness among paupers is prevented by the due application of the law, the usual inducements to marry remain uninfluenced by the receipt or the expectation of relief.

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4. The mutual dependence of parents, children, and other relatives, as regards the reciprocal obligation to assist each other, when in distress, being fixed by law, their mutual affection is the less exposed to suffer from claims of this nature; and the assistance is usually given voluntarily, to avoid compulsion. When the pauper is once provided for, the moral ties between him and his relations may not materially suffer, particularly if he has been reduced to indigence by misfortune and not by misconduct. It very frequently happens that even relations, so poor themselves as to be freed by law from rendering any support, still give it (in a small degree perhaps, yet as far as they are able,) to their destitute kindred who are maintained by public means, when within their reach and not undeserving; which speaks in favour of a natural affection continuing to operate.

5. The moral condition of the able-bodied self-supporting labourers, even of the lowest class, is unquestionably preferable to that of the persons subsisting on alms or public charity, from the feeling of greater independence which they enjoy, and as self-earned bread naturally has more relish than that proceeding from charity; a feeling surely very general among men, as it arises out of the main-spring to all their exertions, the desire of maintaining their existence and improving their condition, by which all are so strongly actuated. When the case is different, it should be considered as an exception to a common law of nature, arising from the finer feelings in individuals being blunted by poverty, but particularly when a disposition to idleness, too common with such persons, is not checked. In Prussia, however, the exception is the more rare, as all paupers are obliged to contribute towards their own support, so far as they are able, by some sort of labour or service, and as those who can work, but will not, are sent to the workhouse, where they are compelled to work, by which idleness is discouraged and industry promoted.

As to the comparative condition of these self-supporting labourers, and of paupers maintained in the public institutions, with regard to their food, that of the latter may generally be, although meagre, rather better than of the former, particularly in the present times, when neither commerce nor agriculture flourish. This will appear more clear from the dietaries preparing to be sent, (p. 467, *et post*,) and considering that the lowest class of labourers live, for the most part, chiefly on potatoes and rye-bread, of which, however, the quantities cannot be stated. The only, yet questionable, advantage the latter have, is, that they have it in their power to supply themselves with spirituous liquors, the want of which they would consider a great privation, but which paupers are bereaved of. However, paupers maintained privately (as in the country, and according to the prescription of the landrath,) may not even live so well as the lowest class of self-supporting labourers.

It is, in general, to be observed that the right of settlement of individuals is established in the following manner:

If any person acquires the right of citizenship in a town, or a possession (house or lying-ground) in the country, or if he is permitted by the local authority to form a regular domicile by becoming householder, he then is considered as an expressly accepted member of the community, and the obligation to support him, when reduced to want, immediately commences. So soon, therefore, as any person shows an intention to settle, or to become householder, in a place, it is the business of the community, or of those interested, to ascertain, through the medium of the proper local authority, whether or not the immigrant possesses sufficient means to maintain himself there. Should this not be the case, and he is evidently unable to earn a livelihood, then must the support of the individual (or family) be borne by the community where he has previously dwelt, and it is not advisable to permit the change of domicile. Thence is the rule justified, that upon any person being regularly received as member of a community, with the express consent of its magistracy, that community becomes bound to render him support, when his situation requires it. Minors belong to the community in which their parents were settled, even after the death of these. With regard to other inhabitants, only that town or village community is bound to maintain a pauper, where he last contributed to its public burthens.

A person who is of age, and has resided three succeeding years in a place (for instance, as servant,) acquires by that the right of settlement, but which he again loses by leaving the place for one year. Privileged corporations, that possess a particular poor-fund, or raise among themselves, pursuant to their laws, the means to provide for their needy members, are specially bound to maintain them.

In conformity with the rules before stated must also the wives, widows and destitute children of paupers be supported by the communities or corporations, or the owners of the estates.

Paupers for whom communities, corporations, proprietors of estates, or relatives, are not bound to provide, according to the foregoing rules, or when these are unable to do so, have to be maintained in provincial poor-and-workhouses. These are established at the expense of Government, and supported by contributions from the whole province.

The financial matters of the poor-and-workhouses in these parts, are not yet so well administered as they might be, but reforms are making.

The poor-and-workhouse of West Prussia at Graudenz, is said to be the most expensive of any, and the provincial states have not yet been able to get a reform effected, but no doubt such will take place ere long. By the information I have received, the 93 inmates of that establishment cost each, last year, for maintenance, about - - £. 11 8 6

Less his earnings - - - - - 1 6 6

Leaving about - - - - - £. 10 2 -

(partly from the number being so small).

In the house of correction at Graudenz, each of its 324 inmates cost, last year, about 8*l.* 9*s.* 2*d.*; or less his earnings, about 6*l.* 15*s.* 8*d.*

The expense of the house of correction at Ragnit, in Lithuania, (the number of inmates I have not learned,) was last year about 5*l.* 5*s.* 4*d.* sterling per head; or less his earnings, about 3*l.* 10*s.* 2*d.*

By the Berlin state newspaper of the 20th February last, No. 51, the house of correction at Naugardt, in Pomerania, containing on an average 416 inmates, last year (above three-fourths male and nearly one-fourth female,) had an expense for each inmate of about 6*l.* 17*s.* 3*d.* sterling; or deducting his earnings, of about 2*l.* 18*s.* 8*d.*

And by the same newspaper of the 2d of this present month, No. 121, the house of correction at Lichtenburg, in Silesia, had an expense, last year, for each inmate (on an average about 600, whereof about three-fourths males and one-fourth females), at the rate of about 7*l.* 6*s.* 3*d.* sterling; or less his earnings, of about 2*l.* 10*s.* 5*d.*

Houses of correction are maintained at the expense of Government.

The poor-and-workhouse at Tapiau, in East Prussia, seems to be particularly well administered, and it was proposed, when the provincial states were lately assembled here, as a model for reforming that institution at Graudenz, but not carried. It is arranged for 300 male and 100 female inmates; and their maintenance, including all expenses of clothing, firing, management, &c., has lately been farmed out for six years, at the rate of 1 $\frac{3}{4}$ silver groshes daily, per head, or 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ *s.* gr. weekly, the latter sum making about 14 $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.*, but the farmer having the benefit of their work. The victuals to be furnished are prescribed by a late regulation, whereof I shall soon transmit a translation.

Henceforth this institution at Tapiau is only to receive vagrants, and the destitute poor, unfit for work, are to be maintained in the different circles of the province (East Prussia).

The maintenance and all expenses of the poorhouse at Dantzig are reckoned at about 4*l.* 15*s.* sterling, for each inmate, annually.

The maintenance of each child in the Dantzig Child and Orphan Hospital, costs yearly about 2*l.* 5*s.* 8*d.* sterling; and the clothing, about 16*s.* 10*d.*

In the Dantzig Charitable Hospital for Children, the maintenance of each child costs about 2*l.* 2*s.* 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.* sterling; and the clothing, about 1*l.* 0*s.* 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.* yearly.

Further particulars of these three Dantzig municipal establishments shall be sent soon.

LABOURERS, &c.

1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month, or the year, with and without provisions, in summer and in winter?—The average rates of wages are, daily,

In the Country :				In Summer.	In Winter.
Of agricultural labourers	-	-	- about	4 $\frac{3}{4}$ <i>d.</i> to 7 <i>d.</i>	3 $\frac{1}{2}$ <i>d.</i> to 4 $\frac{3}{4}$ <i>d.</i>
Of other labourers	-	-	- —	8 $\frac{1}{4}$ <i>d.</i> to 11 $\frac{3}{4}$ <i>d.</i>	4 $\frac{3}{8}$ <i>d.</i> to 7 <i>d.</i>
Of journeymen masons and house carpenters	-	-	- —	21 <i>d.</i> to 23 <i>d.</i>	17 <i>d.</i> to 23 <i>d.</i>
In the larger Towns :					
Of common labourers	-	-	- —	8 $\frac{1}{4}$ <i>d.</i> to 11 $\frac{3}{4}$ <i>d.</i>	7 <i>d.</i> to 9 $\frac{1}{4}$ <i>d.</i>
Of sawyers and other labourers in the timber trade	-	-	- —	11 <i>d.</i> to 16 <i>d.</i>	8 <i>d.</i> to 12 <i>d.</i>
Of journeymen masons and house carpenters	-	-	- —	21 <i>d.</i> to 23 <i>d.</i>	21 <i>d.</i> to 23 <i>d.</i>

Of shoemakers and tailors, at the rate of about 13 $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.*

The agricultural labourers get besides a dwelling, either free of or at a small rent, with a garden, pasture for a cow in summer, and a small load of hay in winter, and fuel. The other men receive only wages.

It may be remarked that work is usually more frequent in the large towns than in the country; in summer throughout, than in winter; and that in flourishing times the labourers earn more, particularly in the commercial and maritime towns.

2. Is piece-work general?—Piece-work is not general, but various kinds of work are paid for by the piece, as well in the towns as in the country.

3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—A labourer, with such employment, may earn yearly, on an average, in the country, equal to about 8*l.* 10*s.* to 9*l.* sterling; in the larger towns, 10*l.* to 10*l.* 10*s.* sterling; the advantages of the country labourer being reckoned to money.

4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?—This is very difficult to state. In general, they spend all or nearly all they earn. Labourers, from 16 to 60 years, pay to the state about 18*d.* yearly, called "Classification-tax," in lieu of excise on butchers' meat, and on the produce of corn ground at the mill, say, labourers living in the country and in the small towns; whereas those in the larger towns pay that excise.

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The expense of school-money and of religious instruction, is about 18*d.* yearly for each child. The cost of the usual most necessary clothes of country labourers, is annually, from about 24*s.* to 30*s.* for males, and about 18*s.* to 24*s.* for females; the clothes of other labourers cost in proportion to their earnings, and they have a disposition to dress as well as they can.

5. Is there any, and what employment for women and children?—In the country, women and children are employed at various work in the fields, particularly during harvest; in the gardens; with the cattle; at washing and shearing the sheep; at turning the grain in the storehouses; in the breweries and distilleries; as assistants in erecting buildings; in spinning and weaving, &c.

In the towns, they are employed at various kinds of house and out-of-door work.

In the useful employment of children much remains to be done. It is only somewhat regular after their 14th year, as they must attend school till then, though this is not very strictly observed. There are almost no manufactories in this neighbourhood, in which they could find occupation.

6. What can women, and children, under 16, earn per week, in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed?—The daily wages are, in the country, of women, as occupied see No. 5, about 3½*d.* to 4½*d.* in summer, and about 2½*d.* to 3*d.* in winter; of children, from 12 to 16 years, about 2½*d.* to 3*d.*, at an average computation.

In the towns, the daily wages are, of women, at house-work, about 4½*d.* to 7*d.*; of children, from 12 to 16, at various work, about 2½*d.*, but with less regular employment.

7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8 and 5 years respectively (the eldest a boy), expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?—A woman may earn, so employed, in the country, about 3*l.* 15*s.* yearly; and in the larger towns, about 4*l.* 10*s.* yearly; a boy of 12 to 16 years, so employed, may earn, in the country, about 3*l.* yearly; and in the larger towns, about the same. Children under 14 years have few regular means of earning, as they must attend school.

8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children; and if so, on what food?—Very well; living, in the country, on rye-bread, potatoes and other vegetables, fruit, food of wheat-flour, lard, milk, meat once or twice weekly, and fish, but chiefly on rye-bread and potatoes.

In the larger towns, on much the same food, but with less fruit and vegetables, and more bread and potatoes.

9. Could it lay by anything, and how much?—In general little or nothing, particularly if there be many children, and in these not flourishing times.

10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?—The garden annexed to a labourer's habitation, in the country, contains generally from about two-thirds to one and one-third of an acre; not so much in some parts, or where the land is very good. In return, partly, the labourer gives his surplus manure to his landlord.

11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations?—The owners of labourers' habitations are, in the country, almost universally the proprietors of the land, but some labourers have their own cottages; in the towns, the owners are usually tradesmen or persons of the middle class.

12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale?—The yearly rent, in the country may be, for a mere sleeping-place, from about 6*s.* to 9*s.*; for a dwelling, without a garden, about 15*s.*; for a dwelling, with garden, fodder for a cow, and fuel, about 36*s.* to 40*s.*, when rent is paid; but generally none is asked, the landlord having the advantage of some little work from the labourers, and of having them more at command when wanted.

In the towns, the yearly rent of a labourer's dwelling may be called from 24*s.* to 48*s.*; it is, however, difficult to state this correctly, from the uncertain value of the houses, in consequence of the bad times. When sold, a house with two dwellings, each of one room, a kitchen, and a spacious kind of lobby, fetches only about 23*l.* to 30*l.* sterling, at present, here.

13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—Land is not generally let to labourers, excepting for growing potatoes, and then only in small parcels, at the rate perhaps of about 8*s.* to 9*s.* per acre. In the vicinity of the larger towns, land is often let in small parcels, for the purpose mentioned, at the rate of about 30*s.* to 36*s.* per acre, the landlord manuring the land; but if the person hiring the land manures it, then frequently no rent is paid, as the landlord enjoys the benefit of this in the use of the land the following year.

14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?—The proportion of the annual deaths to the whole population can only be ascertained for the town of Dantzic and its suburbs, but not for its department. The population of Dantzic and its suburbs, was, in 1831, 54,660 souls; the census being only taken every three years.

The deaths were,				Males.	Females.	Total.
In 1831 (the cholera year)	-	-	-	1,498	1,511	3,009
1832 - - - - -	-	-	-	976	885	1,861
1833 - - - - -	-	-	-	896	938	1,834

15. The

15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?—The births were,

	LEGITIMATE.			ILLEGITIMATE.		
	Males.	Females.	TOTAL.	Males.	Females.	TOTAL.
In 1831 (cholera year) -	837	850	1,687	124	135	259
1832 - - - - -	839	738	1,577	130	124	254
1833 - - - - -	879	818	1,697	133	122	255

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16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?—

There were married, in	1831.	1832.	1833.
Men under 45 years to women under 30 - - - - -	262	262	250
— to ditto above 30 and under 45 - - - - -	107	118	97
— to ditto above 45 - - - - -	12	14	6
Men above 45 and under 60 to women under 30 - - - - -	7	7	10
— to women above 30 and under 45 - - - - -	12	26	9
— to ditto above 45 - - - - -	5	5	7
Men above 60 to women under 30 - - - - -	-	-	1
— to ditto above 30 and under 45 - - - - -	-	2	1
— to ditto above 45 - - - - -	3	2	3
TOTAL - - - - -	408	436	384

17. The average number of children to a marriage?—Cannot be learned.

18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?—See No. 15.

19. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year?—The deaths were,

	LEGITIMATE.		ILLEGITIMATE.		TOTAL.
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	
In 1831 (cholera year,) still born -	26	21	8	13	68
— under one year - - - - -	153	132	50	48	383
1832, still born - - - - -	24	22	10	7	63
— under one year - - - - -	164	100	47	34	345
1833, still born - - - - -	24	14	8	6	52
— under one year - - - - -	178	128	61	47	414

20. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 10th year?—

The deaths were, from the 1st to the 10th year,	Males.	Females.	Total.
In 1831 (cholera year) - - - - -	325	312	637
1832 - - - - -	227	182	409
1833 - - - - -	133	162	295

21. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 18th year?—The deaths were, from the 10th to the 20th year,

In 1831 (cholera year) - - - - -	64	61	125
1832 - - - - -	39	41	80
1833 - - - - -	38	39	77

22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—See No. 16.

23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—Cannot be stated.

24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried, 2d, the married, save?—Not known. Common labourers seldom save anything, and this is particularly the case in the present unprofitable times. When there are exceptions, it is chiefly among the unmarried. The better class of labourers may save in some cases, principally journeymen masons and carpenters, and the like; but the unmarried more than the married. Servants in towns sometimes save.

25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—When savings are made, they are mostly invested in clothes, bedding, furniture, or in a small house acquired. Servants in towns sometimes place savings in the savings-bank here, but few labourers do so.

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I have used every endeavour to make this communication correct and comprehensive, which has required much time, having to collect nearly all the information from private sources, there being little to be found in print. I should not have been able to perform the task to my wish, but for the great assistance received from the director of police, lately appointed here, a most able, intelligent and experienced public officer, whose information can be relied on.

British Consulate, Dantzic, }
27th May 1834.

Alexander Gibsone.

Enclosure (A.)

THE PRUSSIAN LAWS decide on the Obligations of Relations, in regard to mutual Support, as follows :

Common Law of the Country ; Part II. c. 2, par. 251-254.

Par. 251. Also, after the parental authority has ceased, the children and parents are obliged to support each other reciprocally, and the one to maintain the other, when he cannot support himself.

252. If the incapability of self-support has arisen from sickness, misfortunes, or from any other cause not culpably produced, then are the children bound to furnish their parents, and the parents their children, a decent maintenance, according to their means.

253. But should the party requiring assistance be reduced to poverty by his own misconduct, or if he has behaved to the other in such a way, that the latter is entitled to disinherit him, then he must be contented with only the barely necessary support.

254. Children who, after the parental authority has ceased, must still be maintained by their parents, are in this case obliged, according to their ability, to assist their parents in their domestic economy and occupation.

Part II. c. 3, par. 14 to 27, 29 & 30.

Par. 14. Relations in the ascending and descending lines are obliged to maintain each another, according to the more particular prescriptions in the foregoing chapter, regarding parents and children.

15. Also brothers and sisters in the first degree must afford the necessary relief to each other, in cases of total incapability of self-support.

16. It makes no difference whether they are related to such brothers and sisters by full or half-blood, springing from a regular or a morgonatic (left-handed) marriage.

17. Generally, however, is the obligation of the relations to support helpless members of the family dependent on the rules of lawful succession.

18. That one, therefore, who would be the nearest heir of the relation to be maintained, has the nearest obligation to provide for his support.

19. If however, the one nearest bound to this duty should himself be destitute, then must the one next akin take his place.

20. Several equally near relations must bear the expense of the support of the indigent member of the family conjointly, in proportion, however, to their means.

21. Only brothers and sisters are entitled to demand back what the support of their destitute brothers and sisters has cost them, from these, when their circumstances have so far improved that they can make this restitution without detriment to the necessities of themselves and their families.

22. Other lateral relatives, besides brothers and sisters in the first degree, cannot be compelled to support the destitute members of the family.

23. Those, however, who desert their destitute relations, contrary to their natural duty, lose their lawful right of inheritance.

24. But this loss of inheritance can only take place when the relation, whom the same shall affect, has been expressly called upon to maintain his destitute relation, and has refused to do so.

25. Then that one takes his place, who has provided for such helpless person.

26. If several persons have joined for the support and maintenance of the same, then they inherit from him in proportion to their contributions.

27. Alms and presents alone, although they may have been given in certain fixed sums and at certain fixed periods, never make good a right of inheritance.

29. Relations, who have been prevented solely by their own incapability from supporting their helpless relations, can never be punished with the loss of their right of inheritance.

30. But they must refund to that person who has maintained the testator, the amount thus disbursed, as a debt, out of the heritage.

Judgment of the Law Commission of 22d April 1803, and the Rescript grounded thereon of 2d May 1803.

The relations in ascending and descending line, as far as their means admit, are obliged to pay that which is requisite for the most necessary support of the criminal relation, during the investigation, and the infliction of the punishment, accordingly as settled by the authorities.

Cabinet

Cabinet Order of 20 October 1822.

Lateral branches are not bound to maintain their lateral relatives, who are brought to examination and punished by judgment of court, during the investigation and in the place of punishment.

Enclosure (B.)

PRESCRIPTIONS by the General Law of the Country (Allgemeines Land-Recht) for the Maintenance and Education of Illegitimate Children.

Part II. chap. 2 ; par. 612 to 638.

Par. 612. Illegitimate children, who have not acquired the rights of legitimacy, either by the subsequent marriage of the parents, or by juridical decision, or by legitimation, can only demand maintenance and education from the father.

613. To that the father is bound, even when the mother according to the 11th section of the first chapter, has either no indemnification at all, or only the lesser rate, to demand.

614. So soon as the existence of an illegitimate child becomes known, either from a suit between the parents, or from credible information, to the Guardian-court, it must appoint a guardian by virtue of its office.

615. The guardian must support the rights of the child against the illegitimate father, and concert with both parents, under the superintendence of the Guardian-court, the necessary arrangements for its education and maintenance.

616. The guardian is entitled and bound to see that the arrangement made is adhered to, and if not, to give notice of this to the Guardian-court, for further decision.

617. Should the father deny that the child is his, the guardian must, even if the mother will not try a suit, nevertheless apply for a legal hearing and sentence on the subject, for the good of the child.

618. In investigating and judging whether the child be the offspring of the alleged father, the principles contained in the 11th section of the preceding chapter must be acted upon.

619. If the mother has cohabited with other men, during the period in which, according to these principles, the generation of the child falls, it depends upon the information obtained by the guardian, grounded on the circumstances of the case, from which of these he will first claim the fulfilment of the obligations due to an illegitimate child.

620. But if this one be discharged or unable to fulfil these duties, the guardian can prosecute the rights of the child also against these other men in succession.

621. The maintenance and education of the child, till the completion of the fourth year, must in general be left to the mother, at the expense of the father.

622. After the end of the fourth year, it remains at the option of the father himself to provide for the maintenance and education of the child, or to let the mother continue that, at his expense.

623. If the mother wishes to undertake the education and maintenance of the child at her sole expense, the father has no right to refuse consent.

624. Should the Guardian-court find that the education of the child cannot, without apprehension of detriment to it, be entrusted to the father, the court can transfer such to the mother, at the father's expense.

625. If the conduct of both parents be such that the education of the child can be entrusted to neither of them, the Guardian-court must then act as prescribed in par. 98 and the following.

626. In all cases when the expenses of maintenance and education have to be fixed in money, those only are to be calculated, which the education of a legitimate child of a peasant or of a citizen of the lower class costs.

627. At the same time must regard be had to the usual prices at each place, and to the increasing wants of the child, as it advances in years.

628. If the father is unable to provide for the support and education of the child, this obligation devolves on the grand-parents by the father's side.

629. Only failing these, or in case of their incapability, are the mother, or the grand-parents by the mother's side, bound to fulfil it.

630. However, if the mother possess so much property of her own as to be able to maintain the child from the revenue of it, without detriment to her own subsistence, then is she bound to do so, next to the illegitimate father, and in particular before his parents.

631. If the father of an illegitimate child cannot be ascertained, the duty of maintenance and education devolves directly on the mother and her parents.

632. Should even these no longer exist, or not possess the means, then is the State bound to provide for the maintenance and education of such children, through the pauper institutions established in each place.

633. The obligation of the parents to support illegitimate children continues only till the completion of the 14th year.

634. After this period the children must earn their own subsistence.

635. However, when illegitimate sons have been placed to learn a handicraft or profession, the father must bear the further fees of apprenticeship and the cost of church confirmation.

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636. If, besides, the father has got the child brought up to a trade, by which it cannot yet earn a livelihood after completing its 14th year, the father must continue the support, until the child is able to maintain itself by the trade chosen by him.

637. Should illegitimate children become unable, from sickness, or from a defective constitution of body or mind, to earn their subsistence, then can they claim the requisite support from the parents or grand-parents.

638. On the other hand, however, must illegitimate children maintain, according to their means, destitute parents and grand-parents, failing other persons nearer bound to this.

ENCLOSURES in Mr. Consul *Gibson's* Despatch, 3 June 1834.

(Enclosure I.)

SPECIAL Victualling Regulation for 400 Inmates, say 300 Males, and 100 Females, in the Provincial Poor Subsistence Establishment at Tapiau (in East Prussia), for 1834 to 1836.

N.B.—The weights and measures are Prussian: the pound has 16 ounces, or 32 loths, and is about 3 per cent. heavier than the English pound;

The sheffel contains 16 metzes, and about 1,486 Imperial bushels;

1 stof, or quart, is about one-fourth of a gallon;

90 ditto, ditto, is 1 barrel;

The pound sterling is reckoned at 205 *sgr.*, or silver groshes;

The Prussian foot is about 3 per cent. longer than the English foot.

The 400 inmates are arranged in classes (according to their conduct), namely,

The 1st class contains 150 inmates, say - - 90 males - - 60 females.

2d	"	200	"	170	"	30	"
3d	"	50	"	40	"	10	"

400 Inmates.

300 Males.

100 Females.

These inmates receive of victuals,

A. For general Subsistence.

Good well baked rye-bread; the male inmate, 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ lb.; the female, 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ lb.

B. For Breakfast.

182 days, or every other day; flour-soup, of 8 loths rye-flour, $\frac{3}{4}$ loth salt, $\frac{1}{2}$ loth fat.

183 days, or every other day; groat-soup, of 4 loths barley-groats, $\frac{1}{2}$ loth salt, $\frac{3}{8}$ loth fat.

C. For Dinner.

Sunday, 26 days, or every other Sunday; sour cabbage, with potatoes, say $\frac{1}{2}$ quart sour cabbage, $\frac{1}{4}$ metz potatoes, 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ loth salt, 1 loth fat, 1 loth flour.

The 1st class receives, instead of 1 loth fat, $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. pork in the seven winter months, and $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. beef in the five summer months.

Sunday, 26 days; grey peas with bacon; say 24 loths peas, 1 loth bacon, 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ loth salt, and 1 loth flour.

The 1st class receives here also, as before stated, instead of 1 loth bacon, $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. meat.

Monday, 52 days; Rumford soup, say 6 loths white peas, 4 loths barley groats, $\frac{1}{4}$ metz potatoes, $\frac{3}{4}$ loth fat, 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ loth salt.

Tuesday, 52 days; white peas, say 24 loths white peas, 1 loth fat, 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ loth salt, 1 loth flour.

Wednesday, 52 days; vegetable soup, say $\frac{3}{8}$ metz potatoes, carrots or turnips, 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ loth salt, 1 loth bacon.

Thursday, 52 days; Rumford soup, say 6 loths white peas, 4 loths barley-groats, $\frac{1}{4}$ metz potatoes, $\frac{3}{4}$ loth fat, 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ loth salt.

Friday, 52 days; potatoes, say $\frac{1}{2}$ metz potatoes, 1 loth fat, 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ loth salt.

Saturday, 52 days; white peas with potatoes, say 8 loths white peas, $\frac{3}{8}$ metz potatoes, 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ loth salt, 1 loth fat, 1 loth flour.

To every dinner, 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ silver groshe's worth of soup-herbs for each 100 persons.

D. For Supper; 1st Class.

Sunday, Tuesday, Friday, 156 days; barley-groats with bacon, say groats $\frac{1}{18}$ metz, or 7 $\frac{7}{9}$ loths, $\frac{2}{3}$ loth bacon, $\frac{3}{4}$ loth salt.

Monday, Wednesday, 104 days; table-beer soup, say $\frac{1}{2}$ stof (or quart) table-beer, (quality very poor.)

Thursday, Saturday, 105 days; potatoes with salt, say $\frac{1}{2}$ metz potatoes, $\frac{3}{4}$ loth salt.

2d & 3d Classes.

Daily, or 365 days; $\frac{1}{2}$ loth salt, to eat with the bread.

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Extraordinary Subsistence.

On the three great holydays, namely, Easter, Whitsuntide and Christmas, also on the King's birth-day, four days ; say ½ lb. meat, and ½ quart beer, (pretty good quality.)

According to the preceding victualling plan, there is required for the whole year,

1. Bread for 300 male inmates at 1 ½ lb. per day, for 365 days	-	-	-	164,250 lbs.
100 female ditto, at 1 ½ lb.	-	-	-	45,625
In all	-	-	-	209,875 lbs.

Which quantity requires, reckoning 3 lbs. of flour to 4 lbs. of bread, 157,406 ½ lbs. flour, or at 75 lbs. per sheffel	-	-	-	sheffels 2,098 12 metzes.
Deduct from this the salt required, at 1 loth to 6 lbs. bread	-	-	-	14 9 „
There remains wanted	-	-	-	sheffels 2,084 3 metzes.

From 1 sheffel rye, at	-	-	-	80 lbs.
Goes off	-	-	-	1 lb. flour and stone-dust.
Remain	-	-	-	79 lbs. rye.

	Prussian Currency.	Sterling.
	R.	£. s. d.
Thus, for one sheffel of flour of 75lbs., there are required 15 ⅞ metzes of rye, and for the whole quantity of flour, sheffels 1,978. 13 metzes, rye, making at R. 1. 7 ½ sgr. (about 3 s. 7 ⅔ d.)	2,440 16 -	357 3 -
The carriage to and from the mill, including multure and grinding expenses, at 4 silver groshes per sheffel (about 4 ⅔ d.), nothing, as the rye is ground in the tread-mill of the establishment.		
This has a bakehouse, the expenses attendant on which are as follows :		
a. Firewood, at the rate of 1 ½ karnickel (40 ½ cubic feet) for 1 wispel, or 24 sheffels, makes for 1,978 sheffels 13 metzes, or 82 wispel, 10 sheffel 13 metzes 15 ½ acktel, each of 216 cubic feet. This firewood appears in the special table of firing.		
b. Candles are required at the rate of two per day on an average, hence 750 yearly, or 45 ⅔ lbs. at 16 to the lb. These candles appear also in the table of lighting.		
c. Salt, for every 2 wispels, 2 metzes, or 6 lb. 24 loths, salt are required, and for the whole 553lbs. (the lb. reckoned at 28 loths), which quantity, at R. 15 ½ per 405 lbs. makes (There seems to be a small error in this calculation.)	21 6 -	3 2 1
d. For each wispel, to the bakers ; viz. To the 1st journeyman a' 8 sgr. - R. 22 6 2d ditto - - 4 sgr. - 11 3 (about 9 ⅓ d. and 4 ⅔ d.)	33 9 -	4 17 6
Cost of the Bread required - - - R.	2,495 1 -	365 2 7
Further, the 400 inmates receive,		
2. Of beef, the 1st class, or 150 persons, for 5 summer months, or 22 weeks, at ½ lb. weekly		1,650
All the three classes for 4 days extraordinary, say 400 persons at ½ lb.		800
(about 2 d. per lb.) at 1 silver grosh 9 ⅔ pfenn	2,450	
	147 29 2	21 13 1 (continued)

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	Prussian Currency.	Sterling.
	R.	£. s. d.
2. Of pork, the 1st class, for the 7 winter months, or 30 weeks, $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. weekly, makes 2,250 lbs. at $2\frac{1}{8}$ sgr. (about $2\frac{1}{2}$ d.) - - - - -	159 11 3	23 6 5
4. Of fat or bacon, say, For breakfast, 400 persons, 182 days, lbs. loth. at $\frac{1}{2}$ loth - - - - - 1,137 16 Ditto, ditto, 183 days, at $\frac{3}{8}$ loth - - - 857 26 For dinner, 250 persons, 52 days, at 1 loth 406 8 400 „ 104 „ $\frac{3}{4}$ „ - 975 - 400 „ 209 „ 1 „ - 2,612 16 For supper, the 1st class, 150 persons, three times weekly, at $\frac{3}{8}$ loth - - - 487 16 6,476 18 at 4 sgr. $3\frac{1}{2}$ pf. (about 5 d.) - - - - -	921 27 11	134 18 4
5. Botter-flour of rye, say, For breakfast, 400 persons, 182 days, at lbs. 8 loths - - - - - 18,200 For dinner, 400 persons, 157 days, at 1 loth 1,962 $\frac{1}{2}$ In all - - - - 20,162 $\frac{1}{2}$ 75 lb. botter-flour, equal to $15\frac{3}{13}$ metzes rye, and 20,162 $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. to 255 $\frac{7}{8}$ sheffels, at R. 1. $7\frac{1}{2}$ sgr. (about 3 s. $7\frac{3}{4}$ d.) - - - - -	317 21 4	46 9 11
6. Barley-groats, say, For breakfast, 400 persons, 183 days, at lbs. 4 loths - - - - - 9,150 For dinner, 400 persons, 104 days, at 4 loths 5,200 For supper, 156 „ 156 „ $7\frac{1}{2}$ „ - 5,685 In all - - - - 20,035 70 lbs. being equal to 1 sheffel groats, makes 286 sheffels $3\frac{3}{4}$ metzes, at R. 2. 6. $5\frac{1}{2}$ pf. (about 6 s. $5\frac{3}{4}$ d.) - - - - -	634 - 10	92 15 8
7. White peas, say, For breakfast, 400 persons, 104 days, at 6 loths - - - - - 7,800 For dinner, 400 persons, 52 days, at 24 loths 15,600 Ditto - 400 „ 53 „ 8 „ - 5,300 28,700 90 lbs. peas being equal to 1 sheffel, in all makes 381 sheffels $14\frac{3}{8}$ metzes, at R. 1. 5. $2\frac{3}{8}$ pf. (about 3 s. $5\frac{1}{2}$ d.) - - - - - (There appears to be a mistake in this calculation, and that the sheffel is reckoned at 75 lbs., though it is usually taken at 90 lbs.) Gray peas, say, For dinner, say 400 persons, 26 days, at 24 loths, 7,800 lbs., and at 90 lbs. per sheffel makes 86 sheffels $10\frac{3}{8}$ metzes, at R. 1. 5. 1 pf. (about 3 s. 5 d.) - - - - -	448 11 - 101 10 6	65 12 4 14 16 8
8. Potatoes, say, For dinner, 400 persons, 130 days, at $\frac{1}{4}$ metz sh. m. 400 „ 105 „ $\frac{3}{8}$ „ - 984 6 400 „ 52 „ $\frac{1}{2}$ „ - 650 - For supper, 150 „ 105 „ $\frac{1}{2}$ „ - 492 3 In all - - - - 2,939 1 Deduct, grown on land of the establishment - - - - 200 1 To buy - - - - 2,739 - at 8 silver groshes (about 9 $\frac{1}{4}$ d.) - - - -	730 12 -	106 17 9

	Prussian Currency.	Sterling.
	R.	£. s. d.
9. Salt, say, For breakfast, 400 persons, 182 days, at $\frac{3}{4}$ loth - - - - - 1,706 8 Ditto, 400 persons, 183 days, at $\frac{1}{2}$ loth 1,143 24 For dinner, 400 persons, 365 days, at $1\frac{1}{4}$ loth - - - - - 5,703 4 Ditto, 150 persons, 365 days, at $\frac{3}{4}$ loth - 1,631 8* 250 " 365 " $\frac{1}{2}$ " - 1,425 25 In all - - - - - 11,610 5 making 28 barrels $270\frac{5}{32}$ lbs., the barrel of 405 lbs., at R. 15 $\frac{1}{2}$, (about 2 l. 5 s. 4 d.) - - - - - 444 12 6 (* There appears to be some error in this calculation.)		65 - 8
10. Sour cabbage, say, For 400 persons, 26 days, at $\frac{1}{2}$ quart = 5,200 quarts, at 1 sgr. 1 pf. (about 1 $\frac{1}{6}$ d.) - - - - - 187 23 4		27 9 7
11. Carrots or turnips for 400 persons, 52 days, at $\frac{3}{8}$ metzes = 487 $\frac{1}{2}$ sheffels, at 9 $\frac{1}{3}$ sgr. (about 10 $\frac{9}{10}$ d.) 151 20 -		22 3 11
12. Soup-herbs for 400 persons, 365 days, each day for every 100 persons 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ silver grosh's worth, makes daily 6 silver groshes (about 7 d.) - - - - - 73 - -		10 13 8
13. Beer, for 400 men, 4 days at $\frac{1}{2}$ stof = 800 stof, or 8 $\frac{8}{9}$ barrels, at R. 3 (about 8 s. 9 $\frac{1}{3}$ d.) - - - - - 24 20 - (a small error in the calculation.)		3 12 2
14. Table-beer for 150 persons, 104 days, at $\frac{1}{2}$ stof, 7,800 stofs, or 86 $\frac{1}{15}$ barrels, at 11 sgr. (about 12 $\frac{17}{20}$ d.) - - - - - 31 23 4		4 13 -
15. Rice for the sick, at a six years' average, 233 lbs. at 4 sgr. (about 4 $\frac{2}{3}$ d.) - - - - - 31 2 -		4 10 11
16. Butter for the sick, at a six years' average, 600 lbs. at 4 sgr. 6 $\frac{2}{3}$ pf. (about 5 $\frac{1}{3}$ d.) - - - - - 91 3 4		13 6 8
17. Brandy (of corn), as medicine for the sick, at a six years' average, 91 stof, at 6 sgr. (about 7 d.) - 13 4 4		1 18 5
TOTAL of all Expenses for subsisting 400 Inmates	7,004 23 10	1,025 1 9

Thus the subsistence of an inmate costs, without reference to the sex, R. 17. 15. 4 $\frac{1}{4}$. (about 2 l. 11 s. 3 d. sterling) yearly. The subsistence of the females costs R. 1. 1 $\frac{2}{3}$ sgr. (about 3 s. 1 d.) less, in consequence of the smaller portion of bread.

The subsistence hitherto cost only R. 6,147. 1. 7 pf. (about 899 l. 11 s. 4 d.), being R. 857. 23. 3 pf. (about 125 l. 10 s. 7 d.) less than now stipulated.

Tapiau, the 15th November 1833.

(signed) *Royal Provincial Poor Subsistence Direction.*

Besides the errors mentioned in the text, there are a few others in the calculations, but not of much consequence. Of firewood and candles there is no valuation given.

British Consulate, Dantzig, }
the 3d June 1834. }

Alex. Gibsone.

Appendix (F.)

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PRUSSIA.

Dantzic.

(Enclosure II.)

Dantzic Infirmary.

This institution is managed under the superintendence of four wardens, citizens, who are controlled by the magistracy. The expenses are defrayed out of its own means, and from the town's funds.

It has, on an average, nearly 400 sick, but can contain more. All notoriously poor sick belonging to the town are admitted and maintained gratis; those of the town who have the means, and of its territory, pay (the latter themselves or their communities for them) 1 R. (about 35 $\frac{1}{10}$ d.), and strangers pay R. 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ (about 52 $\frac{2}{3}$ d.) weekly. At least two-thirds of the inmates pay nothing. Of the whole about four-sevenths are males, and about three-sevenths females, usually.

Sick paupers out of the house, legitimated as such by an attest from the superintendent of the district in which they live, are provided with medicine gratis, from the apothecary-shop of the infirmary, upon producing a receipt from its physician. The annual cost of the medicines required, taking the average of the years 1830, 1831 and 1832, is,

In the house, nearly	-	-	-	-	-	R. 3,000 or £. 439	-	6
Out of the house	-	-	-	-	-	750	-	109 15 1

A seminary, on a small scale, has lately been established in the Infirmary, for young men who dedicate themselves to surgery.

When clothes are requisite they cost nearly R. 3, or about 8 s. 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. for each person, being of linen. The whole cost of clothing, on an average of the years 1831, 1832 and 1833, made about R. 1,440, or 210 l. 14 s. 8 d. sterling.

The particulars and expense of the sustenance is on the other side.

The whole cost of the establishment, including the expense of the administration, for medicines, &c. &c., upon an average of the years 1830, 1831 and 1832, made 1 R. 12 $\frac{2}{3}$ sgr. (about 4 s. 2 d.) per head, weekly.

British Consulate, Dantzic, }
3 June 1834.

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Victualling Regulation for the Dantzig Infirmary, for One Week.

FOR ABOUT 470 PERSONS.	Oat Groats.	Butter.	Buck-wheat Groats.	Barley Groats.		White Peas.	Fat.	Peeled Barley.	Milk.	Beef.	Potatoes.	Wheat Flour.	Beer.	Syrup.	Bread for the Soups.	Rye Flour.	Salt.	Very ordinary Beer.	Carra-way.
				Fine.	Coarse.														
	Metzes.	Lbs.	Metzes.	Metzes.	Metzes.	Metzes.	Lbs.	Metzes.	Stofs.	Lbs.	Sheffels.	Lbs.	Barrels.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Barrels.	Lbs.
Friday - - 2d.--Breakfast, oat-groats	5	3	-	-	18	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	-	-
Dinner - barley-groats	-	2	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	-	-	-
Supper - beer-soup	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1 1/4	20	36	-	-	-	-
Saturday - 3d.--Breakfast, flour-soup	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	18	-	-	-	23	-	-	-	-	4	-	-
Dinner - beef, with peeled barley	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	-	-	270	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Supper - oat-groats	8	2	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sunday - - 4th.--Breakfast, bread-soup	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	15	46	-	1	-	2 1/2
Dinner - oat-groats	14	2	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Supper - buckwheat-groats	-	3	9	3	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Monday - 5th.--Breakfast, oat-groats	5 1/2	3	-	-	-	-	8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	-	-
Dinner - white peas	-	-	-	-	-	32	-	4	16	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Supper - barley-groats and milk	-	-	-	10	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Tuesday - 6th.--Breakfast, flour-soup	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	18	-	270	-	23	-	-	-	-	4	-	-
Dinner - beef and groats	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Supper - oat-groats	8	2	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Wednesday 7th.--Breakfast, bread-soup	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	2 1/2
Dinner - oat-groats	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Supper - flour-soup	-	4	-	18	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Thursday - 8th.--Breakfast, flour-soup	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	46	-	-	-	-	4	-	-
Dinner - beef and potatoes	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	270	-	23	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Supper - buckwheat-groats	-	3	9	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	41	35	18	34	18	32	25	40	16	810	8	115	1 1/4	50	128	10	22	5	2 1/2

In addition, 1 lb. bread per head, daily.

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Prices.

			R.	sgr.		s.	d.
White peas	-	per sheffel	1	3	-	3	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
Peeled barley	-	"	1	25	-	5	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
Barley-groats	-	"	1	20	-	4	10 $\frac{1}{2}$
Oat-groats	-	"	1	22	-	5	1
Buckwheat-groats	-	"	1	20	to 1 R. 25 sgr.	4	10 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 5s. 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.
Potatoes	-	"	-	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	-	8 $\frac{3}{4}$
Butter	-	"	-	3	-	-	3 $\frac{1}{2}$
Beef	-	per lb.	-	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	-	3
Fat, got from the beef	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Milk	-	per stof	-	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	-	1 $\frac{3}{4}$
Beer	-	per barrel	3	-	-	8	9 $\frac{1}{2}$
Very ordinary beer	-	"	-	9	-	-	10 $\frac{1}{2}$
Syrup	-	per 22 lbs.	2	-	-	5	10
Carraway	-	per lb.	-	5	-	-	5 $\frac{3}{4}$

Rye bread, baked in the institution, cost about $\frac{3}{4}$ silver grosh per pound (nearly $\frac{3}{4}$ d.)

The whole cost is nearly 10 silver groshes per head (about 11 $\frac{7}{10}$ d.) weekly.

Extraordinary sustenance, as ordered by the physician, costs about R. 660 annually, or about 96 l. 11 s. 9 d.

One barrel has 90 stofs or quarts, and one stof is about one quarter gallon. One sheffel has 16 metzes, and is equal to about 1,486 Imperial bushels. The Prussian pound is about three per cent. heavier than the English.

British Consulate, Dantzic, }
3 June 1834.

Alex. Gibsone.

(Enclosure III.)

Municipal Poor-House in Dantzic.

This establishment is administered by four wardens, citizens, under control of the magistracy. The paupers are sent by the police to the magistracy, and by it to the institution. Its expenses are defrayed out of its own, but chiefly from the town's funds.

The number of inmates is regularly from 270 to 300, but as far as 350 can be received. Only those found duly qualified are admitted, and the voluntary applicants when above 25 years of age. The poor are generally averse from going to the poor-house. About two-thirds of the inmates are usually males, and about one-third females.

The inmates are obliged to do what work they can for the service of the establishment, and also for the benefit of its revenue; but they are generally unable to do much work, and the whole amount of their earnings is only from R. 100 to R. 150 (about 14 l. 12 s. 8 d. to 21 l. 19 s.) annually.

The relatives of these paupers (ascendants, descendants and collaterals), when able, and the communities to which they belong (not that of Dantzic), must provide for their maintenance, as prescribed by law. The amount claimed from these for each pauper is R. 30 (about 4 l. 7 s. 10 d.) yearly.

The sustenance of the inmates consists of 1 lb. fine rye bread, daily, to each, and a nutritious dinner,

- 1 day in the week, of peas, with peeled barley.
- 2 - - - - - peeled barley and groats.
- 1 - - - - - oat-groats.
- 2 - - - - - potatoes.

7 days; prepared with butter or fat, and salt, without butcher's meat.

To each inmate is served, every other Sunday, $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. pork; and six to eight days in the year, on holidays, a beef-soup, with $\frac{3}{4}$ lb. beef; weekly, $\frac{1}{8}$ lb. salt.

Each gets as much of a very thin species of beer as he desires. The morning's and afternoon's fire is made on different hearths, where each inmate can prepare his breakfast and supper of what he has; they generally make a beverage of the common beer, with bread.

The workhouse has an annual expense, for 300 inmates,

For administration of, about	-	-	-	R. 850 or £. 124	7	10
Sustenance	-	-	-	4,450	651	4 5
Medicine	-	-	-	290	42	8 9
Clothing	-	-	-	755	110	9 9
Bedding, &c.	-	-	-	410	60	-
Washing	-	-	-	225	32	18 6
Firing and lighting	-	-	-	1,350	197	11 3
Building and repairs	-	-	-	250	36	11 8
Carriage-hire	-	-	-	450	65	17 1
Imposts	-	-	-	20	2	18 6
Extraordinaries	-	-	-	730	106	16 7
				R. 9,780 - £. 1,431	4	4

At the present prices of provisions, making for each inmate about R. 32 $\frac{1}{2}$, or 4 l. 15 s. 1 d.

British Consulate, Dantzic, }
3 June 1834.

Alex. Gibsone.

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(Enclosure IV.)

Appendix (F.)

Dantzic Institution (called Kinder-und Waisen-haus) for Poor Children and Orphans.

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The children received are chiefly illegitimate. Those of very poor persons pay nothing. Illegitimate children, whose fathers have means (but perhaps not above 10 annually), are bought in at the following rates, paid once for all, namely :

For a child under 1 ½ years old	-	-	-	-	R. 150 or £. 21 19 -
From that to 2	—	-	-	-	200 - 29 5 4
Ditto - to 4	—	-	-	-	300 - 43 18 1
Ditto - to 5 and above	-	-	-	-	500 - 73 3 5

The number maintained in the house is 150, and out of the house 250. Till their sixth year they are boarded with proper persons, in the town and country, and sometimes they are left with their parents, when decent people, all under the superintendence of the wardens of the establishment. For each child 10 silver groshes (about 11 ¾ d.) weekly have hitherto been paid for board, but now only this sum is frequently given for board and clothing. After their sixth year they are provided for in the establishment, when there is room, and they remain in it until confirmed, which cannot take place before their 14th year, but generally follows soon after, when duly qualified. About 30 are dismissed annually, when the boys are bound to a trade, and the girls are put to service, care being taken to have all well placed. They remain under the guardianship of the wardens till they are of age (24 years old). The relatives are not allowed to interfere, when they are in the house. The children in the establishment, able to work, are employed only in supplying the wants of themselves, and of those out of the house.

In the last 10 years 4,271 were taken charge of by the institution, and of these 265 died, four of the cholera.

They get for sustenance in the Institution,

At breakfast, carraway-tea, the 33 eldest and biggest without, the 117 youngest and smallest with milk, and each child ¾ lb. to 1 lb. boltered rye bread.

At dinner : *Sundays*, beef broth, with vegetables and bread ; *Mondays*, peeled barley, groats, bread and butter ; *Tuesdays*, soup of white peas, and bread spread with syrup ; *Wednesdays*, oat-groats, with bread and butter ; *Thursdays*, beef broth, with vegetables and bread ; *Fridays*, plums, with flour-balls, or grey peas, with sweet-sour soup and bread ; *Saturdays*, barley groats, with bread and butter.

At supper ; bread spread with butter or syrup alternately, with very ordinary beer to the elder and larger children, and flour-soup to the younger and smaller.

By way of change, fish-soup, in summer soup of fresh fruit, are given, and roasts on six great holidays.

The daily quantity of these victuals, when served, per head, is fixed as follows : of meat ¼ lb., potatoes ¾ lb., peeled barley ½ lb., flour ¾ lb., white peas ¼ lb., oat groats ¾ lb., grey peas ¾ lb., very small beer ¼ quart (about ⅙ gallon), bread ½ to ¾ lb., syrup ⅙ lb., bread ⅙ lb.

The yearly expense makes, per head,		R. sgr.	£. s. d.
Of sustenance by boarding, about	- - -	17 10	or about 2 10 8
Ditto, in the establishment	- - -	15 18	— 2 5 8
Of clothing, in and out the house	- - -	5 23	— - 16 11

The whole annual expenditure is,

For education and religious instruction, about	-	R. 820 or £. 120	- -
For medical treatment	- - -	440	- 64 7 10
For administration	- - -	3,540	- 518 1 -
And for everything	- - -	12,420	- 1,817 11 2

The expenses are defrayed from the funds of the establishment, from public collections, and from the funds of the town.

Improvements are making gradually, as occasion requires, and as the funds admit.

The establishment is administered by three wardens, who are citizens, under the control of the magistracy.

British Consulate, Dantzic, }
3 June 1834.

Alex. Gibsone.

(Enclosure V.)

Dantzic Charitable Institution (called Spendhaus) for Poor Children, chiefly Orphans.

Only poor children, principally orphans, are received into this institution, and very rarely is anything paid for their admission. The number is limited to 163, and all are maintained in the institution. The period of their stay is from their sixth year till confirmed, which cannot be before their 14th year, and is generally soon after, when duly qualified. They receive education and religious instruction in the house. They do what work they can for the establishment, and even earn a little by working for others. When dismissed, the girls are put out to service, and the boys are bound to some trade or profession, according to

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their qualifications. Care is had to get them well placed and treated; their conduct is superintended till of age (when 24 years old), and assistance is rendered them, when wanting it, by advice and otherwise. From 12 to 20 of the children leave the institution yearly.

Their sustenance consists,

For breakfast; of carraway-tea, and a piece of fine rye-bread, baked in the establishment.

For dinner; of beef-soup, with potatoes or peeled barley, twice weekly; of peas-soup once in the week; the other days, alternately, of oat, buckwheat and barley-groats; and in summer, in lieu of these, fruit or garden vegetables, once a week.

For the afternoon meal, the same as for breakfast.

For supper; of bread and butter the one day, and dry bread the other day, with a portion of common beer to the largest and stoutest, of beer-soup and oat-groats to the smaller and weaker.

Each child receives daily about one pound of bread, of the best quality, it being the chief nutriment.

The yearly expense makes, for each child,						R. sgr.	£.	s.	d.
Of sustenance, about	-	-	-	-	-	14 18	or about	2	2 9
Of clothing	-	-	-	-	-	7 5	—	1	1 -

The whole annual expenditure is,

For education and religious instruction, about	-	R. 680	or	£. 99	10	3
For medical treatment	-	270	-	39	10	3
For administration	-	3,080	-	450	14	8
And for everything	-	8,180	-	1,197	1	6

The expenses are defrayed from the funds of the establishment, from public collections, and from the funds of the town.

The number of deaths has never exceeded eight in one year, during the last 10 years, and in three succeeding years there was no death. Only two died of the cholera.

Improvements are continually making in the administration of the establishment. It is supported partly from its own means, partly by assistance from the town's funds.

The establishment is administered by three wardens, who are citizens, under the control of the magistracy.

British Consulate, Dantzic, }
3 June 1834.

Alex. Gibsone.

(Enclosure VI.)

Sustenance in the Prisons, in Dantzic.

Formerly the prisoner received two silver groshes (about $2\frac{1}{2}d.$) daily, with which to provide himself his sustenance. Now, this is farmed out at $1\frac{5}{8}$ silver groshes (about $2\frac{1}{4}d.$) per head, for which the prisoners receive potatoe-soup, and other cheap victuals, with the necessary bread. Those confined for debt are allowed $2\frac{1}{2}$ sgr. (about $3d.$) for their support, which is paid out of the advance the creditors have to make.

British Consulate, Dantzic, }
3 June 1834.

Alex. Gibsone.

(Enclosure VII.)

Soldiers' Subsistence.

A common soldier receives in time of peace, every 10 days, 25 sgr. (about $29\frac{1}{2}d.$) pay, from which there is a deduction of about 1 sgr. for mending his regimentals; every five days, a 6 lb. loaf of coarse rye bread; the necessary clothing; an allowance of 15 silver groshes (about $17\frac{3}{4}d.$) for quarters monthly, when he provides these himself, otherwise he is billeted on a householder, who receives the money.

In general, from five to 20 men join together in a mess, and give a caterer of their choosing about four-fifths of their whole pay, for which he provides and prepares the victuals, indeed chiefly consisting of potatoes, but frequently butchers' meat and other food can be added.

British Consulate, Dantzic, }
3 June 1834.

Alex. Gibsone.

SAXONY.

LETTER from *Francis R. Forbes, Esq.* to Viscount *Palmerston*.

My Lord,

Dresden, 28th January 1834.

I HAVE the honour of transmitting to your Lordship Answers to the List of Questions drawn up by the Poor Law Commissioners. I have used every possible means for procuring information on this subject, and should your Lordship think that the Answers are inadequate, I must plead in excuse, that as well from the industrious and frugal habits of the Saxons as from the steady determination of every Government (whether before or since the events of 1830) to render the situation of those receiving parochial relief too irksome for it to proceed from any other than the merest necessity, neither the Ministry nor the Chambers have been forced to make any new provision for the poor, nor has the subject been once referred to in the present Diet.

It may not be irrelevant to mention here, that a woman who is employed to sell lace stated a few days ago that she considered herself as having been successful when, in the course of the day, she had cleared the sum of *nine pfennings* (scarcely more than a penny sterling), on which she has to support herself and four children. This will prove to your Lordship that the lower classes in Saxony can live for a sum which appears almost inconceivable. She however inhabits one of the mountainous districts, where every thing is cheaper than it is here.

I have, &c.

The Right Hon. Viscount Palmerston, K. B.
&c. &c. &c.

(signed)

Francis R. Forbes.

P.S.—I may perhaps be able to procure some further details, in which case I shall immediately transmit them to your Lordship.

F. R. F.

(Enclosure I.)

VAGRANTS.

Question 1. To what extent and under what form does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?—*Answer.* The beggars are not numerous. There are more who beg in houses than in the streets, and more in the country than in towns; they are not troublesome.

Q. 2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country, seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded, and under what regulations?—*A.* They receive from the parishes to which they belong assistance in proportion to their inability to maintain themselves. A sum is fixed as necessary to support a man; if he cannot earn the whole, the difference is given to him as relief. Persons found continually begging are committed to the house of correction.

DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

Q. 1. To what extent and under what regulations are they, or any part of their families billeted or quartered on householders?—*2.* Or boarded with individuals?—*A.* The first claims of the poor are upon relations. The parish interferes only in cases where ejection takes place on account of non-payment of house rent, and guarantees payment for a short time to those who agree to receive the houseless; this happens but seldom.

Q. 3. To what extent and under what regulations are there district houses of industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families, and supplying them with food, clothes, &c., and in which they are set to work?—*A.* In the provinces of Saxony there are no work-houses for the poor. In that at Leipzig, cotton and flax are spun, and stockings knit. The daily pay is $2\frac{1}{4}d$.

Q. 4. To what extent and under what regulations do any religious institutions give assistance to the destitute, by receiving them as inmates, or by giving them alms?—*A.* Religious institutions have no immediate share in the support of the poor. Money is collected in churches at the communion, at weddings, christenings, &c. &c., and given from time to time to the Poor Commissioners.

P. L. (F.)

3 Q 4

Q. 5. To

(Enclosure 1.)

Appendix (F.)
 Foreign
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 —
 SAXONY.

Q. 5. To what extent and under what regulations is work provided at their own dwellings for those who have trades, but do not procure work for themselves?—A. Nothing of this sort exists. If a man can find no work in his own profession, he must seek employment in another way.

Q. 6. To what extent and under what regulations is work provided for such persons in agriculture or on public works?—A. No work is provided for him; he is at liberty to seek it here or any where else.

Q. 7. To what extent and under what regulations are fuel, clothing or money distributed to such persons or their families; at all times of the year, or during any particular seasons?—A. This question, as respects money, is answered in No. 2, *Vagrants*. The sum is paid weekly by the overseer. Coals and wood are given to them in fixed quantities. When there are at least four degrees of cold (Reaumur), the distribution is more general, and in some cases is repeated frequently during the winter. At the recommendation of the medical authority of the district, a sick person receives firing at any season.

Q. 8. To what extent and under what regulations are they relieved by their children being taken into schools, and fed, clothed and educated or apprenticed?—A. The local poor commission supports free-schools and houses for orphans. Boys willing to learn a profession are assisted with money to pay the expense of becoming apprentices, and of buying the bed which it is customary for each to have. At Dresden, an extensive charity society gives great assistance in this way.

Q. 9. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are the relatives of the destitute compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking charge of part of their families?—A. A law, published at Dresden in 1773, requires the assistance of relations in general, if they have the means.

Q. 10. To what extent and under what regulations are they assisted by loans?—A. Is not customary.

IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

For such persons there are hospitals and poor-houses, where they may, according to circumstances, be either entirely maintained or by paying a very moderate sum receive the necessities of life.

SICK.

Sick, who have no comforts at home, are removed to hospitals; and for those who remain at home, there are medical men in each district who are forced to visit them daily, or more often if necessary. The medicine is supplied by the poor fund from apothecaries who agree to discount $25\frac{0}{100}$. The sick person on receiving a ticket from the overseer is treated gratis by the poor doctor or surgeon of the district, and receives, besides medicine, his nourishment, soup, bouillion, wine if necessary, clothing, bed, fire, baths, &c. &c. &c.

Poor lying-in women are taken care of on the same plan as above. Midwives are appointed for the poor. There is a society of ladies at Dresden, who do much for the poor, and give great assistance to lying-in women of good character.

CHILDREN:

Illegitimate.

Q. 1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall; wholly upon the mothers, or wholly upon the fathers; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations?—A. The father is legally bound to provide for his child. The sum is regulated by his circumstances and his means of living.

Q. 2. To what extent and under what regulations are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards?—A. *Vide* No. 9, of *Destitute Able-bodied*. The case of an illegitimate child can make no difference.

Q. 3. To what extent and under what regulations are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?—A. The same as legitimate children, who fall to the care of the public, either by placing them in schools or with families, particularly in the country.

Orphans, Foundlings, or Deserted Children.

Q. 4. To what extent and under what regulations are they taken into establishments for their reception?—or, 5. Are they billeted or quartered on householders?—or, 6. Boarded with individuals?

individuals?—A. They are placed in the house for foundlings until their seventh year, and then in the establishment for orphans.

Q. 7. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—A. When a child has accomplished its 14th year it is supposed to be able to earn its bread. For children brought up in the country, nine shillings per month is given until their eighth year, and from that time seven and sixpence.

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CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, BLIND: IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

There are establishments suited to the various cases and circumstances at Leipzig, Dresden and Pirna.

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

1st. On the industry of the labourers? 2d. On their frugality? 3d. On the age at which they marry? 4th. On the mutual dependence and affection of parent, children and other relatives?—A. All depends upon the moral state of the individual, and the exact effect cannot be determined. More relief than is strictly necessary is never given.

LABOURERS, &c.

Q. 1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month, or the year, with and without provisions, in summer and in winter?—A. The average amount of wages is not more than nine-pence per day, without provisions, throughout the year.

Q. 2. Is piece-work general?—A. Exists, but partially.

Q. 3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—A. *Vide* No. 1.

Q. 4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?—A. Is difficult to determine, as it depends entirely upon the management of the parents, the size of the family, upon unforeseen accidents, illness, scarcity, &c. &c. &c.

Q. 5. Is there any and what employment for women and children?—A. Spinning wool and hair, knitting, platting straw, &c. &c.

Q. 6. What can women, and children under 16, earn per week, in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed?—A. A woman can earn on an average three-pence daily. A child one penny.

Q. 7 & 8. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8, and 5 years, respectively, (the eldest a boy), expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment? Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children, and if so, on what food?—A. Parents with four children, with management, abstemiousness and diligence can earn their livelihood.

Q. 9. Could it lay by any thing, and how much?—A. A rare occurrence.

Q. 10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?—A. Very little, and seldom exceeds a small garden.

Q. 11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations?—A. Cannot be ascertained.

Q. 12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale?—A. On an average one pound in the provinces, and two pounds in Dresden.

Q. 13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—A. Occurs but seldom, although the produce, *i. e.* fruit, grass, &c. &c. is often rented by them.

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Q. 14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?—A. In a population of from fourteen to fifteen hundred thousand, the deaths average forty-two thousand; or, assuming the population to be 1,450,000, one in $34\frac{1}{2}$.

Q. 15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?—A. From fifty-eight to fifty-nine thousand, or one in $24\frac{8}{10}$ (at 58,500).

Q. 16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?—A. Eleven thousand, or one in $131\frac{8}{10}$.

Q. 17. The average number of children to a marriage?—A. Cannot be answered with any degree of certainty.

Q. 18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?—A. The eighth child is illegitimate.

Q. 19. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year?—A. Under fourteen years of age, twenty-three thousand and sixty-two, or one in $62\frac{8}{10}$.

Q. 20. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 10th year?—A. From fourteen to fifty years, six thousand five hundred and sixty-four, or one in $220\frac{9}{10}$.

Q. 21. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 18th year?—A. Past fifty, twelve thousand five hundred and seventy-seven, or one in $115\frac{3}{10}$.

Q. 22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—A. Cannot be answered with any degree of certainty.

Q. 23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—A. A man may not marry before he is twenty-one years old, if liable to serve in the army. Females are in no way restricted. In Dresden professionists may not marry until they become masters in their trade.

Q. 24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried; 2d, the married, save?—A. Cannot be ascertained.

Q. 25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—A. In saving banks, at $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

WURTEMBERG.

LETTER from Sir *E. C. Disbrowe* to the Right honourable Lord Viscount *Palmerston*, G. C. B.

My Lord,

Stuttgard, October 28th, 1833.

IN obedience to your Lordship's commands signified to me by Mr. Backhouse, I have the honour to transmit a Report of the Poor Laws in Wurtemberg.

I have endeavoured to point out the spirit in which the laws were framed, the manner in which they are carried into execution by the parishes, the mode of obtaining settlements, the expenses of passing paupers, and the minor regulations which I have thought bore an analogy to, or presented any improvements on, the practice in England.

In order as much as possible to simplify the Report, I have reserved for a Supplement the text of the law, and the rules of certain other establishments, which, though they bear on the subject, have not so immediate a relation to the administration of the Poor Laws.

Whilst I have been employed in collecting the materials on which the Report is founded, a law has passed the Lower Chamber, amending the former law of settlement in many respects; I must therefore necessarily reserve this for the Supplement.

I have the honour to be, with the highest respect,

My Lord,

The Right hon^{ble}
Lord Viscount Palmerston, G. C. B.

Your Lordship's most obedient, humble servant,

E. C. Disbrowe.

THE principle of the laws for regulating the administration of the poor in Wurtemberg may be summed up in a few words.

Each parish* is bound to support its own poor; that is to say, to furnish the exact portion of food which shall sustain human life.

The administration of the poor is left to the separate parishes, and confided to the mayor and magistrates, who are elective.

The practice varies very considerably. In one thing the villages all agree. Those only are considered entitled to parochial relief who, from age and infirmities, are incapable of earning a living.

Any person receiving parochial relief is considered as being placed entirely at the disposal of the magistrates of the village, to be employed by them in any work they may think them still capable of performing.

A man is considered as belonging to that parish in which his father has or had rights of a burger (*bürgerrecht*.)

Where no such rights are made out, he is considered as belonging to the parish in which his father was born. The manner of ascertaining this is explained hereafter (*heimathschein*).

When neither of these cases can be made out, he becomes a *beisitzer*, but not a burger of the commune where he had resided or served longest.

The object of the law being to avoid any litigious proceedings, in cases which frequently happen, of the wife of a man travelling to look out for work being confined on the journey, the place of its birth does not give the child the right of burger.

These regulations have also the effect of taking away from the parishes all scruples as to employing a man with a family, when, on account of some great work, the parish stands temporarily in need of additional labourers.

Every parish has its church and school. The salary of the schoolmaster is paid by the Government sometimes; sometimes partly by the Government, partly by the parish, and partly by the circle or county; the nomination being in the hands of that body which contributes the most.

Every child must go to school from six to fourteen for six hours a day. He learns reading, writing and arithmetic, and some handicraft trade, or something of agriculture is picked up.†

The parents pay from 15 *xr* to 24 *xr* per quarter. If the parents cannot pay, the parish must; in which case, instead of repaying to the parents in the interval of school hours, they are made to work by the parish officers, and the money goes to the school. If the parent can pay and will not, he may be forced to do so, as well as to give sufficient food and raiment.

The able-bodied man in the possession of health is not entitled to any assistance by law, and in practice rarely obtains it.

The case of a man with a numerous family of very small children is occasionally considered as an exception, but he cannot demand it as a right.

If

* The word "parish" is here used, as more intelligible in English; perhaps the word "commune" would have been better, because there are two distinct administrations, the parish being an ecclesiastical jurisdiction, the commune having charge of the poor and rates; so that it is possible, as their limits are not the same, that a parish may contain a commune and a half, or *vice versa*. If it becomes advisable therefore to make any calculations on cost from the tables in the Supplement, it will be necessary to bear this in mind.

† It is not regularly taught.

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If a man's earnings are sufficient to maintain his wife and one or two children and no more, the others, if he has more, are taken *from him*, and, if he cannot feed them, they are fed by the parish officers, or placed out to some farmer who will receive them. In many cases they are farmed out by contract to the lowest bidder.

They are in general removed from the parents because it is deemed right that special care should be taken that the parents shall, by no possible means, benefit by the parish allowance given to the child, and, where they are left to the parents, the sum given is calculated on this principle with the greatest parsimony; nine shillings in the course of the year have been doled out in weekly allowances.

The general scale of allowances will be best shown by the Supplement.

To the question which I have frequently asked in different quarters, whether a man considers it a disgrace to apply for parish aid, I have received various answers; but all agree in considering it to be a misfortune, and the little assistance which is given them is certainly not calculated to make it a desirable mode of obtaining a livelihood.

If a parish is too poor to maintain the paupers and the schools, &c., it may apply to the amt or bailiwick in which it is situated; the magistrates of which may accede to the demand or refuse it. It is always refused where a fair presumption exists of a bad administration of its property; an application is then made to the Government, which is seldom more successful, but in all cases the school is provided for the children; parties or some of them then disperse, and obtain a living by work or begging.

In some cases where the bad administration is notorious, the mayor and magistrates are made responsible.

Ascertaining to
what Parish a Man
belongs.

No person is allowed to quit his parish without his heimathschein, a species of passport showing to what parish he belongs, and where inquiries respecting his character may be made; he is entitled to it on demand. This of course determines at once the place where he has a right to demand his settlement and relief, if in want from accident, and saves much expense of litigation.

Heimathlose.

In case a man has resided a certain time in a parish without a heimathschein, and becomes chargeable, and unable to prove whence he comes, then the parish which admitted this irregularity is charged with his maintenance till his parish is ascertained.

If a man has behaved ill (not criminally) he is passed back by the gens-d'armes to his parish. A man being returned once or twice in this way is not allowed for a time to quit the bailiwick in which his parish is situated, and where consequently he is known.

These and other similar arrangements, by being strictly adhered to, have prevented any abuse in the charges for passing paupers; at the same time it has given the people a certain degree of economy from showing them the necessity for it.

The law forcing a man to belong to a parish is dated 1828, so that there are still some few persons whose parishes are not ascertained, but their number is daily decreasing, as somehow or other settlements are given them.

The enclosure (A.) will show the daily expense at which they are passed, amounting to between 400*l.* and 500*l.* per annum.*

The enclosure (B.) shows the punishment to which they are subjected by law for drunkenness, idleness, &c.†

There are several institutions in this country which by their nature contribute greatly to the assistance of the working classes; those which come more immediately into contact with them are here pointed out.

It is as well to premise that, by law, every charitable institution which exists or which shall be founded, must, at stated periods, give in to the Government a full account of its funds and of all its proceedings. The proceeds will be applied as directed by the founders, but the Government acts as a sort of universal visitor.

It is however not necessary that funds, if in money, should be vested in Government security, and there are instances in which the parties sustain considerable losses, because they have not, unfortunately, sufficient confidence in the Government to purchase its securities.

Savings Bank.

For example, the savings bank (Caisse d'épargne) in which servants, labourers, &c. place their small savings, for which they receive four per cent. interest; but the governors and directors will not place it in Government securities, but lend it out to small merchants at five per cent. on what is deemed good security. The surplus arising from the difference of the interest has formed a capital to answer to the subscribers for any accidental failure on the part of the persons who have borrowed the money; thus depriving themselves of a large portion of their income, sooner than trust it to the hands of the Government.

The

* The Chambers have just voted the sum of 1,200 *l.* per annum to cover at once this sum of 400 *l.*, and the expense of passing criminals also. It appears the expenses of litigation and correspondence between the amts was calculated as making the difference.

† A man is put into prison, say for ten days—his keep is charged to him—he must remain till he has worked it out. One bad effect is that the Governor of the House of Correction, being anxious to obtain work for his prisoners, procures it by making them work cheaper than the ordinary rate of labour; consequently, in towns where Houses of Correction are built, the price of labour falls below its natural level.

The Credits-verein is an establishment of the nature of a joint stock company's bank, for lending small sums to parishes and individuals, carrying with it its own sinking fund.

It makes loans to parishes for forming roads, &c.; it lends to poor individuals of good character; and it is no uncommon thing for a parish to make itself responsible for one of its own inhabitants who undertakes the improvement of his garden, land, &c., or builds a mill within the parish, exacting perhaps in return that he shall take charge of some of the parish pauper children.

This establishment might be applied almost in the nature of a mutual insurance company by very small proprietors, or even by leaseholders of a cottage and garden. The good character borne by the individual will always prove advantageous to him.

There exists in this country an establishment called Allemands, of a very ancient date.

Allemands.

In order to comprehend the nature of this institution, it will be advisable to mount to the origin of it.

When the personal service required in feudal times began to be commuted, the peasantry retained part of the soil by agreement, paying a portion of its proceeds in kind or money, and still giving a certain number of days in the year of personal service.

In process of time the peasants, by their joint exertions, bought off the whole or part of these charges, as may be, and obtained a common property in the land.

A good deal of the property also arises from their having taken possession of uncultivated lands in their neighbourhood, their right of property being founded on prescription.

These people so clubbing together, and their children, had a joint property in the soil, and obtained bürgerrecht (the right of citizenship).

The land thus obtained has been farmed out, but it is more generally divided in small lots among the burgers, who cultivate it for their own benefit.

The burgers pay an annual tax to the joint stock purse, which has been variously employed, either in further purchase of lands, woods or buildings, or has been placed out to interest with individuals, or sometimes in Government securities.

Legacies or donations to particular districts have increased their funds.*

They appear in general to have paid their parochial rates and clergy jointly, as well as schools, &c.

The government of the village and of the joint stock purse, allotting lands, &c., is intrusted to a mayor (who is confirmed by the Government) and a certain number of counsellors for life; to these are added an equal number of representatives, chosen freely by the inhabitants, half of whom go out by rotation every two years.

They have the power of mortgaging (to the credits-verein generally) the revenues of the commune, to enable them to open roads, purchase lands, &c.

If the loan is considerable, leave must be obtained from the directors of the amt, or of the circle, as may be.

The management therefore is completely in the hands of those for whose benefit it is intended, and they are charged exclusively with the expenses of the poor.†

The land being divided amongst the burgers, it may of course happen that the number of burgers increase, and young men having that right may lay claim to their share in the land, and demand a portion for their subsistence.

In this case two different practices prevail; in the one a periodical division takes place; every burger of age receiving an allotment, the size of this allotment depending of course on the number of claimants.

In some parishes which have followed this plan, the subdivision has been so great, that, not only accumulation of property has ceased, but the burgers themselves are reduced to great distress.‡

The second practice is that of dividing the allotments once for all, so that when a man has once received an allotment, he knows it is his own for life (unless forfeited by bad conduct); consequently he is more disposed to expend money to bring it into a better state of cultivation.§

The

* Certain villages possess only funds, or only woods; still as the profits are applied in the same manner and under the same jurisdiction, they bear within themselves the principle of the allemand.

† To illustrate this establishment of allemands by a reference to England, let us suppose a parish to be enclosed by Act of Parliament, and that that portion of land which would be set aside by the commissioners as the shares of persons claiming rights of common from prescription, instead of being divided among the individuals in small portions which they might sell, should be thrown together in one lot as contiguous as might be to the village, and declared inalienable: the names of such persons as had enjoyed the rights of common being inscribed in a list, they and their children would enjoy the rights of burgers in that parish. Add to this a further portion of land (to be set out in the same manner as glebe land is), and make it chargeable with the expenses of the school and poor (the remaining receipts to be distributed among the burgers), this estate to be under the management of officers chosen by the burgers, who should make a report half-yearly to the parish, and at the same time be bound to submit a copy of their proceedings, income and expenditure to Government, who should be invested with certain powers as visitors—the remainder of the land would be freed from rates, as it is, in a similar case, from tithes:—such an establishment would be similar, in many respects, to the institution of the Allemand.

‡ In some parts of Wurtemberg, there are communes with land not yet taken in. They willingly receive new burgers.

§ In an extreme case, if the burger cultivates his land very ill, and applies consequently for parish relief, they may take his land from him, farming it for his benefit.

Appendix (F.)

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WURTEMBERG.

Means of obtaining
the Rights of
Burgership.

P. 488.

Difference between
Bürger & Beisitzer,
p. 489.Wohlthätigkeits-
verein.

The remaining burgers, who are of age to demand an allotment, are obliged to wait till, by the death of one of the older members, his turn comes, and he is provided for for life.

In the mean time he must earn his bread by other means. He is a day labourer, or he applies himself to some handicraft trade; he travels in search of work, or not unfrequently he emigrates altogether, being supplied with the necessary means by the parish, a manner frequently adopted to get rid of a bad character.

This would probably be practised more frequently, if by these means the parish was at liberty to erase his name from the list of burgers, but as the law compels them in case of his return in poverty to receive him, a check has been given to this proceeding.*

Most of this sort of parishes (allemands) possess, besides their arable lands, a certain portion of wood land, from which a provision is made gratis to each burger, and the remainder is sold, the proceeds being put into the stock purse.

The credits-verrein, which has been mentioned above, is resorted to with great effect by such a community, or by individuals belonging to it.

The right of citizenship in a commune is to be obtained by purchase, under certain restrictions.

By the law passed in 1828, to amend the former laws, a parish is obliged to receive the individual for a fixed sum, classed according to the property of the parish in that year, provided at the same time that the case of the person falls under certain other conditions, Enclosure (C.)

There is also in each village another class of persons, called Beisitzer; that is, having the right of living in the parish, but no share in the common land. The parish must maintain them in age and in sickness.† (C. bis.)

Since 1828, the number of persons of this class has augmented, because previous to that year, the execution of the law, by which a man is compelled to show to what parish he belonged, was extremely defective.

At present no man can marry or perform any other civil act without showing to what parish he belongs, either as burger or beisitzer.

If he has married previous to the passing of the law, his children, under certain conditions, become burgers. In the enclosure (C.) the conditions are pointed out.

If he wishes to marry now, he must purchase his bürgerrecht somewhere.

In certain villages the price is as low as 35s.; but, of course, this is a village where the property is proportionably small.‡

By these regulations hopes are entertained of ultimately reducing the number of beisitzers.

The natural children who would go to increase this class, are in a great measure provided for by a separate establishment; still a portion are always left chargeable to the parish.

With persons of this class the credits-verrein can have but few transactions, for though it was originally intended as a charitable institution, to relieve the necessities of the poor industrious classes, still, as it partakes at the same time of the nature of a mercantile speculation, the directors do not feel themselves justified in lending on such slight security, or rather without any at all.

In this respect the want of a resident landowner, who has the will and the means to employ the labourers, or relieve the wants of this class, is much felt.

Starve they will not, provided they will work, but their wages will be extremely small, much below the market price; whilst the refusal to work, or idleness in the discharge of it, is punishable by prison, and hard work with worse fare.§

But in this case charity is not idle, and an institution called the Wohlthätigkeits-verrein comes to their assistance.

It has been established since the accession of the present king, and is under the patronage of the king and queen of Wurtemberg.

The decidedly idle, and those having a bad character, receive nothing; but a man showing whence he comes, and having a reputation for industry, obtains a loan without interest, if he will show to the directors any plausible way in which he intends to employ it.||

This loan is frequently converted into a gift. So that a man with common industry may raise himself in the scale of life, and from a beisitzer may ultimately become a burger of the parish in which he is inscribed.

This institution was founded in 1816 and 1817, after the great famine of those years.

Distribution

* The law is rather doubtful whether, having lost his bürgerrecht, he does not become a beisitzer^a; it is rather believed he does.

† As to the proportion between burgers and beisitzers, in some allemands there are none of the latter; but, taken altogether, at a rough calculation, the beisitzers may amount to one-twentieth of the population of villages having allemands.

‡ These impediments in the way of marriage have increased the number of natural children. By law, a woman who has had a natural child, if she afterwards marries, must do so on a Wednesday.

§ A man condemned to prison for a crime, who is not able to pay the necessary expenses of his detainment, must work it out; if he refuses to work he is detained till he has done so.

|| Money is furnished by this institution to peasants or poor tradesmen for availing themselves of any little resource, and it will sometimes advance to the latter means for the purchase of some instrument to gain his livelihood, when he is too poor to procure it otherwise.

^a For explanation of Beisitzer, vide Enclosure (C bis.), p. 489.

Distribution of soup gratis, of bread below market-price, &c. formed a part of its attributions; but it is believed that these distributions encourage idleness and have been discontinued.

Enclosure (D.) contains an account of its receipts and expenditure for the years 1830-31 and 1831-32.*

From time immemorial this country has delivered itself from its surplus population by emigration.

It is rather a curious fact that almost every seventh year the number of emigrants exceeds the ordinary number of four or five other years put together.

It is difficult however to give the exact number in former years, as no very regular control has been kept.

By a modern regulation no person can pass through France or Holland without having a passport from the legation in this country, which passport is never delivered until a stated sum of money is placed in the hands of a banker here, which sum is sufficient to pay the expenses of the individual and his family to the place of embarkation, and to bring them back in case they do not embark; so that they cannot be a charge to the country through which they pass.

The sum for passing through France is fixed at 400 fl. = 25 l. for a man; at about 70 l. for a family. Through Holland, at for a man, and at for a family; and to Russia, at for a man, and for a family at 400 fl. = 25 l. †

The number who quitted this country in the year 1832, which may be considered as an average year, amounts to, through Holland and France, 4,534; to Russia, 45 families.

They have carried out of the country a sum of about 76,000 l. as shown by the return (E.) and there is every reason to believe this sum to be equal to about two-thirds of what has actually been drained from the country by this means.

It is therefore evident, that it is not exactly the poorest class who emigrate, and in fact that they are not driven to it by actual want.

It is not possible to distinguish those who have been passed at the expense of the parishes. In general, individuals sent abroad by the parishes are not those of the best character.

Besides these establishments, there is an orphan-house, there are hospitals, &c. of which it is not necessary to give any detail. The supplement will contain their rules and regulations as well as the text of the laws and returns, showing the actual operation from a considerable number of parishes.

To conclude:—

The spirit of law and practice combined, is—no man can starve, but if able to work he must do so. According to the work he performs will be his remuneration.

If by birth a burger, he must ultimately have a portion of land for life, and enjoy certain privileges; if not born to that advantage, he may attain to it.

If idle and dissolute, he is sure to find his way, not to a poor-house to live on clover, but to a house of punishment, where the necessities of nature will compel him to work: he can be delivered from it by good conduct and activity alone.

As regards public charities, whatever bequests are made, they are applied to the benefit of the town or village pointed out, but they must be subjected to the inspection and active control of the Government.

The means of the country are small but well directed; suffering certainly exists among the poor, but it is more local than general.

Twenty parishes are, I am informed, unable to support their poor. ‡

It is but justice to add, that in those districts which have originally belonged to the Wurtemberg Government, the administration of the parishes is, generally speaking, superior to that of the districts united to it in 1805.

The allemands are more universal as an institution, and richer within themselves: this important branch having always been well understood and watched by its princes.

To the question which will here arise, Whether the residence of the princes (not sovereigns) and nobles is considered an advantage to the country? the answer given has always been—"Yes; decidedly so."

Their presence is desired by the peasantry as a refuge in time of distress by affording succour, which the Wohlthätigkeits-verein cannot always supply. There is a less mass of individual suffering where they reside, whether the villages possess an allemand or do not enjoy that institution.

Where an exception exists, it arises from penury of the individual; a penury usually to be traced to the boundless expense to which these sovereigns were put during the last years of the German empire, in its struggle to resist the French Revolution of 1792. Whether individual

* There is another establishment, the Pium Corpus, whose funds proceed from lands belonging to suppressed convents and from voluntary donations. It very generally charges itself with schools where funds are wanting.

† Vide Enclosures for explanation.

‡ They are assisted by the Pium Corpus.

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.

WURTEMBERG.

individual small sovereigns, or imperial towns under republican forms of government, they equally suffered in their means, as did the establishment of allemands.

Since 1817, the means of the poorer classes have increased; but as property becomes more subdivided, the poorest class of all sustain a loss in the necessary contraction of individual charities. *

Stuttgard, October 30, 1833.

Enclosure (A.)

TRANSPORT des Prisonniers, (Loi du 26 Mai 1824.)

Les dépenses de la nourriture et de la garde des prisonniers se trouvant en route sont payées par la caisse d'état, sans que le prisonnier est forcé de restituer les frais.

Les prisonniers déjà condamnés à une certaine punition et se trouvant en route vers une maison de correction doivent payer les frais s'ils en ont les moyens.

Les dépenses pour un prisonnier par jour sont,

Pour un diner en route	-	-	-	-	-	-	4 <i>rr.</i>
Pour le gîte et le déjeuner	-	-	-	-	-	-	10 <i>rr.</i>
							<u>14 <i>rr.</i></u>

Dans chaque station il y a une prison; la garde de cette prison reçoit pour un prisonnier enfermé,

Pour une ou deux heures	-	-	-	-	-	-	6 <i>rr.</i>
Pour une nuit	-	-	-	-	-	-	10 <i>rr.</i>
							<u>16 <i>rr.</i></u>

Le montant ainsi des frais pour un prisonnier par jour sont 30 *rr.*

$\frac{2}{3}$ sont payés par sa commune, $\frac{1}{3}$ par le baillage, par lequel il passe.

Enclosure (B.)

PUNITION des mauvais sujets, des ivrognes, des personnes qui ont fait de petits vols, qui ont dit des paroles injuriantes, qui ont troublé le repos de la nuit, &c. &c. &c.

1. Emprisonnement.

2. Les personnes coupables plusieurs fois du même crime n'ont pour nourriture que du pain et de l'eau.

Dans les maisons de correction, ou on mincit la nourriture, ou l'on augmente le travail, ou l'on donne un plus mauvais gîte, ou enfin on met le coupable en chaînes.

Enclosure (C.)

CASES under which a Man may take out a Bürgerrecht.

1. A person who, by emigration or otherwise, has lost his right of citizenship (bürgerrecht), and desires again to possess it, must apply for it in that commune in which he was formerly burger.

2. If, however, he never before possessed this right, he must take it out in that parish where he has spent the last five years.

3. In default of this claim, he must apply for it in the parish from which he obtained his marriage license.

4. If not married, he must procure it from the parish in which he was born.

5. Married or widowed women, who cannot establish their claim to a Bürgerrecht under heads 1, 2 or 3, must take it out in the commune to which their husbands belong.

6. Children of parents not possessing the Bürgerrecht, whose case does not come under any of the heads from 1 to 4, are adjudged to that parish which ought to receive their father, or (if they be illegitimate) their mother.

7. If none of the preceding heads answer the case of a person who has not the Bürgerrecht, the police will indicate the commune where he must apply for it.

If a man can prove his case to stand under any of the heads from 1 to 6, the commune which fulfils the conditions must receive him as Burger; always providing, that he pays the necessary sum established by law on his admittance.

Enclosure

* This remark holds good rather in towns than in the country.

Enclosure (C bis.)

DIFFERENCE entre Bürger et Beisitzer.

Chaque habitant du pays doit être Bürger ou Beisitzer.

Un Beisitzer est, pour ainsi dire, un demi-Bürger.

Pour être admis comme Beisitzer dans une commune, il faut payer et posséder la moitié de la somme que doit payer et posséder le Bürger à sa réception. La différence entre Bürger et Beisitzer ne consiste qu'en ce que le dernier n'a pas le droit de choisir le député, et qu'il n'est pas en jouissance des émolumens que reçoit le Bürger de la commune, *e. g.* il y a des communes où chaque Bürger riche ou pauvre reçoit une certaine quantité de bois, &c.

Un vagabond sans moyens qu'une commune doit recevoir comme Beisitzer, ne paye rien à sa réception.

Un Beisitzer qui veut se marier, présente sa demande au magistrat, qui décide s'il est en état de nourrir une famille par son travail, et dans ce cas il peut se marier, et ses enfans seront Beisitzer et pas Bürger.

Un Beisitzer peut épouser une fille quelconque qui perd sa bourgeoisie (*bürgerrecht*) si elle a eu quelque part le droit de bourgeoisie, car les enfans suivent en tout le père.

En cas d'appauvrissement, il n'y a pas de différence entre Bürger et Beisitzer.

Il y a beaucoup de communes qui n'ont point d'Allemand, point de Pium Corpus, mais selon les lois elles doivent nourrir leurs pauvres. Dans ce cas il arrive quelquefois que les mendiants ne sont pas sévèrement punis par les magistrats de ces communes—contre la loi générale.

Enclosure (D 1.)

STUTTGARD.

EXTRAIT résumé de la Direction Centrale du Wohlthätigkeits-verein,
du 1 Juillet 1830 au 30 Juin 1831.

RECETTE.										<i>fl.</i>	<i>rr.</i>
Solde	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	391	49
Produits de marchandises vendues antérieurement	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	11	50
Id. de provisions en magasin	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	14	57
Id. d'outils	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	21	42
Id. de capitaux :											
Capital	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
Intérêts	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	* <i>fl.</i> 2,183		
										2,183	-
D'Emprunts faits pour des bûts utiles :											
Capital	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>fl.</i> 2,661	9	
Intérêts	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	837	7½	
										3,498	16½
D'Avances faites à l'effet de donner de l'occupation aux pauvres :											
Capital	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>fl.</i> 193	50½	
Intérêts	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	53	
										194	43½
Dons annuels	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>fl.</i> 11,044	30	
Id. extraordinaires	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,572	33½	
										12,617	3½
Fonds dits "Fremde Gelder"	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	18	37
										18,951	58½
TOTAL - - <i>fl.</i>											
DÉPENCES.											
Produits de marchandises encore à encaisser	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8	52
Capitaux nouvellement placés	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,857	30
Avances d'intérêts	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	95	46
Nouvelles avances faites à l'effet de donner de l'occupation aux pauvres	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	53	-
Remises sur de pareilles avances	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	67	38½
Fonds contribués pour favoriser des établissemens tendant à l'éducation, à l'entretien, et à l'occupation d'enfans pauvres	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10,950	27½
Id. pour donner de l'occupation, &c. à des pauvres d'un age plus avancé	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	235	-
Id. en faveur d'individus pauvres, d'après la désignation spéciale des contribuans, principalement pour dommage causé par la grêle	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,577	33½
Frais de bureau	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,112	36
Fonds dits "Fremde Gelder"	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	18	37
										17,977	-½
TOTAL - - <i>fl.</i>											

Il reste donc en caisse au 30 Juin 1831 - - *fl.* 974 58.

* A florin is about 1 s. 8 d. English.

Appendix (F.)

CALCUL du Fond de la Direction Centrale du Wohlthätigkeits-verein,
au 30 Juin 1830.

										<i>fl.</i>	<i>xx.</i>
Foreign Communications. WURTEMBERG.	Espèces en caisse	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	974	58
	Produits de marchandises encore à encaisser	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8	52
	Marchandises non vendues	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	32	26
	Capitaux à 5 pour cent	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>fl.</i> 6,150	-	
	4½	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4,200	-	
	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	44,600	-	
										54,950	-
	Emprunts pour des bûts utiles :										
	à 5 pour cent	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>fl.</i> 1,344	22	
	4½	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	994	30	
	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9,410	12	
	3½	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,500	-	
	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6,870	-	
	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	525	-	
	Sans intérêts	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	141	4	
										21,785	8
	Avances faites pour donner de l'occupation aux pauvres, ne portant point d'intérêts	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,946	22
	Intérêts non rentrés	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	105	-
	Avances d'intérêts	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	25	51
	TOTAL	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>fl.</i>	80,828	37

(D 2.)—STUTTGARD.

EXTRAIT résumé du compte de Caisse de la Direction Centrale du Wohlthätigkeits-verein,
du 1 Juillet 1831 au 30 Juin 1832.

										<i>fl.</i>	<i>xx.</i>
RECETTE.											
Solde	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	974	58
Objets restitués	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	534	52
Produits de marchandises vendues antérieurement	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8	52
Id. de Capitaux :											
Capital	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>fl.</i> 5,000	-	
Intérêts	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,222	58	
										7,222	58
D'Emprunts faits pour des bûts utiles :											
Capital	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>fl.</i> 1,730	33	
Intérêts	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	639	23½	
										2,369	56½
D'Avances ne portant pas d'intérêts, faites pour donner de l'occupation aux pauvres	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	521	54
Dons annuels	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>fl.</i> 11,037	20	
Id. extraordinaires	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10,104	12½	
										21,141	32½
Fonds dits "Fremde Gelder"	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	25	48
	TOTAL	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>fl.</i>	32,800	51

DÉPENSES.											
Produits de marchandises encore à encaisser	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	54
Capitaux nouvellement placés	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4,000	-
Nouveaux Emprunts pour des bûts utiles	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4,550	-
Fonds contribués pour favoriser des établissemens tendant à l'éducation, à l'entretien, et à l'occupation d'enfans pauvres	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10,236	45½
Id. pour donner de l'occupation à des pauvres d'un age plus avancé	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	554	38
Id. en faveur d'individus pauvres, d'après la désignation spéciale des contribuans; principalement pour dommage causé par la grêle	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10,126	12½
Frais de bureau	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,215	56
Fonds dits "Fremde Gelder"	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	25	48
	TOTAL	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>fl.</i>	31,715	14

Il reste donc en caisse au 30 Juin 1832 - - *fl.* 1,085 37.

CALCUL

CALCUL du Fond de la Direction du Wohlthätigkeits-verein,
au 30 Juin 1832.

	<i>fl.</i>	<i>rr.</i>
Espèces en caisse - - - - -	1,085	37
Produits de marchandises encore à encaisser - - - - -	5	54
Marchandises non vendus - - - - -	32	26
Capitaux à 5 p. cts. - - - - - <i>fl.</i> 1,150 -		
4½ - - - - - 8,200 -		
4 - - - - - 44,600 -		
	53,950	-
Emprunts pour des bâts utiles :		
à 5 p. cts. - - - - - <i>fl.</i> 1,039 3		
4½ - - - - - 866 24		
4 - - - - - 12,943 4		
3½ - - - - - 2,000 -		
3 - - - - - 7,120 -		
2 - - - - - 510 -		
Sans intérêts - - - - - 126 4		
	24,604	35
Avances faites pour donner de l'occupation aux pauvres, ne portant point d'intérêts - - - - -	2,424	28
Intérêts non rentrés - - - - -	260	-
TOTAL - - - <i>fl.</i>	82,363	-

Foreign
Communications.
—
WURTEMBERG.

Enclosure (E 1.)

NOMBRE des Emigrés qui ont passés par les Pays-Bas pour se rendre en Amérique, avec la désignation de l'Argent qu'ils ont emporté.

DATES.	Nombre des Personnes.	L'Argent qu'ils ont emporté :			
		en Florins.	en Argent Anglais.		
			£.	s.	d.
1831 - - -	1,791	95,020	7,918	6	8
1832 - - -	3,883	758,048	63,170	13	4
1833 - - -	594	144,446	12,037	3	4
Total en 1831-32-33 -	6,268	997,514	83,126	3	4

N. B.—La somme n'est pas fixée qu'ils doivent produire à la légation pour obtenir la permission de passer par les Pays-Bas, mais outre les autre actes qu'ils doivent produire, ils sont tenus d'avoir,

- 1°. Des certificats authentiques, constatant leur fortune.
- 2°. Un acte de cautionnement passé devant un notaire, et délivré par deux ou plusieurs maisons de commerce des Pays-Bas, connues et accréditées, et par lequel elles repondent de tous les frais, sans exception, pendant le séjour des émigrés sur le territoire du royaume.

Toute la manipulation de la besogne des émigrés repose sur l'arrête royal, N° 3, du 28 Février 1828, &c. publié dans le royaume de Wurtemberg, par le "Regierungs Blatt," (N°s 17 et 56), du 29 Mars et du 30 Août 1828.

Pour donner un apperçus complète et exacte du nombre des émigrés Wurtembergeois, qui quittent annuellement leur pays, avec les sommes qu'ils emportent, il faudrait également savoir le nombre de ceux qui,

- 1°. Passent par Havre ;
- 2°. Par Brême et Hambourg ;
- 3°. De ceux qui vont en Pologne et Russie.

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.

WURTEMBERG.

(E 2.)

DATES.	Nombre des Familles émigrées en Russie, dans les Années 1830, 1831, 1832, 1833.	Sommes déposées par eux.			
		Dépôt exigé par le Gouvernement Impériale.		Dépôt volontaire.	
		Florins au pied de 24 fl.	Les montans des Sommes réduits en Argent Anglais.	Florins au pied de 24 fl.	Les montans des Sommes réduits en Argent Anglais.
1830 :			£. s. d.		£. s. d.
Avril - -	10 Familles -	4,000			
Mai - - -	20 - - -	7,800			
Juin - - -	1 - - -	400			
Juillet - -	4 - - -	1,600			
Août - - -	3 - - -	1,000			
Novembre -	7 - - -	2,800			
	45 Total en 1830	17,600	1,466 13 4		
1831 :					
Mars - - -	23 Familles -	9,000	- - -	1,900	
Avril - - -	38 - - -	15,200	- - -	4,070	
Mai - - -	20 - - -	8,000	- - -	1,000	
Juin - - -	3 - - -	1,100			
Juillet - -	2 - - -	800			
Août - - -	4 - - -	1,600			
Octobre - -	1 - - -	400			
Novembre -	7 - - -	2,700			
	98 Total en 1831	38,800	3,233 6 8	6,970	582 6 8
1832 :					
Mars - - -	3 Familles -	1,200			
Avril - - -	20 - - -	8,000			
Mai - - -	4 - - -	1,600	- - -	2,220	
Juin - - -	6 - - -	2,400			
Juillet - -	12 - - -	4,800			
	45 Total en 1832	18,000	1,500 - -	2,220	185 - -
1833 :					
Septembre -	2 Familles -	800			
Octobre - -	9 - - -	3,600			
	11 Total en 1833	4,400	366 13 4		
Total des Sommes déposées en 1830 - - -		Florins. 17,600	£. s. d. 1,466 13 4		
Total des Sommes déposées en 1831 - - -		45,770	3,815 13 4		
Total des Sommes déposées en 1832 - - -		20,220	1,685 - -		
Total des Sommes déposées en 1833 - - -		4,400	366 13 4		
TOTAL des Sommes déposées dans les quatre ans - -		87,990	7,334 - -		

N. B.—In the Colonies in the south of Russia, single men are not received.

(E 3.)

DATES.	Nombre des Individus qui ont passé par la France, pour émigrer en Amérique, dans les Années 1831, 1832 et 1833.	Sommes déposées par eux.			
		Dépôt exigé par le Gouvernement Français.		Dépôt volontaire.	
		Florins au pied de 24 fl.	The Sums re- duced into English Money. £. s. d.	Florins au pied de 24 fl.	The Sums re- duced into English Money. £. s. d.
1831 :					
Octobre -	2	800			
Novembre -	1	400			
	3 Total en 1831	1,200	100 - -		
1832 :					
Février -	13	2,100			
Mars -	226	47,000	- - -	2,000	
Avril -	169	32,400	- - -	4,600	
Mai -	10	1,900	- - -	1,800	
Juin -	109	21,900	- - -	10,950	
Juillet -	77	15,500	- - -	300	
Août -	15	4,000	- - -	600	
Septembre -	11	2,700	- - -		
Octobre -	12	3,500	- - -	680	
Novembre -	3	1,400	- - -		
Decembre -	6	1,300	- - -	2,300	
	651 Total en 1832	133,700	11,141 13 4	23,230	1,935 16 8
1833 :					
Février -	71	10,400	- - -	2,300	
Mars -	33	7,400	- - -	700	
Avril -	178	36,900	- - -	2,830	
Mai -	68	13,700	- - -	12,395	
Juin -	64	17,500	- - -	6,490	
Juillet -	24	6,800	- - -	9,700	
Août -	10	3,600	- - -	1,600	
Septembre -	9	1,800	- - -		
Octobre -	2	700	- - -		
	459 Total en 1833	98,800	8,233 13 4	36,015	3,001 5 -
Total des Sommes déposées en 1831 - - -		Florins. 1,200	£. s. d. 100 - -		
Total des Sommes déposées en 1832 - - -		156,930	13,077 10 -		
Total des Sommes déposées en 1833 - - -		134,815	11,234 18 4		
TOTAL des Sommes déposées dans les trois ans - - -		292,945	12,412 8 4		

LETTER from Sir E. C. Disbrowe, to the Right hon. Lord Viscount Palmerston, K.B.

My Lord,

Stuttgart, Dec. 1833.

As a Supplement to my Report on the state of the Poor in the kingdom of Wurtemberg, I take the liberty of transmitting a variety of papers, some received previous, others subsequent to my Despatch, No. —, and from which I think it may be possible to extract further information.

The Enclosure (L.) from the magistrate of Ludwigsberg, to whom I feel much indebted for the information furnished, corroborates the statements in my former Despatch, and at the same time gives a general idea of the state of cultivation and value of land in that district.

This Return, which I received after I had despatched my No. —, is a reply to certain questions which I put to him, questions similar in substance having likewise been addressed by me to the chief magistrates of from fifty to sixty different villages.

P. L. (F.)

3 T 2

The

(L.) page 505.

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.

WURTEMBERG.

(G.) p. 495.

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D'après Memminger, (1829, 2 livraison, pages 311-442) il y a en Wurtemberg 64,896 pauvres, dont 22,803 sont capables du travail, 14,142 ne le sont qu'en partie, 11,044 ne sont point du tout capables, et 16,848 sont enfans au-dessous de 14 ans.

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2°. Les *Haus-Armen*, qui malgré leur travail ne gagnent pas le pain nécessaire à leur famille. Ces secours ne sont pas donnés en argent, mais, *a.* en leur procurant occasion pour le travail; *b.* en payant pour eux leur loyer; *c.* en payant le maître d'école pour leurs enfans. En général on se borne à ne pas donner le secours comme don, mais en échange de quelque service ou travail.

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CAISSE

579

CAISSE des PAUVRES, établie dans chaque Commune (ou Pium Corpus.)

Appendix (F.)

Les revenus de cette caisse sont ou perpétueux ou casuels. Les premiers se dérivent des épargnes faites par l'abolition du culte catholique dans les églises, (comme lampes, bougies, feu éternel, &c.) et des intérêts du capital fait par des vœux ou d'autres manières. Les revenus casuels viennent de l'argent donné comme offrandes pendant le sermon, par des contributions volontaires des habitants, de certaines amendes, *e. g.* des amendes imposées par le *Kirchen-Couvent* (magistrats ecclésiastiques et laïques), des amendes de certains ouvriers, nommément le tiers de toutes les amendes levées sur les aubergistes, de la quatrième partie de la taxe levée sur les chiens, de l'argent donné pour la cloche de deuil, pour les voitures de deuil, enfin de quelques taxes que le gouvernement a abandonnées aux pauvres.

Foreign Communications.

WURTEMBERG.

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En cas que ni les fondations ni le Pium Corpus ne suffisent, la Commune est obligée de contribuer, et il est ordinaire que la Commune ne donne pas une plus grande somme que le Pium Corpus.

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Le Gouvernement surveille la caisse d'épargne (*Spar-Casse*), les établissements pour les orphelins, pour les sourds, et pour les muets.

Enclosure (G.)

EXTRACTED FROM MEMMINGER'S STATISTICS.

	Corn Land.		Meadow Land.	Vineyards.	Garden Ground.	Forests.	Timber for Building.	Waste Ground.
	Cultivated.	Fallow.						
1. Neckar Kreis	453,171	118	104,049	49,502	20,345	219,602	21,466	17,011
2. Black Forest Kreis	400,825	119,188	140,874	6,178	18,618	306,559	20,643	100,433
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4. Danube Kreis	747,431	109,371	267,270	2,724	11,949	364,379	25,923	140,209
TOTAL	2,160,766	280,337	738,338	77,552	61,152	1,186,834	89,482	335,554

The numbers are given in *Morgens*, (about equal to Acres.)

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.

WURTEMBERG.

(G.) p. 495.

The object I had in view was to ascertain if the system of cultivation in the different parts of the kingdom had or had not a sensible influence on the state of the poor.

I regret to say that my researches on this point will not enable me to come to a satisfactory conclusion; but where the vine is extensively cultivated, misery is in general more severely felt by the poorer classes, because the cultivation of it partakes of the nature of a lottery.

The Enclosure (G.) will show the quantity of land in this kingdom under cultivation, and how very small a proportion, particularly in the Neckar Kreis, is allowed to be fallow; of course this ensures for the moment an increased demand for labour; how far the land will bear it is another question, or whether the impoverishment of the land may not ultimately prove a serious loss to the poor.

Although these details do not perhaps strictly come within the limits of the inquiry which your Lordship did me the honour to submit to me, still as I have received the information in the course of my inquiry, and as they do bear on the question, I think it my duty to submit them.

The Enclosure (H.) contains six Returns, which I have selected.

No. 1. Is the return of a village having a considerable landed proprietor residing near it.

No. 2. That of a small town.

No. 3. That of a village influenced by its contiguity to a town.

No. 4. That of a parish having no particular circumstances attached to it.

No. 5. That of a parish having an Allemand.

No. 6. That of a parish without an Allemand :

All selected at hazard from amongst the returns, in order to present a general view of the subject.

The price of labour varies very considerably. I cannot state even an average price. 4d. per day is given in some places, 11d. in others. In this statement, I exclude towns.

I beg leave to add an account of the establishments of the small township of Weinsberg.

Besides the above, I have thrown together a number of papers, which may perhaps be found to contain further information, although in perusing them I have not found any particular points not already touched on to which I could venture to draw your Lordship's attention.

I have the honour to be, with the highest respect,

My Lord,

Your Lordship's most obedient, humble servant,

The Right Hon.
Lord Viscount Palmerston, K. B.

E. C. Disbrowe.

(K.) p. 500.

(I. to XII.)

pp. 497-499.

Enclosure (F.)

QUELQUES REMARQUES sur l'ADMINISTRATION des PAUVRES dans le
Royaume de WURTEMBERG.

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TOTAL -	2,160,766	280,337	738,338	77,552	61,152	1,186,834	89,482	335,554

The numbers are given in *Morgens*, (about equal to Acres.)

1.—How many inhabitants are there in this place?

2.—How many acres in Corn-field, and how many in Vineyards?

3.—Are there any lands in the Parish which belong to the Crown, or to Noblemen who do not live here?

4.—How great was the number of sick and lying-in supported by the Parish in the years 1850, 1851, and 1852?

5.—How is the poor relief in each of the above years, and divided among them?

6.—How much Corn distributed in kind, as wood, coal, &c. &c. in the above years?

7.—In what way is the money for the purpose levied?

8.—How much of the Parish funds or other resources, the interest of which is applied to the assistance of the Poor, is now being expended?

9.—Has the Parish a Public Hospital or School belonging to it?

10.—How much may the Tithe which the Parish pays now?

11.—How much Tithe paid to the Crown, to the Clergy, to the Lord of the Manor, or to the Poor?

12.—Are the Tithes redeemed, or might they be so?

13.—Of what Articles are the Church Tithes levied?

14.—What Articles pay Tithe to the Landlords?

15.—Are any resources furnished to the Poor according to their needs, and the number of their families?

16.—How the number of Poor decreased since the year 1850, or has it increased?

17.—In the villages in which the Poor are situated, is there any kind of industry, or is the population increasing or decreasing?

ILLINGEN.

There are 30 or 40 poor persons enjoy a weekly allowance from the poor chest of the place.

There are no lands of this nature here.

There are 30 or 40 poor persons enjoy a weekly allowance from the poor chest of the place.

There are 500 to 600 fl. which was bestowed partly in regular allowances, partly in assistance.

There are the above in money, the Maulbron bushels of flour, and Georgi, bread foundation.

There is money above mentioned is paid poor chest of

There is a house, and also the poor-house, which could be six times as very small.

There is 3,300 fl. the receives 3,100 fl. resident clergy- of several years.

There is emp, pota- cabbage, wheat, etch, peas, and ed fruit.

There is t, oats, bar- wine, and of 2 of peas and beans.

There is e number of al years has on the in-

There is kind.

(H 6.) O B E R T Ü R K H E I M. No Allmand.	Enclosure (I 1.) A H L B E R G. No Allmand.	(I 2.) N E C K A R R E M S.* Bailiwick Waiblingen.	(I 3.) O S W E I L.
1.—842.	1.—1,026.	1.—The village of Neckar Rems counts in this year 287 inhabitants.	1.—1,608.
2.—In corn land 44 acres; vineyards, 150; meadows, 188, chiefly planted with trees.	2.—In vineyards 330 acres, meadows with trees 320, corn land 150.	2.—1,125 acres, of which $\frac{1}{2}$ are good, $\frac{1}{2}$ middling, $\frac{1}{2}$ very bad; meadows and garden land, above the average quality of vineyards; 168 acres, half of which are rooted up owing to unfavourable produce: woodland, 60 acres, inferior; 25 acres not fit for cultivation.	2.—1,800 corn land, & 120 in meadow.
3.—The whole of the lands belong to the inhabitants of the place.	3.—None.	3.—There are no lands here of that kind. Of the above, 50 acres of corn land and 95 acres of vineyard are the property of persons not living within the parish.	3.—All the above-mentioned land belongs to the community. The Crown possesses 72 acres of woodland.
4.—The number needing assistance has, since 1829, remained the same: viz. 1 infirm person receives yearly 36 <i>fl.</i> and two others weekly 12 <i>sr.</i> Besides this, about 10 <i>fl.</i> yearly is paid for medicine.	4.—In 1829 there were 22 persons; in 1830 & 1831, 25 persons; in 1832, 26 persons. All these were only poor people, and not sick or infirm.	4.—From eight to ten persons each year.	4.—In 1829, 10 persons, 1830, 9 " 1831, 7 " 1832, 6 "
5.—See 4.	5.—In each year 24 <i>fl.</i> 15 <i>sr.</i> In 1832, however, there was an extra outlay of 20 <i>fl.</i> Besides this, a blind man received 15 <i>sr.</i> and an old man 6 <i>sr.</i> weekly.	5.—The expenses for them annually amounted to about 125 <i>fl.</i> or 150 <i>fl.</i> for poor children, which are boarded by country people; 100 <i>fl.</i> for the sick and infirm; there remain 150 <i>fl.</i>	5.—Annual average expense, 300 <i>fl.</i>
6.—All in money, with a small portion of wood.	6.—In money. In the winter of 1829, two cords of wood were distributed.	6.—The relief was all given them in money.	6.—All in money.
7.—It is levied on the burghers.	7.—The parish chest furnishes it.	7.—It is levied on the inhabitants, in conjunction with the taxes, under the name of common rates.	7.—It is levied as rates on the community.
8.—The charitable endowments amount to 800 <i>fl.</i> The interest of which, however, is never employed for the support of the poor, as many other demands must be satisfied.	8.—None.	8.—The parish possesses a fund of 5,000 <i>fl.</i> in rents, besides a mill, a pasturage for sheep; the rent of which, deducting expenses for repair, amounts to 1,000 <i>fl.</i>	8.—There are 2,000 <i>fl.</i> of charitable endowments, but the community owes about the same sum.
9.—	9.—The Parish has a house in which poor people dwell gratis; and 15 or 20 children are yearly instructed in the public school, at the expense of 1 <i>fl.</i> per child.	9.—There is a school here.	9.—Sick or infirm persons are put out to nurse. There exists a parish school.
10.—They amount to 593 <i>fl.</i>	10.—945 <i>fl.</i>	10.—They are farmed out to private persons at the rate of the corn price, and amount to about 1,000 <i>fl.</i> The tithes of wine are farmed to the proprietors, and are paid at the rate of 1 <i>fl.</i> 36 <i>sr.</i> per acre.	10.—About 700 bushels of corn.
11.—The Crown receives 460 <i>fl.</i> ; the clergyman 133 <i>fl.</i>	11.—The Crown receives 900 <i>fl.</i> ; the clergyman 45 <i>fl.</i>	11.—To the Domain-office.	11.—
12.—The greater part are redeemed. Those of fruit only, received by the clergyman, amounting as above to 133 <i>fl.</i> , are paid in kind.	12.—They are redeemed.	12.—They are farmed. (See Article 10.)	12.—They may be commuted.
13.—On fruit only. (See 11.)	13.—On hay.	13.—From the produce of the ground, as field beans, cabbage, maize, rapeseed, oil plants, potatoes, clover, turnips, hemp and fruit.	13.—Potatoes, field beans, clover, and for small tithes, 21 florins.
14.—None. (See 10.)	14.—None.	14.—	14.—
15.—Yes.	15.—They receive assistance according to their circumstances.	15.—In providing for the poor the number of their families, as well as their degree of poverty and situation, is considered.	15.—Yes.
16.—It has remained the same. (See 4.)	16.—It has increased. (See 4.)	Note.—The regulations of this place (Neckar Rems) are very oppressive to the inhabitants, owing to the neighbouring road, of 1,200 rods, which is to be maintained by the village, and sometimes great damage arises from the Neckar and Rems overflowing, the costs of which must be covered by a tax laid on the inhabitants. The above is certified by the Bailiff. Wagner.	
17.—Beisitzers have no part in the property of the commune. They must, however, help to bear its expenses, and only in case of real necessity have they any claim on assistance.	N.B.—The capital of charitable endowments on the parish amounts to 310 <i>fl.</i> The interest of this, viz. 15 <i>fl.</i> 30 <i>sr.</i> , is applied to the support of poor sick.		

* The Bailiff was requested to answer these Questions.

(14.) NECKAR WEIHINGEN.	(15.) UNTER RIEXINGEN	(16.) SILLENBUCH.	(17.) Grand Baillage de SCHORNDORF.															
1.—1,070.	1.—966.	1.—325.	1.—3,800.															
2.—1,372 acres altogether.	2.—1,100 acres of corn land, and 130 in vineyards.	2.—108 arpents de terre de champ; 33 ditto de vignes; 120 ditto de prairies couvertes d'arbres. En outre les bourgeois possèdent des biens dans d'autres districts.	2.—4,470 arpents, consistant en terre de labour, prairies, vignobles, jardins potagers, vergers, prairies couvertes d'arbres, forêts, pâturages.															
3.—3 $\frac{3}{4}$ acres only belong to the Crown, and are assigned to the clergyman as glebe land.	3.—320 acres of corn land, 60 acres of meadow land, and 3 acres of vineyard, belong to a non-resident landowner.	3.—Non.	3.—Non.															
4.—In the year 1829, one man; 1830, one man and a woman; 1831, one man and one woman.	4.—At an average about 30 persons.	4.—En 1829, on a assisté, 2 personnes. 1830 - 2 — 1831 - 4 — 1832 - 2 —	4.— <table><tr><th></th><th>Par des Aumônes publiques.</th><th>Par les Soins de l'Hôpital.</th></tr><tr><td>1829</td><td>- 95 personnes.</td><td>- 94 personnes.</td></tr><tr><td>1830</td><td>- 104 —</td><td>- 82 —</td></tr><tr><td>1831</td><td>- 109 —</td><td>- 97 —</td></tr><tr><td>1832</td><td>- 107 —</td><td>- 89 —</td></tr></table>		Par des Aumônes publiques.	Par les Soins de l'Hôpital.	1829	- 95 personnes.	- 94 personnes.	1830	- 104 —	- 82 —	1831	- 109 —	- 97 —	1832	- 107 —	- 89 —
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5.—In the year 1829 - - 60 <i>fl.</i> 1830 - - 44 <i>fl.</i> 1831 - - 44 <i>fl.</i>	5.—In money, 80 <i>fl.</i> In bread - 19 <i>fl.</i>	5.—Tous les pauvres ont reçu chaque semaine <i>f.</i> 10. une femme malade a obtenu pendant 62 semaines chaque semaine <i>f.</i> 1; mais depuis une année elle reçoit chaque semaine 36 <i>ar.</i>	5.—Cette dépense a consisté, Pour la Caisse de Charité. Pour l'Hôpital. 1829 - - <i>f.</i> 1,173. 15. - - <i>f.</i> 3,561. 46. 1830 - - 1,234. 57. - - 3,409. 36. 1831 - - 1,258. 7. - - 3,875. 16. 1832 - - 1,259. 11. - - 3,679. 58.															
6.—All in money.	6.—Partly. (See 5.)	6.—En argent.	6.—Une partie de la dépense pour les pauvres a été faite pour leur procurer des habits. En outre on a distribué chaque année 25 à 30 toises de bois.															
7.—It was levied on the inhabitants in the way of rates.	7.—From the interest of charitable endowments.	7.—En partie par la commune, en partie par une caisse de fondation.	7.—Toute la dépense est faite par les caisses publiques, sans rien retirer des habitants.															
8.—The commune does possess some funds, but there are various demands to be satisfied before these can be applied to the relief of the poor.	8.—The fund of charitable endowments amounts to 5,000 <i>fl.</i> and is thus employed.	8.—La commune a bien quelques capitaux, mais ils ne sont pas employés au soulagement des pauvres.	8.—Tant la direction de l'hôpital que celle de la caisse de charité, comme aussi la direction de la ville, possèdent des capitaux et d'autres possessions. Le produit qui en revient n'est pas seulement employé pour les pauvres, mais aussi à différents autres buts.															
9.—There is no hospital, but poor children are educated, at the public cost, at the public school.	9.—	9.—La commune a une école que 5 écoliers fréquentent gratis; depuis le mois de Mai 1833, il y a aussi une maison, où demeure gratis une pauvre famille.	9.—La commune a une maison de charité, et outre cela un hôpital particulier.															
10.—4,103 <i>fl.</i>	10.—	10.—A <i>f.</i> 325.	10 & 11.—La dîme sur les céréales revient en partie à la couronne, en partie à l'hôpital; elle peut rapporter, à la couronne 325 boisseaux de froment, et 3 voies de paille; à l'hôpital 80 boisseaux de froment. La dîme est affermée chaque année; la dîme sur le vin qui revient à la couronne a été affermée pour 20 ans par la ville pour la somme de <i>f.</i> 1,100.															
11.—Partly to the Crown, partly to the clergyman, and partly to the schoolmaster.	11.—The Crown receives the great tithes in kind; the clergyman the small ones, in money partly. Both receive the wine tithes in money.	11.—La couronne perçoit la dîme du vin en <i>f.</i> 50 La cure celle des fruits - - - 200 Plus celle du foin - - - 60 Plus celle des terres en friche - - - 15 <i>f.</i> 325																
12.—The tithes are not redeemed.	12.—They are not yet commuted; but it is hoped they will be so in future.	12.—La dîme du vin est affermée, celle des fruits et des céréales est payée en nature.	12.—Pas jusqu'à présent; mais on attend une loi d'affranchissement.															
13.—On potatoes, hemp, clover, field beans, turnips, fruits, rapeseed, millet, &c.	13.—On every thing except corn.	13.—Des fruits, du foin et des terres en friches.	13.—Le clergé ne perçoit point de dîme.															
14.—	14.—Wine only.	14.—Aucun.	14.—Il n'y a ici point de seigneurie.															
15.—Yes.	15.—Yes.	15.—On n'assiste que des personnes indigentes.	15.—En partie d'après le nombre des membres de la famille, et en partie d'après les autres circonstances, en prenant en considération la plus ou moins grande capacité de travail, la caducité et la moralité. En 1832, on institua à cause du manque de vivres dans la classe indigente un établissement de soupes à la Rumfort au moyen des contributions des particuliers. Cette institution dura depuis le 15 Juin jusqu'au 25 Août, et on y distribua chaque jour jusqu'à 350 portions. La dépense de cette institution monta à peu près à <i>f.</i> 1,000. Des dames se chargèrent volontairement et sans rétribution de la surveillance dans la cuisine, et quelques bourgeois assistèrent à la distribution des portions pour y maintenir l'ordre. La bienveillance particulière est encore grande. Une association de dames se charge de distribuer leurs contributions à des indigents particuliers autant que possible en rapport avec leurs besoins. Une partie des secours pour les pauvres est employée principalement pour payer l'apprentissage de jeunes artisans et pour entretenir une école de couture, de tricotage et d'industrie, qui sont fréquentées gratis.															
16.—	16.—It has not diminished since 1820, as means are wanting to provide for and employ them; and from the great increase of population, it is to be feared that poverty will also increase.	16.—Il est d'après $\frac{1}{4}$ à peu près le même.																
17.—	17.—Beisitzers must contribute equally with Burgers to the administration, &c. of the parish; but have no claim on Burgers' benefits, such as wood, &c. nor a vote in the election of magistrates.	17.—Il n'y a point de non bourgeois.																

(I 8.) EGOLSHEIM et MONREPOS.	(I 9.) Grand Baillage de SCHORN DORF GERADSTETTEN.	(I 10.) CANNSTADT.	(I 11.) OBER URBACH, Grand Baillage de SCHORN DORF.	(I 12.) STEINENBERG.
1.—A Egolsheim, 590; Monrepos, 28 == 618.	1.—1,714.	1.—4,010.	1.—A peu près 2,100.	1.—La paroisse de Steinen- berg, 776; Miedelsbach, 489; Steinbruck, 101 == 1,366.
2.—A peu près 900 arpents de terre de champ; 150 de prai- ries; et 80 de vignes.	2.—Champs et jardins, 512 arpents; prai- ries, 290; vignobles, 362; forêts, 554.	2.—2,400 arpents de champ. en champs, 923 arpents; 20; terres communes, 50;	2.—Les branches nourricières des habi- tans sont principalement la culture de la vigne et l'éducation des bétail. Le produit des terres est bien loin de suffire aux besoins actuels. Les terres de la commune consistent en champs, 923 arpents; prairies, 682; vergers, 86; jardins potagers, 20; terres communes, 50; vignobles, 350; pâturages et forêts, 40 == 2,151 arpents. De tout ceci la commune possède, prairies, 85 arpents; pâturages et forêts, 40; terres communes, 50 == 175 arps. Les terres sont 1-3 bonnes, 1-3 médi- ocres, et 1-3 mauvaises.	2.—Steinenberg, 1,056 ar- pents, dont 300 en forêts. Miedelsbach, 535 arp. dont 30 en forêts. Steinbruck, 360 arp. dont 35 en forêts.
3.—Tout le bien d'Egolsheim, excepté les allées.	3.—La cure possède 3 arp. de prairies, 1 de champ et 2 de vignes. Toutes les possessions de la commune se composent de 500 arp. de forêts, 48 arp. de champs et 30 arp. de prairies.	3.—A la couronne appar- tient le Rosenstein avec environ 200 arp. de terres.	3.—Aucun des biens sus-men- tionnés n'appar- tient à la cou- ronne, ni à des gentils-hommes.	3.—Ni la couronne ni des gentils-hommes n'ont des possessions dans la commune.
4, 5 & 6.—L'un dans l'autre on a distribué chaque année à peu près f. 25 aux pauvres de l'en- droit, parmi les quels il ne se trouve aucun impotent.	4.—Le nombre des ma- lades dans le cours des années 1829, 1830, 1831 et 1832, étoit de 12, 13, 9 et 14; des ma- lades et pauvres assistés, 65, 68, 64 et 65. 5.—1829, f. 573; 1830, f. 591; 1831, f. 620; 1832, f. 507.	4.—50 personnes, et dans les trois dernières années 60 à 70. 5.—Dans les 3 der- nières années, chaque année f. 3,000.	4.—En 1828 } Avant la sé- } paration { 35 pers. } d'Unter Ur- } bach - { 36 " } - - { 24 " } - - { 25 "	4.—1829 - 23 pers. 1830 - 27 " 1831 - 25 " 1832 - 31 "
7.—Par des impôts sur les bour- geois.	7.—L'argent em- ployé pour cela est tiré de la caisse publique.	7.—La plus grande par- tie est tirée de la caisse de l'hôpital. Le reste provient des contri- butions volontaires des habitans.	7.—L'argent employé pour les pauvres (non compris celui mentionné N° 6.) est tiré de la caisse de la commune et des impôts.	7.—Au moyen des caisses publiques, sans impôt particulier pour les pauvres.
8.—Il existe deux fondations de capitales de f. 21. 30. et f. 43. 58, dont on dis- tribue les intérêts aux pauvres.	8.—La commune a f. 6,000 de capital, et des revenus des forêts et des prairies; en outre des établissemens parti- culiers pour les pauvres.	8.—Les fonds pour les pauvres ont une administra- tion à part.	8.—Non.	8.—Outre ce que l'on a dit plus haut des au- mones hebdomadaires, il y a encore f. 1,318 de fonda- tions, dont les intérêts sont distribués chaque année dans la paroisse en pain et en livres.
9.—La commune n'a pas d'hôpital, mais une école, qui ne peut pas être envisagée comme une école de pauvres.	9.—La commune a une maison de cha- rité très resserrée, où on admet aussi des malades.	9.—La commune a outre un hôpital, encore des bâtimens où les pauvres sont logés gratis.	9.—La commune a une maison de cha- rité, où sont admis les pauvres qui ne sont pas en état de payer leur loyer. Dans l'automne 1831 on a acheté une maison, au cas que le choléra envahît le pays; mais on a fait la condition au vendeur que si cette maladie ne s'y mon- trait pas, le marché étoit déclaré nul.	9.—Les communes Steinen- berg et Steinbruck n'ont point d'hôpital public; mais Miedelsbach en a un.
10.—A peu près à f. 730.	10.—Elle a chaque année f. 2,150; de dîme à payer.	10 & 11.—La dîme appartient à l'état.	10.—Cette dîme peut monter à peu près à f. 2,700, en argent chaque année.	10.—Steinenberg, Miedels- bach, Steinbruck, dîme de froment, f. 300, f. 200, f. 60; de vin, f. 130, f. 170, f. 0; de foin, f. 55, f. 25, f. 0; petite dîme, f. 130, f. 170, f. 25; droit de défrichements, f. 70, f. 8, f. 0.
11.—La grande dîme appartient à la Chambre des Finances; la petite à la cure.	11.—Toute la dîme appartient à la couronne.		11.—La dîme se paye à la cou- ronne. autres dîmes sont payées à la couronne ou à la Chambre des Finances.	11.—La petite dîme à Stei- nenberg et Steinbruck est payée à la cure; toutes les
12.—Non.	12.—La dîme du foin est levée, et on a espé- rance que les autres dîmes le seront aussi.	12.—Les dîmes ex- istent encore aujourd'hui.	12.—La dîme sur les grains est livrée en nature, la dîme du vin, la petite dîme et celle du foin est af- fermée.	12.—Elles sont main- tenant toutes affermées, excepté celle qui appartiennent à la cure.
13.—Des fruits et des terres en friche.	13.—Le clergé ne reçoit point de dîme; il a ses appointe- ments fixes.	13.—D'aucun. (Voyez 10 & 11.)	13.—Le clergé ne reçoit pas de dîme.	13.—Voyez la réponse N° 11.
14.—	14.—Il n'y a point de seigneur.	14.—Voyez 10, 11 & 13.	14.—Aucun propriétaire ou gen- til-homme n'a de dîme à percevoir.	14.—Il n'y a point de dîmes qui appartiennent aux seign- eurs. La couronne et la cure
15.—On a égard au nombre des enfants et à la nécessité.	15.—Les pauvres sont as- sistés d'après la grandeur de leurs besoins, leur incapacité de travail- ler, et d'après le nombre de leurs familles. Il y a une école d'industrie, di- rigée par la femme du pasteur; elle est tellement recherchée que des per- sonnes des villages voisins viennent la fréquenter.	15.—Ils sont distri- bués d'après les besoins.	15.—Les secours qu'on accorde aux pauvres sont en rapport avec la grandeur de la famille et les circonstances des personnes.	15.—On en ac- corde aux pau- vres d'après leur situation indi- viduelle.
16.—		16.—Depuis 1820 il s'est accru d'à peu près 40 personnes.		
17.—		17.—	Répondu par le Maire, STANDENMAYER.	Répondu, Steinenberg, Bailli, MAJER.

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.

WURTEMBERG.

Enclosure (K.)

WEINSBERG.

REGLEMENTS concernant l'Etablissement pour les Soins et l'Occupation des Pauvres et des Malades.

PREFACE.

L'ANCIENNE manière de pourvoir aux besoins des pauvres par des aumônes hebdomadaires en argent et en pain, et par des habillements, en les logeant dans une habitation resserrée, en payant aux uns leur loyer, aux autres leurs pensions, a entraîné trop d'abus et a par cela même peu répondu à son but. En effet on manquait de la surveillance nécessaire sur une classe d'hommes en grande partie si dérégles et si corrompus. On n'avoit point fourni d'occupation à ceux qui étoient encore en état de travailler, et on n'avoit pu en aucune façon réprimer la mendicité et le vice.

Cela engagea le magistrat à fonder un nouvel établissement pour donner des soins aux pauvres et pour les occuper. Pour parvenir à ce but on acheta, monta et agrandit l'ancienne fabrique de Kleinknecht. Mais comme les arrêts du 5 Décembre 1828, et 9 Janvier 1829, d'après l'expérience acquise jusqu'à ce jour, n'ont pas été trouvés satisfaisants sous plusieurs rapports, on a arrêté les Règlements suivants.

I.—*But de l'Etablissement.*

ART. 1.—De former une habitation commune pour tous ceux qui ont besoin d'assistance, qu'ils soient malades ou en santé, et de leur donner des secours pour tout ce qui leur est nécessaire.

ART. 2.—De leur donner autant que possible de l'occupation selon leur plus ou moins grande capacité de travail.

ART. 3.—D'accorder cette occupation non seulement à ceux qui la recherchent volontairement, mais même d'obliger à travailler des hommes sans fortune et qui n'ont pas de métier fixe, mais qui veulent vivre aux dépens d'autrui, du moins tant qu'ils n'entrent pas au service d'une famille de bonne réputation.

On les oblige à travailler pour débarrasser la société de tout mendiant. Les secours publics qu'on leur donne ne répondent pas seulement à leur but, mais garantissent encore la société des mauvaises actions, qu'ils pourroient commettre.

Cet établissement dirigé avec zèle, assiduité et circonspection, donnera un exemple frappant comment dans la société on se débarrasse du mal le plus grand et le plus commun parmi les hommes.

D'après les premières intentions des magistrats on auroit dû joindre à cet établissement un autre institut destiné à l'éducation et aux soins à donner aux enfants pauvres. Mais comme pour f. 20 à f. 28 on peut mettre ces enfants en pensions chez des particuliers, ce qu'on ne pourroit pas faire à meilleur marché dans un institut, on n'a pas exécuté ce plan. D'ailleurs il ne peut pas l'être à cause du manque de fonds et de la trop grande occupation du magistrat.

ART. 4.—D'établir une chambre pour l'habitation de petits enfants qui ne peuvent encore aller à l'école et qui appartiennent à des pauvres qui travaillent à la journée; on leur a assignés une ou trois femmes de la maison de charité qui jouissent de la meilleure réputation, pour surveiller leur propreté et pour les servir. Ces personnes sont sous la direction de la femme du directeur.

ART. 5.—D'y joindre aussitôt que la place le permettra l'école d'industrie des femmes, qui en a été séparée jusqu'à présent, dans laquelle on enseigne à coudre, à tricoter, à filer simple et double. On chargera en outre l'institutrice de surveiller en même temps les enfants qui sont en état de recevoir des leçons.

II.—*Conditions d'Admission.*(a.) *Des Volontaires.*

ART. 6.—Les personnes qui ont besoin d'assistance sont à peu d'exceptions près des hommes qui autrefois ont été livrés au vice, ou qui ont été ou trop étourdis ou incapables de faire des épargnes et qui sont maintenant hors d'état de gagner leur vie. Les anciens secours consistoient, à payer leur loyer, à leur fournir du bois, en des aumônes hebdomadaires, en argent et en pain; mais on ne pouvoit pas penser avec confiance que ces personnes employaient bien ces dons. C'est pourquoi on n'admet dans cette maison de charité que des personnes dignes d'assistance; on les habille et les nourrit; car des gens honnêtes, même avec peu de talents, peuvent toujours gagner leur vie dans ce pays.

Cette admission a lieu à la demande des indigens, qui à cause de la faiblesse de l'âge, de l'incapacité de travail, ne sont plus en état de se nourrir.

ART. 7.—La direction de l'établissement ainsi que le président du comité de fondation, s'ils sont pleinement persuadés de la nécessité, peuvent ordonner l'admission des gens pauvres. Ceux-ci doivent s'engager par écrit à suivre les lois de l'établissement. Cette admission doit toujours être confirmée dans la prochaine séance du comité de fondation. Les mêmes conditions ont lieu pour l'admission des malades qui n'ont pas le moyen de se guérir et de se soigner.

ART. 8.—Mais

ART. 8.—Mais dans aucun cas cette maison de charité ne doit servir de demeure périodique à des gens qui ne sont pas accoutumés à un métier fixe, ou qui ne veulent pas rester chez des maîtres, ni à des personnes qui voudroient y séjourner en hiver, temps où les affaires ordinaires languissent, ou qui en été, quand elles ont gagné quelque argent dans une journée, passent les deux jours suivants à ne rien faire et à vivre dans le libertinage.

ART. 9.—Quiconque donc est une fois admis entre dans l'établissement avec tout ce qu'il possède, et s'engage à y travailler et à y rester toujours.

(b.) Des Obligés.

ART. 10.—Dans tous les cas les volontaires aussi bien que ceux qu'on y force du moment qu'ils sont regus sont regardés comme pauvres, et ce qu'ils possèdent entre dans la caisse de fondation.

ART. 11.—Dans le cas d'une conduite extraordinairement bonne de la part d'un pauvre et si l'on peut espérer avec fondement qu'il pourra se nourrir par lui-même, ou si l veut entrer au service d'une famille de bonne réputation, le conseil de fondation peut lui permettre de sortir de l'institut. Dans ce cas la fortune d'un tel individu lui est restituée, en retenant à des personnes capables de travail *f.* 58, et à celles qui en sont incapables *f.* 88 ; aux malades on retient autant qu'ils ont dépensé pendant leur séjour dans l'institut.

Tous les gens dès l'âge de 14 ans, qui ne peuvent pas prouver qu'ils sont au service d'une honnête famille, sont forcés d'y travailler.

ART. 12.—Toutes les grandes personnes des deux sexes qui sont hors d'état de se nourrir par eux-mêmes ni par le produit de leurs mains, et qui tombent à la charge des autres, peuvent y être admises. Elles doivent pourtant, avant que la police puisse exiger leur admission, avoir été punies trois fois, ou pour avoir mendié ou maraudé.

ART. 13.—Les grandes personnes non mariées qui n'ont que peu ou point de fortune, qui ne s'adonnent pas à un métier fixe, et qui n'entrent pas en service, on doit les y exhorter et leur donner un terme de 4 semaines.

Quand ce temps est écoulé on devra leur laisser encore quatre semaines en les menaçant de les punir. Après que ce délai se sera encore passé sans fruit, et si la personne ne demande pas volontairement l'admission dans l'institut, elle est mise en prison pour 36 heures ; après cela on accorde à l'individu encore 14 jours pour embrasser une vocation fixe, sous peine d'être enfermé pour trois jours ; si cette peine lui est infligée de nouveau ou lui donne encore huit jours. Quand ce temps est écoulé, et s'il ne s'est pas encore décidé à embrasser un métier, il entre à la maison de charité, où il est obligé de travailler aussi long temps qu'une famille honnête ne le prend pas en service.

ART. 14.—Dans le cas où des parents négligent l'éducation de leurs enfants au point que le magistrat soit obligé d'y pourvoir, les parents sont obligés d'en payer la pension selon leurs moyens. Si les parents veulent se soustraire à payer cette pension, ils peuvent être forcés à servir dans la maison de charité d'après la décision du comité de fondation.

(c.) Les Admissions extraordinaires ont lieu ;—

ART. 15.—Pour des malades ou des estropiés qui faute de moyens sont soustraits par la police à la vue du public, pour les empêcher de nuire et d'infecter la société.

ART. 16.—On doit aussi admettre dans cet institut autant que la place le permet des personnes d'autres communes, contre une rétribution qui, pour celles qui peuvent encore travailler, ne doit pas surmonter *f.* 58, et pour les malades *f.* 88.

III.—Nourriture, Habillement, et Entretien complet.

Dès l'admission dans l'institut chaque personne doit recevoir toutes les choses qui lui sont nécessaires.

ART. 17.—Les personnes en santé des deux sexes qui sont occupées dans la maison reçoivent chaque jour leur nourriture d'après le règlement de la cuisine ; voy. le Protocole du 5 Déc. 1828, § 95, feuille 1286, art. 8.

Le matin des aliments froids, à midi et le soir une nourriture chaude, chaque fois une portion de $1\frac{1}{2}$ chopines et $\frac{3}{4}$ livres de pain par jour.

Mais quand elles travaillent sur la route ou à la campagne d'après les arrêtés du comité de fondation du 4 Juin 1830, § 16, outre les aliments mentionnés ci-dessus elles auront au lieu de $\frac{3}{4}$ livre de pain, à compter de la St. Martin à la St. George, chaque jour $1\frac{1}{4}$ livres de pain ; et de la St. George à la St. Martin, $1\frac{1}{2}$ livres de pain.

Les malades reçoivent trois fois par jour de la nourriture chaude et plus facile à digérer, selon leurs besoins et l'ordonnance du médecin ; voy. la Conclusion du 5 Déc. 1828.

ART. 18.—L'habillement, si celui que l'individu porte à son admission ne suffit pas, la direction de fondation lui donne le nécessaire. Il consiste en été en un habit de toile et en hiver en drap, taillé également, blanc ou gris, pour qu'on puisse y distinguer les cols et les parements noirs.

ART. 19.—Les personnes en santé couchent dans des lits fournis de matelats, de draps de lit, et de couvertures de laine ; les malades couchent dans des lits de plume.

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.

WURTEMBERG.

IV.—*Travaux dans l'Intérieur et à l'Extérieur de la Maison.*

Principalement pour les hommes, si les femmes sont incapables de les supporter, les travaux suivant ont été votés et admis.

ART. 20.—1. De travailler sur les routes :

(a.) sur la route de Heilbronn.

(b.) ditto Ellhofen.

(c.) sur les routes menant à Erlenbach autour de la ville et vers la maison de chasse.

2. En travail au service commun des propriétaires de terres, dont ceux-ci ne s'acquittent qu'en payant *f.* 1 par an, les services consistent dans l'entretien et la réparation des routes qui sont dans la banlieue, et desornières.

3. En différents travaux de construction sur des terres appartenant à la ville, et des travaux dans les forêts ; en rassemblant des semences de jeunes arbres pour améliorer les forêts, sous la direction d'un forestier.

4. En journées, pour les quelles on a à payer à la caisse de fondation,

pour un homme - - - 12 *f.*

„ une femme - - - 8 *f.*

si l'établissement fournit la nourriture.

Si l'individu n'est pas entretenu par l'établissement, on ne paye que la moitié.

ART. 21.—Les ouvrages particuliers des femmes consistent —

(a.) à blanchir la toile.

(b.) à conduire les oies dehors de la ville dans leur étable.

(c.) à nettoyer les places publiques.

ART. 22.—Les ouvrages dans la maison consistent —

(a.) pour les hommes : à fendre du bois, à apprêter de l'osier, et en d'autres occupations accessoires.

(b.) pour les femmes : à filer, tricoter, et en des occupations domestiques au service des habitants.

V.—*Fondation de la Maison de Charité.*

Pour atteindre le but mentionné,—

ART. 23.—La caisse de fondation qui jusqu'à présent avoit à pourvoir au soulagement des pauvres, fournit à tous les besoins de la maison par un nouvel arrangement.

La dépense pour les pauvres et les indigens montoit autrefois à *f.* 1,200 jusqu'à *f.* 1,300 par an, sans réprimer la mendicité ni le vice ; et cette somme depuis quelque temps ne suffisoit plus, à cause des demandes qui se multiplioient.

ART. 24.—La commune par le (premier) décret du 5 Déc. 1828, a été jugée obligée de fournir les contributions nécessaires.

On a réuni la place du surveillant de l'institut avec celle de l'ouvrier maçon, et ainsi comme il ne perçoit de la caisse de la ville que la paie de la première charge, la seconde ne coute plus rien à la caisse de fondation. Dans cette caisse entrent de plus,—

(a.) Bois de chauffage ; décret du conseil de la ville du 5 Février 1830, art. 32, et du 7 Avril 1830, § 83. Le bois qui croit sur les terres communes ; 4 toises de bois de chauffage et 300 fagots des forêts de la ville.

(b.) En revenus.

Ce que produit la blanchisserie de drap par décret du 27 Février 1829, art. 65, et 7 Mai 1830, art. 107. Pour profiter de ce blanchiment on doit payer $\frac{1}{2}$ kreutzer pour chaque aune de toile.

(c.) Tout ce que les habitants de la maison de charité gagnent par les occupations mentionnées, art. 20, sous N° 1 & 4. Cela s'est monté depuis le 1 Juillet 1829 à 1830 à *f.* 242. 46.

ART. 25.—Le nombre des habitants de la maison de charité, s'augmentant toujours, laisse espérer que tous les ouvrages pour l'entretien des routes, des ponts du rivage, pourront être faits par eux. Ces ouvrages ont été faits autrefois par les propriétaire de terres de la commune, et ils ont maintenant à payer pour cela *f.* 1 par famille d'après le décret du 23 Juillet 1830, article 211.

(a.) Il entre chaque année dans la caisse de fondation autant qu'il est nécessaire pour l'entretien de l'établissement sur le même pied qu'aujourd'hui.

(b.) Outre cela on oblige des gens qui ont des dettes envers la direction de la ville, ou qui ont été punis pour ne pas pouvoir payer ce qu'ils doivent, de travailler dans cet institut.

VI.—*Devoirs du Surveillant et du Pourvoyeur, et Règlements pour sa Conduite.*

ART. 26.—Le surveillant, qui fournit en même temps la nourriture, est le vigneron Charles Kummel de Ys,* et comme il est outre cela ouvrier maçon il tire la paie de cet emploi de la caisse de la ville en —

Argent	-	-	-	<i>f.</i> 103
Froment	-	-	-	5 boisseaux
Seigle	-	-	-	1 boisseau
Bois	-	-	-	2 toises.

Outre

Outre cela on lui a accordé par décret du 3 Avril 1829, art. 105, pour augmenter son zèle, un bénéfice ce que gagnent les habitants de la maison de charité, de manière qu'il reçoit - - - des premiers f. 100 - - - 3 kreutzer par florin.

„ seconds d^{ts} - - - 6 d^t d^t.

„ troisièmes d^{ts} - - - 9 d^t d^t.

et ainsi de chaque centaine de florins 3 kreutzer de plus.

Mais il a à partager le profit des troisièmes f. 100 avec l'officier de police, qui emploie une grande partie de son temps pour l'institut.

ART. 27.—Le surveillant a outre la direction des occupations ci-dessus N° IV. art. 20 & 21, à faire les affaires dont le magistrat trouvera bon de le charger. Si les habitants de la maison de charité ne suffisent pas à ce travail, il doit demander à la commission des bâtiments des coupables ou d'autres personnes, et suivre les ordonnances de la commission des bâtiments et de l'établissement.

ART. 28.—Il est de plus de son devoir d'annoncer à la commission des bâtiments tout ce qu'il trouve de gâté aux fontaines, ponts, sentiers, indicateurs de chemin, ou autres objets publics, et ce qu'il ne peut pas réparer lui-même ou ses ouvriers. Si après cette annonce la réparation de la faute n'a pas lieu en 24 heures, il doit en informer le président de la ville.

ART. 29.—D'après le contrat du 1 Janvier 1829, il a à pourvoir à la nourriture ou moins d'après la mesure; comme cela est prescrit N° III. art. 17, et le règlement ci-joint. Il doit de plus se soumettre à tout nouvel ordre qui lui sera donné dans la suite tant qu'il ne lui cause pas de dépenses.

ART. 30.—Comme premier et unique surveillant de la maison, il doit faire sévèrement observer l'ordre et la propreté tant du corps que du linge, des habillements, des appartements et des lits des personnes.

ART. 31.—Le surveillant doit fixer, d'après la saison et la santé des personnes, l'heure de leur lever, de leur coucher et de leurs repas, et se diriger ponctuellement d'après la montre; mais de manière qu'au milieu de l'été elles ne commencent pas à travailler avant 4½ heures, et au milieu de l'hiver pas avant 7½ heures. En hiver elles ne doivent pas quitter leurs affaires avant 5 heures, ni en été avant 7 heures. Le diner ne doit pas prendre pas d'une heure, et le souper d'une demi heure.

ART. 32.—Le surveillant a toujours à surveiller les personnes et leurs travaux; il ne doit jamais permettre à quelqu'un de s'éloigner de la maison ou des ouvrages de la campagne, et empêcher toute fréquentation avec les habitants de la ville.

De plus, il aura soin de faire attention que personne ne soit hors de la maison pendant la nuit, et visiter les travaux, sinon toutes les heures, au moins chaque jour.

ART. 33.—Pour empêcher toute indécence, il a été défendu par décret du Juin 1829, à tous les habitants, sous peine d'une amende de f. 3. 15, de leur donner à manger ou à boire, ou de leur accorder une retraite sans une permission spéciale. Comme toutes les personnes admises dans l'institut ont assez sous tous les rapports, et comme tout le monde connoit cette ordonnance, ainsi que les personnes par leur habillement particulier, on publiera de nouveau cet ordre, avec la remarque que tous ceux qui agiront contre le règlement seront punis d'après les lois.

ART. 34.—Le surveillant a l'ordre de se comporter d'une manière décente, bienveillante et bienfaisante envers les pauvres, et de les engager autant que possible à une vie irréprochable et en rapport avec l'ordre qui règne dans la maison. Mais envers des personnes vicieuses et incorrigibles il doit se montrer sévère.

Pour entretenir l'ordre et l'obéissance parmi les gens corrompus, et pour encourager les honnêtes gens, on a décrété comme suit.

VII.—Encouragements et Récompenses.

ART. 35.—Le surveillant doit favoriser tous ceux qui se signalent par une conduite régulière et louable, en leur donnant de la liberté les Dimanches et les fêtes, et en les employant à des occupations qui demandent de la confiance. De telles personnes doivent autant que possible être aussi favorisées à la table, et outre cela on doit les employer particulièrement à surveiller les autres. Si quelqu'un mérite une confiance particulière, on peut le charger d'une affaire fixe, sans le surveiller; comme, par exemple, des ouvrages pour entretenir les allées dans la cour du chateau "la Weibertreue."

ART. 36.—Régulièrement tous les jours de foire et de fête toutes les personnes admises doivent recevoir, outre leur nourriture ordinaire, ½ livre de viande, et les hommes 1 chopine, les femmes ½ chopine de vin, aux frais de la maison de charité. A ce but le vin est tiré gratis de la cave publique de la ville. On en excepte ceux qui depuis le dernier jour de foire ou de fête ont commis une faute d'insubordination ou une faute plus grave.

ART. 37.—Si une personne s'applique assez pour gagner plus d'argent par des journées qu'elle ne pourroit en gagner au service du comité de fondation; le surplus doit lui être laissé, comme épargnes. On a en cela principalement égard au choix du travail.

De ces épargnes que la caisse de fondation doit encaisser, on doit de temps en temps en remettre quelque chose entre les mains de cette personne pour son amusement, dans le cas qu'elle ne préfère pas de le mettre entièrement à part.

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ART. 38.—Un homme admis dans cet institut qui s'est conduit pendant deux ans d'une manière irréprochable peut demander la permission d'en sortir, si un honnête citoyen s'engage à l'entretenir au moins un an.

VIII.—*Punitions.*

ART. 39.—Pour mettre à l'ordre les personnes insubordonnées, paresseuses et livrées au vice, on a fixé des punitions, savoir,—

(a.) Diminution de la nourriture.

(b.) Emprisonnement dans une chambre obscure.

Les personnes chez les quelles on ne reconnoit plus la dignité de l'homme, et qui ne sont pas au-dessus des animaux, sont signalées chaque année par la commission de punition, et elles reçoivent en outre la bastonnade. Mais cette punition n'est pas employée si le manque de subordination envers le surveillant ou les fautes réitérées ne la rendent pas absolument nécessaire.

ART. 40.—Le surveillant qui leur donne en même temps la nourriture ne peut infliger d'autre punition que celle marquée sous la rubrique B.; c'est à dire, 24 heures d'emprisonnement. Mais dans le cas qu'un individu lui refusât l'obéissance ou qu'il agît malicieusement contre ses ordres, il peut lui faire donner jusqu'à 5 coups de bâton. Il doit inscrire chaque punition dans le Protocole destiné à cet usage, et l'annoncer à ses supérieurs. Il ne doit pas punir un individu plus de trois fois; pour des excès ultérieurs il doit en informer ses supérieurs.

IX.—*Contrôle et Surveillance supérieure.*(a.) *Inspection de la Maison.*

ART. 41.—L'officier de police est destiné à être le surveillant supérieur de toutes les actions et de tous les événements qui peuvent arriver dans l'établissement.

Celui-ci doit se rendre trois fois, ou au moins deux fois par jour, dans la maison de charité, assister le surveillant dans ses fonctions, et en cas de besoin le rapporter à ses devoirs.

Si la capacité et l'intelligence du surveillant ne suffit pas, il a la tenue des livres publics, savoir :

- (1.) Le Journal de l'entrée et de la sortie des personnes admises.
- (2.) La Liste des malades.
- (3.) Le Livre des affaires journalières.
- (4.) La Liste du gain.
- (5.) Le Protocole des délits et des punitions.

ART. 42.—L'officier de police a le droit de diminuer la nourriture pour deux jours à des gens qui par une faute ont mérité cette punition et de les emprisonner dans une chambre obscure. Car le surveillant outre les ces de besoins pressants où il peut faire donner quelques coups de bâton, ne peut pas ordonner une punition plus grave que 24 heures d'emprisonnement; punition que la plupart des admis préféreroit probablement au travail.

Mais il ne peut non plus infliger cette punition plus de trois fois au même individu, et en cas de réitération de l'insubordination ou d'autres fautes il en doit faire rapport à ses supérieurs.

(b.)—*Conseil de Fondation et Commission de Punition.*

ART. 43.—La direction des revenus et des dépenses, comme la nomination et la démission des individus, et toutes les affaires d'économie appartiennent au conseil de fondation. L'administration de l'établissement est jointe comme jusqu'à présent avec celle de fondation.

ART. 44.—Pour les punitions plus graves il existe une commission particulière de 8 membres, y compris le président. Cette commission est élue par le conseil de fondation, la direction du baillage, par la bourgeoisie d'après la majorité des voix. Les règlements de l'établissement, comme les noms de ceux qui ont été élus, doivent être présentés au gouvernement pour être confirmés.

ART. 45.—Il va sans dire, que le choix ne doit tomber que sur des personnes d'un caractère irréprochable, qui sont capables d'un jugement sain dans un cas de punition. On doit chercher principalement à engager des employés de l'état à entrer dans la commission.

ART. 46.—Le comité décide d'après la majorité sans appel, et pour la validité d'un arrêt a présence de 5 membres est nécessaire. En cas d'égalité de voix, le président qui est élu par la même commission a le droit de décider.

ART. 47.—La commission infligera pour le premier degré 8 jours d'emprisonnement, en conservant la nourriture ordinaire, et dans une chambre ordinaire de la ville.

Second degré;—La même punition dans une chambre obscure, avec une mauvaise couche, et enchaîné pour la moitié du temps.

Dans le cas, que les punitions soient infructueuses, la commission peut faire administrer 20 coups de bâton à un individu, dont le caractère corrompu ne laisse pas espérer d'amendement. Les crimes seront transférés au magistrat pour les punir.

Conclusion

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Conclusion générale.

Comme l'intérêt pour le bien public, pour l'ordre et le devoir va toujours en croissant, le magistrat espère que chaque citoyen voudra bien concourir à atteindre le but que se propose cet institut. Il espère même que Messieurs les Ecclesiastiques uniront leurs efforts aux leurs pour retirer cette classe d'homme de leur ruine morale ; qu'ils les instruisent avec dignité ; qu'ils leur offrent les consolations de la religion ; qu'ils les exhortent à une conduite bonne et laborieuse, et qu'ils contribuent ainsi au beau et digne but de cet établissement.

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REGLEMENT de Cuisine, calculé pour 25 Personnes, chacune une Portion de 1 1/2 Chopine.

M E T S.	Farine.	Pain.	Pomme de Terre.	Pois.	Lentilles.	Haricots.	Orge mondé.	Graisse.	Sel.	Poivre.	Oignons et Herbes.	Viande.	Vinaigre.
	lb. onc.	lb. onc.	1/4 mes.	1/4 mes.	1/4 mes.	1/4 mes.	lb. onc.	onc.	onc.	onc.	nomb.	lb.	chopine.
Diner pour les 7 Jours de la Semaine :													
Viande et Mets de farine	4 16	-	-	-	-	-	-	11	18	1/2	1	6	-
Pommes de Terre	4 6	1 2	2 1/2	-	-	-	-	8 1/2	18	1/2	1	-	3
Viande et Orge	- 17	-	-	-	-	-	3 28	-	18	1/2	1	6	-
Soupe aux Haricots	4 6	-	-	-	3	3/4	-	8 1/2	18	1/2	1	-	3
Pois et Mets de farine	4 6	-	-	3/4	-	-	-	8 1/2	18	1/2	1	-	-
Viande et Pommes de Terre	- -	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	18	1/2	1	6	-
Lentilles et Pâtes	4 6	-	5/4	-	-	-	-	8 1/2	18	1/2	1	-	3
Pour servir de changement :													
Pommes de Terre et Pâtes	4 6	1 2	2 1/2	-	-	-	-	8 1/2	18	1/2	1	-	-
Pois et Pain	- 27	3 10	-	3/4	-	-	-	8 1/2	18	1/2	1	-	-
Pois et Orge	- 8 1/2	-	-	3/4	-	-	1 31	8 1/2	18	1/2	1	-	-
Pâtes Grasses	8 6	2 3	-	-	-	-	-	8 1/2	18	1/2	1	-	-
Cotillon de Viande	- -	6 24	-	-	-	-	-	-	18	1/2	1	4 1/4	-
Choucroute et Pâtes	4 10	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	18	1/2	-	-	-
Pour le Souper en variant par des Pommes de Terre :													
Pâtes grasses	4 24	-	-	-	-	-	-	8 1/2	18	1/2	1	-	-
Soupe à la Rumfordt	-	1 16	3/4	-	-	-	2 13	6 3/4	17	1/2	2	3/4	-
Soupe au pain	-	6 24	-	-	-	-	-	6	13	1/4	1 1/2	-	-

(Copie vérifiée.)

Weinsbergh, le 22 Nov^{bre} 1833.

(au greffe) A. V. Kæpplinger.

Enclosure (L.)

LUDWIGSBURG.

ANSWERS to the QUERIES put by HIS BRITANNIC MAJESTY'S MINISTER.

1.—WHAT is the general value of the funded property belonging to the communes in the Ludwigsburg Amt ?

The value of landed property in the high bailiwick of Ludwigsburg, on an average, may be stated as follows :—For one acre of ground of the best quality, 400*f.*; middling, 200*f.* to 240*f.*; inferior, 100*f.* to 150*f.*; meadow, 200*f.* to 600*f.*; vineyards, 200*f.* to 1,000*f.*; gardens with fruit trees, 400*f.* to 1,000*f.*

2.—What is the estimated value of their landed property, including wood ?

An estimation of property, according to its selling price, does not exist ; on the other hand, the raw produce of the ground and soil, including woodland, is by the late register estimated at 310,671*f.* 16*sr.*; and the net proceeds, after deduction of the general and separate charges, rates and expenses for culture, at 289,671*f.*

3.—What is the number of inhabitants in the Ludwigsburg Amt ?

The number of inhabitants by the last census, in the year 1832, amounts to 29,068.

4.—What was the number of poor receiving relief from the communes in the years 1829, 1830, 1831 and 1832 ?

The number of the poor is, such as received a constant weekly or annual support, from July 1828–29, 362 ; 1829–30, 372 ; 1830–31, 376 ; 1831–32, 372. Such as received a temporary support only, by assistance in medical expenses, from the 1st of July 1828–29, 363 ; 1829–30, 422 ; 1830–31, 362 ; 1831–32, 371.

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5.—As a principle, is food, raiment or fuel given to a single man who can work, or is it refused him?

As long as individual persons are able to work, and earn their maintenance, they receive no support from the commune; but if such a person has children to maintain, and the wages of his labour are absolutely insufficient, they receive assistance according to circumstances, and it in general consists in money, in towns especially; they likewise receive corn, raiment and wood.

6.—To a father of a family who is in full work, but who has no other means of maintaining his family than by his work, is the commune obliged to give assistance?

As long as a father of a family, though he does not possess a piece of ground, is, by his trade, or in general by his labour, able to maintain his family, the commune is not obliged to grant him any support.

7.—Is such assistance calculated according to the number of his small children?

The amount of the granted assistance is fixed by the magistrate of the place, and strictly regulated according to the want of the persons relieved, and in which the number of their families is always considered.

8.—If so, at what age does the commune consider the child able to assist its parent, and consequently cease to give this aid?

If children are received for board and education, it is generally granted them to the fourteenth year, as the legal time of leaving school; if the boy is to learn a trade, the commune besides pays a premium for his apprenticeship; but girls, from the time of their quitting school, in general receive no further support, as at that age they have to enter service, and thereby maintain themselves; this is also the case with boys when their apprenticeship is expired, and they are become journeymen. Boys who do not learn any trade, and devote themselves to agriculture, likewise receive no support from their fourteenth year.

9.—A person having the right of citizenship in the commune from birth or purchase, and receiving consequently a piece of ground to cultivate, is he entitled on account of an increasing family, to further assistance from the commune while in health and able to work?

In places where the citizens receive a piece of ground to enjoy as benefice, no addition to this is granted in consequence of an increasing family. Such a piece of ground is given to the rich, as well as to the poor citizens, without distinction of family situation, as the number of children, and the like; and he that is blessed with children, by no means acquires a greater right to the enjoyment of a larger lot of ground than is fixed by the commune for each citizen's share.

10. Or does he receive it only when sick?

It is a fixed maxim that the persons belonging to the commune claim support from it in cases of the utmost need only; as, for example, when by age, indisposition or infirmity he is no longer able to earn his maintenance.

11. If he receives aid in money from the commune, does he consequently forfeit his right to the ground he receives as citizen of the commune?

The enjoyment of that common share remains possession to every citizen during his lifetime, and after his death passes to the widow; it is not taken from him under any circumstances, even if at the same time the enjoyer receives public assistance, except if such a person must be entirely supported by the commune, and is received into a poor-house and fully maintained therein, in which case he ceases to be an active citizen, and thereby loses the enjoyment of his beneficium.

Subsequent Questions.

1. The number of the poor since 1828 at an average has not increased.
2. The citizen only has a claim to the enjoyment of civil benefits, whether that consists in ground or wood; but not so the beisitzer, who, according to local customs, is only entitled to take share of pasture ground where there is any.

Ludwigsburg, October 31st, 1833.

High Bailif Stump.

According to the inquiry I have made in three villages, I was informed that the proportion of the beisitzer to the citizens in some places is 5 or 6 to 100, and in others 12 at the most; at an average 9 beisitzer to 100 citizens.

LETTER from *W. Wellesley, Esq.* to the Right hon. Viscount *Palmerston, G.C.B.*

MY LORD,

Stuttgard, May 22d, 1834.

Appendix (F.)

WURTEMBERG.

Enclosure I.

Enclosure II. p. 512,
et seq.

I HAVE the honour to return to your Lordship's office, in compliance with Sir George Shee's circular Despatch to Sir Edward Disbrowe of the 30th of November last, a copy of the Questions proposed by the Poor Laws Commissioners as to the state of the poor in Wurtemberg, filled up according to the best information I have been enabled to procure.

In addition to this Return I enclose a voluminous Report furnished me by this Government on the subject, which enters into every detail, and contains much valuable information. It would have been a matter of much time and difficulty to have had it accurately translated here, and I have thought it better to leave such an undertaking to the discretion of the Commissioners. By each Question I have numbered the sections of the Report which bear upon it, in case a partial translation only should be deemed necessary.

The size of the Report is such that I take advantage of a private opportunity which has offered for transmitting it to England, although the translations of the dietaries and tables of money, weights, measures, &c. which I have been enabled to procure are not yet ready. They can easily be sent by post.

To the Right hon. Viscount Palmerston, G.C.B.
&c. &c. &c.

I have the honour to be, &c.
W. Wellesley.

Enclosure I.

VAGRANTS.

Question 1. To what extent, and under what form, does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?—*Answer.* The last census was taken in 1832, when there were 1,578,147 inhabitants. There has been no inquiry into the numbers of the poor since 1820, when a return was made of 64,896, of which number 4,645 were orphans, 13,389 were unmarried adults, and 15,154 poor families, consisting of 46,262 members.

Q. 2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country, seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded, and under what regulations?—*A.* Begging is positively forbidden, under pain of imprisonment, and the most rigorous measures are taken, particularly in the towns, for preventing it. All strangers, on entering the kingdom, must show to the authorities on the frontier, a sum of at least 10 fl., with certificates that they are able to work at some trade, and are travelling for employment. If found begging, they are liable to be sent out of the kingdom at the expense of Government. If ill, they must be taken care of by the authorities of the place, and the expenses incurred are repaid by Government.

DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

Q. 1. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they, or any part of their families, billeted or quartered on householders? or, 2. boarded with individuals?—*A.* Never.

Q. 3. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there district houses of industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families, and supplying them with food, clothes, &c. and in which they are set to work?—*A.* There are none for adults, but in many towns and villages there are schools of industry for children, where they are taught, but not clothed or fed.

Q. 4. To what extent, and under what regulations, do any religious institutions give assistance to the destitute, by receiving them as inmates, or by giving them alms?—*A.* There exist none.

Q. 5. To what extent, and under what regulations, is work provided at their own dwellings for those who have trades, but do not procure work for themselves?—*A.* For this purpose there is a commission appointed by Government, and there exists besides, throughout the kingdom, a charitable association, of which the central committee is at Stuttgard, and local committees in the principal towns, a part of whose object it is to find work for labourers out of employ, either by placing them, as opportunities occur, in their respective trades, or by giving them work at their own houses. The local authorities are every where bound to assist these endeavours to their utmost.

Q. 6. To what extent, and under what regulations, is work provided for such persons in agriculture or on public works?—*A.* When a person can find no other employment, and comes to his parish for relief, he is by them employed on the roads, on the vineyards, in the forests, in draining, &c. as the case may be; but the parish only pays him according to its resources, &c. certainly less than he would obtain if otherwise employed.

Q. 7. To what extent, and under what regulations, are fuel, clothing or money distributed to such persons or their families, at all times of the year, or during any particular seasons?—*A.* In every parish there is a sort of vestry, consisting of the clergyman, the overseer, and two or three of the inhabitants, chosen by vote. In great difficulties, such as a hard winter, famine, &c. they are empowered to give relief, either by selling provisions and wood under the market price, or by donations of them, as the case may require, and according again to the resources of the parish.

N. B.—The charitable association would also contribute relief.

Q. 8. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they relieved by their children being taken into schools, and fed, clothed and educated or apprenticed?—*A.* All children throughout the kingdom, from the age of 6 to 14, when they are confirmed, go to school daily, in summer for about two hours, in winter longer; they are instructed in reading, writing, arithmetic and religion; the poor gratis. They are neither fed nor clothed. In

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33 to 38.

some districts charitable funds exist for apprenticing children to the finer trades, when a sum of money is required with them. In trades requiring bodily labour, such as a carpenter, bricklayer, &c. not only apprentices pay no apprentice money, but they receive wages directly. The girls go to service.

Q. 9. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are the relatives of the destitute compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking charge of part of their families?—A. A man must support his wife and children, and if he dies, the grandfather, if he has the means, *must* support the grandchildren. Children must also support their parents, if able, and the latter in want. It may in general be remarked, that although there is no compulsion, it is considered a sort of moral duty for relations to assist each other.

77. 79, 80.

Q. 10. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they assisted by loans?—A. Persons of known respectability and good character receive loans in difficult moments from the association mentioned above, as also from various private charities that exist for the express purpose. Security is in general demanded, but not insisted on. The loan must be for actual relief, and not for purposes of speculation.

N. B.—It will be seen, from the general tenor of the Answers, that an able-bodied workman is always supposed to be able to obtain employment, and with a very little assistance he can maintain his family by his and their earnings.

IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

88 to 93.

Q. 1. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there almshouses or other institutions for the reception of those who, through age, are incapable of earning their subsistence?—A. In almost every village there is a poor-house, in which the impotent through age must be received, if they have no houses of their own. When no poor-house exists, a room is generally provided for the purpose.

82.

Q. 2. To what extent, and under what regulations, is relief in food, fuel, clothing or money afforded them at their homes?—A. Not more than to the able-bodied (*vide* Destitute Able-bodied, Q. 7.) If they required more relief, their houses would be sold, and themselves taken into the poor-house or room.

87.

Q. 3. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they boarded with individuals?—A. Only when individuals agree to receive a sum of money for such board.

87.

Q. 4. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they quartered or billeted on the householders?—A. Where neither poor-house nor room exists, the parish may lodge its aged and impotent poor with all the inhabitants in rotation. The stay is longer or shorter with each, according to his means; this, however, is a case that rarely occurs.

33 to 38.

Q. 5. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking part of their families?—A. *Vide* Destitute Able-bodied, Q. 9.

SICK.

88 to 97.

Q. 1. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there district institutions for the reception of the sick?—A. In every bailiwick, indeed in almost every village, there is an hospital for the reception of the sick. Where such does not exist, a room at least must be provided when necessary.

82. 85.

Q. 2. To what extent, and under what regulations, are surgical and medical relief afforded to the poor at their own homes?—A. In every district there is an inspecting physician. Under him, in every bailiwick, there is another physician and assistant, appointed and paid by Government, a part of whose duty it is to visit the hospitals, and when necessary, the sick poor, at their own homes (*gratis*) within the bailiwick. They are allowed travelling expenses by Government. There is also in every bailiwick an apothecary, whose medicines are constantly inspected by the inspecting physician, who is bound to furnish medicines from 12½ to 25 per cent. cheaper to the poor. He can likewise never refuse to make up a prescription, if money is not sent with it, provided the prescribing physician certifies its urgency. Should the person be too poor eventually to pay, the parish becomes liable.

82. 85.

Q. 3. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick?—A. Where there is no hospital, it will generally be found that the richer inhabitants send food from their tables to the sick poor; otherwise the parish must find it. (As to fuel, &c. *vide* Destitute Able-bodied, Q. 7.)

85 & 88 to 97.

Q. 4. To what extent, and under what regulations, is assistance given to lying-in women at their homes, or in public establishments?—A. There are two public lying-in establishments, one in the Catherine Hospital at Stuttgart, the other in the Clinicum at Tübingen. In the former the poor women of Stuttgart alone are received *gratis*; others must pay themselves, or by their parish, 10 *kr.* daily. They are received 14 days before the expected time of their confinement. In Tübingen the poor women of the whole kingdom are received *gratis* three weeks before. They must be furnished with certificates of poverty from their parish, and that in case of mother's death, the parish will send for and support the child. Poor seldom come to these establishments, as in every village there *must* be a midwife, who has undergone a regular examination (educated at the above establishments, *gratis*.) It is besides a particular instruction to the police, to see that poor women are properly attended to in their confinement.

82. 85. 88 to 97.

Q. 5. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick?—A. Two hospitals; one at Stuttgart, where their own poor alone received *gratis*; others must pay by themselves or parish 24 *kr.* daily. The other in Tübingen, where poor, with certificate of poverty, are received, supplied with medicine, operated

operated on, &c. gratis. At the medicinal springs of Bol and Wildbad, there are establishments for the poor, where, with proper certificates, they are taken in gratis for 24 days, or what is called a cure. If they stay longer, they or their parishes must pay a small sum. In every parish there must be proper nurses appointed for the sick; the police to see to it. There are also a great many private associations among labourers and artisans, for laying by a part of their wages as a sick fund.

CHILDREN :

Illegitimate.

Q. 1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall; wholly upon the mothers, or wholly upon the fathers; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations?—A. The mother must keep the child till its 14th year. The father must pay towards its support according to his means. When the father dies and has no legitimate children, the illegitimate inherit one-sixth of what the legitimate would have had. The mother's property is inherited equally by both. 1. 6, 7. 33 to 38. 48.

Q. 2. To what extent, and under what regulations, are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards?—A. Relations that inherit from the parents are bound to contribute towards the support of illegitimate children.

Q. 3. To what extent, and under what regulations, are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?—A. During the life of the father they are not received into any public institution; but there exist four private charitable associations in the kingdom for their relief. 60 to 66.

Orphans, Foundlings, or Deserted Children.

	ORPHANS.	FOUNDINGS.	DESERTED CHILDREN, whose Parents are known.	
Q. 4. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they taken into establishments for their reception?—	A. Two orphan-houses, one at Stuttgart, one at Wiengarten, for 275 children; received in their seventh year; kept till about 14th; then apprenticed or sent to service. Parishes which send an orphan to these institutions bound to provide for it in the trade in which it may be instructed.	-- There are no establishments for their reception, but they are received under same conditions as orphans into the orphan-houses.	-- Sixty received into the establishment at Wiengarten mentioned under "Orphans."	59.

Q. 5. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they billeted or quartered on householders?—A. Never. 59.

Q. 6. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they boarded with individuals?—A. From 100 to 200, who appear not to have abilities sufficient to get on in trade, are sent by the above-mentioned establishments to respectable families in the country who may be willing to receive them. These families receive from 30 to 40 florins yearly for their support, and the clergyman of the parish is bound to see that such children are not over-worked or ill-used. 33 to 38.

Q. 7. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—A. *Vide* Destitute Able-bodied, Q. 9.

CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

	CRIPPLES.	DEAF and DUMB, and BLIND.	
Q. 1. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there establishments for their reception?—	A. One in Canstadt, to which Government contributes, on condition that a certain number of poor are received therein; but parish must also pay a small sum with any poor they may send. A rare case.	-- One in Gmund. Poor, when neither parish nor relations can pay, received gratis; certificate of poverty required; must have passed their 6th but not entered their 12th year; must have been inoculated or vaccinated, and have certificates that no malady stands in the way of their learning. Allowed to remain six years, but sent away sooner if they show inaptitude to learn. For the blind there is likewise a private charity in Stuttgart.	60 to 66. 68. 88 to 97.

Q. 2. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they billeted or quartered on householders?—A. Never. 59 to 87.

Q. 3. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they boarded with individuals?—A. Only when individuals consent to it, and receive a yearly sum for their support; they are then bound to work as much as they are able. 59 to 87.

33 to 38.

Q. 4. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—*Vide* Destitute Able-bodied, Q. 9.

IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

		IDIOTS.	LUNATICS.
88 to 97.	Q. 1. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there establishments for their reception?—	A. There exist none	-- There are two, one at Zweifallen, where desperate cases are confined; one at Win-nenthal, where persons whom there are hopes of curing are sent. Government pays a large sum to each; but all received therein must pay from 125 to 230 florins yearly. In every town there must be a strait waistcoat.
59 to 87.	Q. 2. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they billeted or quartered on householders?—	A. Never - -	-- Never.
59 to 87.	Q. 3. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they boarded with individuals?—	<i>Vide</i> Cripples, Q. 3. -	-- Never.
33 to 38.	Q. 4. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?— <i>Vide</i> Destitute Able-bodied, Q. 9.		

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

100. Q. 1. You are requested to state whether the receipt or the expectation of relief appears to produce any and what effect on the industry of the labourers? 2. On their frugality?—
A. Children who have been brought up at any of the above-mentioned institutions generally turn out better than others; and it may be in general remarked, that there is a great aversion among common people to seeking relief from their parishes.
227. Q. 3. On the age at which they marry?—A. *Vide infra*, Labourers, Q. 23.
100. Q. 4. On the mutual dependence and affection of parent, children and other relatives?—
A. Children who have been educated in charities are, on quitting them, always well received by their relations; but able persons who have been upon their parishes for relief are always more or less shunned; so great is the aversion to it, that it will almost always be found that a poor man's relations will assist him, provided he be of good character, rather than let him solicit relief.
- 42, 43, 44. 100, 101. Q. 5. What, on the whole, is the condition of the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, as compared with the condition of the person subsisting on alms or public charity. Is the condition of the latter, as to food and freedom from labour, more or less eligible? (See p. 261 & 335 of the Poor Law Extracts.)—A. As labour of some kind or other is always demanded in return for relief, it is difficult to answer the question. Generally speaking, the parish price of labour is less than the labourer would obtain elsewhere. In the Woodlands the labourer is better off than the aged and sick that are in the poor-house; in the vine countries his condition is worse.

LABOURERS, &c.

43. Q. 1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month or the year, with and without provisions in summer and in winter?—
A. The best artisans are employed in the large towns, are fed and lodged by the master, and receive from one to two and a half florins weekly. Those in the smaller towns and villages are lodged, fed, and receive from 20 *kr.* to 1 *fl.*; when workmen are taken on extraordinary occasions by the day, they receive from 20 to 30 *kr.* and are fed. Farmers hire their servants by the year, feed and lodge them, and give them in the villages from 20 to 40 *fl.*, in the towns from 50 to 60 *fl.* yearly wages.
43. Q. 2. Is piece-work general?—A. In the manufactures, and during harvest.
- 43, 44. Q. 3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—A. About 150 *fl.*, with the advantages of food and wood under the market-price in winter, as enumerated above.
- 42, 43, 44. Q. 4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different description, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?—A. A labourer with a family pays for a house, if he has none of his own, from 10 to 20 *fl.* yearly; for each child that he sends to school, about 1 *fl.* The average expense of living may be put at from 40 to 50 *fl.* per head per annum.
43. 81. Q. 5. Is there any, and what, employment for women and children?—A. In the manufactures, of which, however, there are but few in the country; at home, spinning, knitting, lace-making, washing. They also go out by the day. They make wooden nails for shoemakers. In summer they glean, and at certain times of the year they collect wood in the forests.

Q. 6. What

615

Q. 6. What can women and children under 16 earn per week in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed?—A woman, from 42 kr. to 1 fl. 30 kr.; child, from 20 to 40 kr. In the manufactures, from 1 fl. 40 kr. to 2 fl. 30 kr., and from 1 fl. 12 kr. to 2 fl., without food. At home, employed as above stated.

43. 44. 87.

Q. 7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8 and 5 years respectively (the eldest a boy), expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?—A. From 40 to 50 fl.: the children of these ages would be too much in the schools to earn much.

43. 44. 87.

Q. 8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children, and if so, on what food?—A. They could. In the morning, soup or potatoes and bread; dinner, vegetables or pudding; between dinner and supper, bread; supper, potatoes and milk, or soup; once or twice a week, meat. In the cold weather, the man would have a glass of inferior brandy before going to work in the morning. On Sundays, the man would have a little beer or wine, and the woman coffee, of which they are very fond.

44.

Q. 9. Could it lay by any thing, and how much?—From 20 to 30 fl., if careful.

44.

Q. 10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?—A. Almost all labourers possess, by purchase or inheritance, at least a garden, where they grow the vegetables they consume; say from half a morgen to a morgen.

3, 4. 76. 81.

Q. 11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations?—A. Above two-thirds of the labouring population have houses or a part of a house of their own, either purchased or inherited.

42.

Q. 12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale?—A. In villages, the value of a labourer's house is from 150 to 200 fl.; in small towns, from 200 to 400 fl.; in large, from 500 to 1,000 fl. The rent is calculated at five per cent. on the value of the house.

42.

Q. 13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—Seldom the case; the value of the rent varies from 8 to 20 fl. per morgen.

76. 81.

Q. 14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?—A. 1 to 31 $\frac{1}{3}$.

2.

Q. 15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?—A. 1 to 27 $\frac{1}{10}$.

2.

Q. 16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?—A. 1 to 147.

2.

Q. 17. The average number of children to a marriage?—A. 4 $\frac{3}{10}$.

2.

Q. 18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?—A. 1 illegitimate to 7 $\frac{1}{10}$ legitimate.

2.

Q. 19. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year?—A. 34 $\frac{2}{3}$ to 100.

2.

Q. 20. Proportion of children that died before the end of their 10th year?—A. From the ages of 1 to 7, the proportion of deaths is 1 to 10; from 7 to 14, 1 to 45.

2.

Q. 21. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 18th year?—There exist no returns by which this question can be further answered.

2.

Q. 22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—A. Men, from 25 to 30; women, from 18 to 25.

2.

Q. 23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—A. No man allowed to marry till his 25th year, on account of his military duties, unless permission be especially obtained or purchased; at that age he must also obtain permission, which is granted on proving that he and his wife would have together sufficient to maintain a family, or to establish themselves; in large towns, say from 800 to 1,000 fl.; in smaller, from 400 to 500 fl.; in villages, 200 fl. They must not be persons of disorderly or dissolute lives, drunkards, under suspicion of crime, and they must not have received any assistance from their parish within the last three years.

2. 27.

Q. 24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried; 2d, the married, save?—A. Unmarried men rarely save any thing; unmarried women, from 5 to 20 fl. yearly. Married, (*vide* Q. 9.)

44.

Q. 25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—A. In savings banks, when they receive four per cent. for their deposit; there is one at Stuttgart, where five per cent. is given, and money allowed to accumulate at compound interest. Many buy land with their savings: there is great facility for doing this by instalments.

44. 47.

Enclosure II.—(Translation.)

Appendix (F.)
Foreign
Communications.
—
WURTEMBERG.

PARTICULARS of the LAWS and REGULATIONS relative to the Poor in the Kingdom of Wurtemberg, for the English Government, and collected by its desire in March and April 1834.

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Enclosure II—continued.

(TRANSLATION.)

GENERAL STATISTICAL NOTICES OF THE KINGDOM OF WURTEMBERG.

Rights of Citizenship.

§ 1. THE following persons are considered as belonging to the kingdom of Wurtemberg, (Wurtemberg citizens.)

A.) With regard to the kingdom of Bavaria, the grand duchy of Baden, the grand duchy of Hesse, and the principality of Hohen Zollern Sigmaringen, with which there exist special conventions on this subject,—

aa.) All those whose father, or if they are illegitimate, whose mother, at the time of their birth, was connected with the state of Wurtemberg in the quality of a subject, or who have been expressly admitted as subjects without having been subsequently released from their obligations as subjects, or having acquired the rights of citizens elsewhere.

bb.) Those who are born of parents that have no settlement (homeless parents), and are accidentally within the territory of Wurtemberg, till they have acquired the rights of subjects in another state, by being expressly received as such, or who have married there with the license of the magistrates, or have resided with the connivance of the magistrates for 10 years together, or have at least carried on a trade on their own account.

cc.) Persons who are neither born in the territory of Wurtemberg nor have been received there as subjects, yet, on the other hand, after having given up their preceding civil relations, or otherwise, as having no settlement, have become more closely connected with the state of Wurtemberg by having married there with the consent of the magistrates, or by having been permitted to reside there for 10 years unnoticed, or by having carried on a trade on their own account.

dd.) If a vagrant happens to be born in one state, but has acquired in another the rights of a citizen, or has married there with permission of the magistrates, or by 10 years' residence and exercise of a trade has acquired a settlement, the latter state is to be considered as that which is bound in preference to receive him. If the right of citizenship in one state concurs with the marriage, or 10 years' residence, or exercise of a trade in another, the first of these relations is considered as decisive. If a person without a settlement has, with the permission of the magistrates, contracted marriage in one state, but after his marriage has been suffered during the term of 10 years as established or carrying on a trade, it is to be taken for granted that he must be retained in the latter. In the case of a vagrant, where none of these circumstances are applicable or provable, it is expected that the state in which he happens to be shall provisionally keep him.

ee.) Married women are considered as belonging to that state to which the husband belongs in consequence of any of the above-mentioned circumstances. Widows are treated according to the same principles; unless during their widowhood a change should take place by which they acquired a right of residence elsewhere, (another settlement.)

ff.) If there are among the members of a family without a settlement, children below the age of 14 years, or who otherwise, on account of the maintenance which they receive from the parents, cannot be separated from them, such children, without regard to the place where they happen to be born, are to be sent (*verwiesen*) to that state to which, in the case of legitimate children, the father, or of illegitimate, the mother, belongs; but if the mother is dead, and only the father living, the children are to follow the settlement (*forum*) of the latter.

gg.) If the subject of a state has by any action forfeited his civil rights without having acquired a settlement in another state, it is assumed that the state to which he had hitherto belonged cannot refuse to keep or again to receive him.

B.) With respect to other states with which no such treaty exists, the following are considered as belonging to Wurtemberg:—

aa.) Every one who can bring credible evidence that he has been received as a subject, or that his father, or if he is illegitimate, that his mother, at the time of his birth, was a subject of Wurtemberg, or of some territory since incorporated with the state of Wurtemberg, till it shall be proved that he, in the sequel, ceased to enjoy his inherited or acquired civil rights in Wurtemberg, and had gained a settlement elsewhere.

bb.) Even without a title to be considered as a subject founded as above, a settlement in Wurtemberg is granted to a person, not a subject of another state, who either—

aaa.) Has resided for five years in the kingdom in an independent manner, or—

bbb.) Is born in it and has not subsequently resided in a state of independence for five years in any other state.

cc.) If there should be in the same person a collision of several of the abovementioned grounds of settlement, they are decided according to the principles laid down under (a.)

Population, Marriages, Births, Deaths.

§ 2. According to the latest returns of 1st November 1832, the kingdom of Wurtemberg contains 1,578,147 inhabitants; viz. males below the age of 14 years, 240,730; above 14 years of age, 527,635; females under 14 years, 249,569; above 14 years, 560,213.

As according to the law a man must not marry, without a special dispensation, before his 25th year, the men in general do not marry before their 23d year; on an average, the men

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for the most part marry between the ages of 25 and 30, and the women between 18 and 25. Formerly, there were on an average about 11,000 marriages in a year, but from 1812 to 1822 only 9,851, which makes one marriage annually to 147 inhabitants. From 1822 to 1832, these notices are not found in the Population Returns. The total number of marriages was, on the 1st November 1832, 251,191, which, compared with the total amount of 1,578,147 inhabitants, gives on an average $6\frac{3}{10}$ persons, or $4\frac{3}{10}$ children, to one marriage. But as among these 1,578,147 inhabitants there is a considerable, though not accurately ascertained, number of independent bachelors, young women, widowers, widows and divorced persons, some with, some without children, the number of children to every marriage, as above stated, cannot be considered as very correct.

The births every year were, to the whole population, from 1812 to 1822, in the proportion of 1 to $27\frac{1}{4}$; from 1822 to 1832, as 1 to $27\frac{1}{10}$. The illegitimate were, on an average, from 1812 to 1822, as 1 to $8\frac{2}{3}$; from 1822 to 1832, as 1 to $7\frac{1}{10}$.

The deaths annually were, to the whole population, from 1812 to 1822, as one to $31\frac{1}{37}$; from 1822 to 1832, as 1 to $34\frac{2}{10}$. On an average of 10 years, the number of deaths of children under one year of age was $34\frac{2}{3}$ per hundred, that is, more than one-third; in several districts the mortality was even one-half. From the completion of the first year to the seventh, about one-tenth die, (likewise on an average of 10 years); from the completion of the seventh to the 14th year, the 45th part of the total of the children born. It cannot be ascertained from the Population Returns how many children die before attaining the 10th, and how many before attaining the 18th year.

Superficial Extent, and Landed Property.

§ 3. The whole superficial extent of the kingdom of Wurtemberg, amounts to 355 square German miles (about 8,000 English square miles.) On an average, therefore, there are 4,445 inhabitants to a German square mile; but in detail, the proportion of the population to the superficial extent, is very different in different parts of the country; for instance, in the district of Rentlingen and Kirchheim, also in the middle and lower valley of the Neckar, with the adjacent lateral valleys, especially the Kemsthal, we may reckon from 15,000 to 20,000 inhabitants to one German square mile; whereas about Ellwangen, in Upper Suabia, on the Alp and in the Black Forest, there are partly but 1,800 men to a square German mile. In private and public landed property the kingdom contains —

A.) Cultivated land.								Acres.
aa.)	Arable land	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,300,000
bb.)	Meadows	-	-	-	-	-	-	680,000
cc.)	Gardens	-	-	-	-	-	-	96,000
dd.)	Vineyards	-	-	-	-	-	-	85,000
ee.)	Reclaimed commons	-	-	-	-	-	-	116,000
TOTAL								3,277,000
B.)	Forests	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,736,700
C.)	Uncultivated land, pasture	-	-	-	-	-	-	220,000
D.)	Quarries, mines and turf-moors, lakes, rivers, &c. about	-	-	-	-	-	-	8,000
TOTAL								5,241,700

On an average, therefore, about two acres of cultivated land to one inhabitant.

Places of Abode; Means of Livelihood; Professions; Religion.

§ 4. The population of the kingdom inhabits 3,384 detached houses, 2,333 farms (Hofen), 1,878 hamlets, 1,575 villages, 175 country towns, 132 larger towns. The largest villages are Fellbach, with 2,572 inhabitants; Meyengen, with 3,609; Ehingen, with 4,584 inhabitants. The largest towns are Rentlingen, with 9,552; Ulm, with 14,079; Stuttgart (the capital, without the military), with 27,580 inhabitants.

With respect to trades and professions, there are among the inhabitants of the kingdom, — peasants and vine-dressers, 101,575; day-labourers, 41,913; citizens, 108,496; persons in office, 53,849, among whom, however, there are only 10,672 who have more than 300 florins annual income; without profession or office, and living on their property, 8,793. Among the citizens, there are, besides, many who are at the same time engaged in agriculture.

With respect to religion, there are, — Lutherans, 1,081,383; Reformed, 1,338; Catholics, 484,376; Jews, 10,670; Christian Sectarians, 380.

Political (Civil) and Ecclesiastical Divisions.

§ 5. In a political or civil sense, each city, town and village forms an independent community (corporation.) Detached hamlets and farms must join the community of the nearest place, or, if their local situation requires and allows it, form a community in themselves. The established rule is, that no community shall contain fewer than 500 inhabitants or 100 families. Every community in the kingdom must, besides, belong to one of the 64 *bailiwicks* into which the country is divided; and the communities united in such a bailiwick constitute a distinct corporation (Oberamts Körperschaft.)

The ecclesiastical division coincides for the most part with the civil; but as in many places persons of different religious persuasions live together, a civil community may often contain several ecclesiastical communities; likewise many towns, or hamlets, or small villages,

villages may appertain in ecclesiastical matters to a different community from that to which they belong in civil or political respects.

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Rights of Communes, Citizens and Non-freemen.

A.) § 6. The mere grant of protection or permission of a temporary residence gives no participation in the community of the place of abode. Only the citizen (§ 1.) is qualified to possess the rights of members of community in the kingdom; every foreigner to whom the competent authority has given the rights of citizenship, every Wurtemberg citizen without exception may, and in some cases, determined by the law, must be received by the authorities of the community concerned either as a burgher or a non-freeman.

B.) Every citizen, unless the law expressly makes an exception in his case, must belong to a community, either as a burgher or as a settled non-freeman. In a community composed of several places, every individual who belongs to one of these places as having a settlement is a burgher or a settled non-freeman of the whole community, and may as such fix his abode in any one of these places. The burgher of a community, still retaining his rights as a burgher, can acquire the rights of a burgher or a settled non-freeman in another community only for his own person, without affecting his wife or his children, whether born before or after his acquiring such right; or in case he should contemplate the removal of his family, retaining the previously enjoyed rights of a citizen or a settled non-freeman, only for his own person, not for his wife or children. The same rules are applicable to the settled non-freeman who, retaining his rights as such, will acquire the right of citizenship in another community; but he cannot obtain a second or further right as a non-freeman, unless by voluntary adoption, and then only to the extent above mentioned.

C.) The right of a burgher or a settled non-freeman descends to every legitimate child of the marriage in which the father lived at the time of the child's birth, or if he should have died before, in that place where, at the time of his death, he was a burgher or a settled non-freeman.

An exception takes place with respect to those members of a community who, after the promulgation of this law, have acquired the rights of members of two or more communities, as such can transmit to their children only one of these rights. Illegitimate children acquire by their birth the rights of burghers or of settled non-freemen in that community in which the mother possessed them at the time of their birth. If the parents afterwards marry, the child acquires the rights of a burgher or a settled non-freeman in that community to which his father belonged as such at the time of his marriage; and on the other hand, the rights of a burgher or a settled non-freeman, which he has acquired in the place of his mother's settlement, cease.

§ 7. An assignment of settlement can take place only in the case of the *homeless* (not settled), that is to say, such subjects of the state as do not belong to any certain community of the kingdom, either as burghers or settled non-freemen, by their birth or by virtue of special reception as such. Every subject of the state who is so situated may claim the assignment of a settlement in a certain community; and when the question is to provide a place of residence, or the necessary subsistence of a subject of the state, such assignment is made officially.

On these suppositions,—

A.) The homeless individual who has renounced the right of a citizen or settled non-freeman, acquired by birth or adoption, in consequence of emigration or any other cause, but has not actually obtained the rights of member of a community elsewhere, is assigned to that community to which he formerly belonged as a burgher or settled non-freeman.

B.) In the absence of such rights as a former member of a community, the homeless individual is assigned to the place in which he has lived independently for at least five years, and where two or more such places are united, to that place in which he resided the last five years.

C.) If this rule likewise cannot be applied, a settlement is given him in the place where the license of the magistrates for his marriage was granted.

D.) And if this rule cannot be applied, in the place of his birth, or in case of foundlings, in the place where they were found.

E.) Married women or widows, in whom none of the claims to a settlement enumerated under (A.) to (D.) are found, are assigned to that place to which their husband was, or, if he should be still alive, shall be assigned; and—

(F.) Those children of a homeless family who have none of the claims to a settlement enumerated under (A.) to (B.), are assigned to the community which has to receive their father, or, if they are illegitimate, their mother, that is to say, if these women or children are to be recognized as subjects of the state, according to the principles laid down above (§ 1.).

G.) If none of the preceding rules can be applied, the homeless individual is assigned to the place *where found by the police*.*

By the assignment, the rights of a settled non-freeman, with all the rights and obligations of the other settled non-freemen of the community (§ 6.), are acquired.

REGULATIONS

* This passage is obscure, and the meaning doubtful.

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.

WURTEMBERG.

REGULATIONS RELATIVE TO THE POOR IN THE KINGDOM OF WURTEMBERG.

Authorities for the Management of the same.

§ 8. Respecting the *authorities* to whom the *direction* of the management of the poor in the kingdom of Wurtemberg is entrusted, the English Government has made no inquiry. They may therefore be passed over here, and the more so as their organization must be regulated in every state according to the peculiar circumstances of the organization of the other branches of the administration.

Funds for the support of the Poor.

§ 9. Many *families* in Wurtemberg have founded particular, and, in part, now very ancient establishments, for the support of poor members of those families.

In particular, however, every church and chapel in Wurtemberg had in the 14th century its own possessions and revenues (a Sacred Fund, as it was called), out of the amount of which not only was the church maintained, but something contributed for the poor. But besides this sacred fund, individual places, but especially towns, possessed already in very ancient times, particularly in the 14th century, also, endowments of their own, allotted chiefly to the distribution of alms and the maintenance of public poor-houses. But Duke Ulrich of Wurtemberg was the first who ordered, in the year 1536, on occasion of the Reformation, "That in every community all that the sacred fund, the church revenue, the Salve, the Brotherhood,* and the like, bring in, and all that can be obtained from glebe lands, from the lordships, towns and villages, for the benefit of the General Alms Fund, shall be united in one common treasury; and all that has hitherto been employed for masses, vigils, ever-burning light, wax and oil, in general all that can be spared from the pay of the offices of the church, and the schools, and the repairs of the church, shall be devoted to the advantage of the poor." Duke John Frederic renewed this, at least in part, in the new Ordinance of 1615, and commanded further, "That if the *poor's fund*† and *hospital*‡ in a place cannot be united, but must remain separate and apart; but the hospitals and sick houses might put something into the treasury for the daily maintenance of their poor, to contribute to the poor fund; and in general that the several institutions for the relief of the poor shall support each other."

Partly at the same time, partly in the sequel, other revenues were assigned by law to these poor funds, and many of them obtained subsequently additions from benefice money, inheritance, legacies and other voluntary contributions. Accordingly we still find in Wurtemberg, in almost every place, at least one such poor's fund, which in the villages is still usually called the sacred fund, and in small towns the poor's fund. In the more considerable towns there are for the most part two, three or more such separate funds under various denominations (*the German names of which are here given.*)

Besides these general local funds, there are many special local establishments for the poor; for instance, some schools of industry, some houses of education, most of the poor-houses, &c., and many local committees of the Charitable Union, with their own special funds. Here too we may reckon the local charitable funds belonging to the guilds, sick funds, insurance funds, &c.

§ 10. The bailiwick corporations, as such, have no funds specially allotted to the support of the poor; only the bailiwick of Stuttgart possesses a common poor fund, which first originated since the middle of the 18th century, chiefly from endowments and legacies. Besides this, some of the district boards of the Charitable Union have small funds, and there are also in some bailiwicks private endowments for the poor. There are besides in each bailiwick, not only in every place in which the funds of guilds of artisans are deposited, but in other places where the members of the guilds are more numerous, auxiliary funds for poor individuals belonging to them.

§ 11. *For the whole of the former Duchy of Wurtemberg*, Duke Ulrich, at the time of the Reformation in the years 1535 and 1536, besides the local poor's fund founded at that time in the several communities (§ 9.), formed also out of the sequestered estates a general church fund, which was subsequently known by the name of Church Estates, which was expressly destined by him, not merely for the maintenance of the churches and schools, but also for the relief of the poor. In the year 1806 it was indeed incorporated with the other domains of the state, which however has hitherto continued the former application of the church estates to charitable purposes.

For general benevolent objects extending to the *whole country*, there are further the funds of the Central Board of the Charitable Union, the Royal Private Gratuity Fund, also the separate funds of several special benevolent public institutions, as, for example, the Pension Fund for public servants in general, the funds for the support of ecclesiastics, schoolmasters, military individuals, noble ladies, &c., the fund for the widows of clergy and laity,

* Some sources of receipt are here mentioned, which existed in the Catholic times, and for which it might be difficult to find the equivalent expressions.

† This seems to be the meaning.

‡ But what is called hospital in Germany, is not what is meant by that word. It is a place of refuge for aged and infirm persons, who pay a sum on admission, and whose property belongs to the Establishment on their death.

laity, the funds of the public orphan houses, deaf and dumb and blind institutions, the fund of the Catharine Hospital at Stuttgard, the general insurances against fire and bail, &c.

§ 12. Religious institutions, which gave relief to the poor by alms or lodging, no longer exist in Wurtemberg, since the foundations and monasteries in Wurtemberg were suppressed by the treaty of Paris of 27th March 1802, the recess of the Empire of the 25th February 1803, by the treaty of Presburg of the 26th December 1805, and the Act of the Rhenish Confederation of 12th July 1806, when their estates, after previously providing for the monks, were incorporated with the other public domains, exist no longer, unless we should comprehend under the name of religious institutions the religious private societies which extend over the whole country, and which certainly afford various support to their poor members, as well by alms as lodging.

Special Resources of these Funds.

§ 13. The various authorities appointed for the support of the poor in Wurtemberg are however not confined to the income arising from the collective property of the funds just enumerated (§ 9—12.); for instance, to the produce of their building and lands, and to the tithes, lands, revenues, ground rents, interest, &c. belonging to these funds; but they have various other, in part very ample resources, in *contributions*, as well of private persons as of public establishments.

§ 14. The contributions of individuals are divided into contributions from the poor themselves, who are or are to be supported, and in the contributions from other persons. Among the first are, for instance, the profits of the work of the schools of industry, of the pupils of the houses of education, and of the inmates of the hospitals,* the money for the board and clothing of pupils of the houses of education, the entrance money paid by the inmates of the hospitals and the property left by them, the contributions of servants and journeymen mechanics to the infirmaries destined for their reception, the money paid by other sick persons received into such houses, the deposits of the members in the auxiliary fund of the guilds of the artisans, the deposits of the subscribers to the widows' funds, the contributions of persons in office to the pension fund, the deposits in the funds for insurance against fire and hail, &c. The latter are divided partly into voluntary, partly into forced contributions.

§ 15. The voluntary contributions consist either in legacies and endowments, or in gifts. The wills in which such legacies and endowments are given to the establishments for the poor are very much favoured by the laws; and persons whose business it is to draw up wills, as well as the clergy, are enjoined, as a special duty, to endeavour to interest the sick and dying in making such legacies and endowments in favour of institutions for the poor.

Encouragement to make presents to these institutions is given by general exhortations, for example, from the pulpit, and in the public journals, in printed reports, by the appointment and making known of persons to receive the presents, by the erection of permanent poor-boxes, by collections in the churches, at the consecration of churches, at the ordinary celebration of divine service on Sundays and holidays, at the monthly fast-days, at the administration of the sacrament, marriages, betrothings, christenings, at funerals, at the grant of leases of estates, mills, pastures, &c., at the binding and discharge of apprentices, the reception of masters and other meetings of the artisans; also by the collection of money and various articles in kind, or at least by signatures obtained by going from house to house; lastly, by special exhortations to the refractory individuals. The establishments for the poor are particularly indebted for frequent and ample gifts to the generosity of the King, the Queen and other members of the royal family, and to the benevolent dispositions of many land-owners and other members of the nobility, of the members of the Charitable Union and of several religious societies.

§ 16. *Forced Contributions* to the poor in Wurtemberg must be paid,—

A.) For certain offences; for instance, neglecting to attend schools and church, profanation of the Sundays or holidays, abuse of religion, immoral actions, refusal to perform lawful service, offences of servants, &c.

B.) At certain pastimes, prize-shooting, bowling and skittle-playing, lotteries, dances, at weddings and entertainments; exceeding the fixed number of sponsors at baptisms; exceeding the fixed expenses for funerals and mourning; the tax on dogs, &c.

C.) At the conclusion of certain contracts, for instance, relative to land, buildings, ground rents, &c.; sales of corn, &c.

D.) For carrying on certain trades, from apprentices, journeymen and masters.

E.) At the examinations of candidates for office, and on admission to an office.

F.) On admission to the rights of a citizen or settled non-freeman.

G.) On inheritances and legacies which fall to distant relations, or to individuals allied only by marriage, or to entire strangers.

H.) In the year 1817, and during the dearth which prevailed at that time, an old law which had fallen into desuetude was revived; according to which, the rich and opulent who, after having been previously applied to for voluntary contributions, should not come forward in a manner suitable to their property, are to be taxed by the magistrates in a sum conformable to their income, and according to all the circumstances of their situation.

§ 17. Lastly,

* See preceding note respecting hospitals.

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§ 17. Lastly, with respect to *contributions from public funds*; a poor individual or an institution for the poor may, according to the circumstances, obtain such contribution from the dotation fund of the place, or from the funds of the community, or from the local fund of the Charitable Union, or from the funds of other communities of the bailiwick, or from the guild funds of the bailiwick, or from the fund of the board of the Charitable Union in the bailiwick, or from the royal gratuity fund, or from that of the central board of the Charitable Union, or from the church estate and the public coffers.

§ 18. The authorities charged with the management of the poor have often had recourse to *loans*; for example, on the building of a house, or in the purchase of buildings and land, or in times of peculiar distress. In the dearth in the year 1817, the communities and bailiwicks were expressly called upon by the Government to act on this system; and in order to facilitate to the bailiwicks and charitable public institutions the raising of means to procure subsistence and employment for the poor, and to prevent usury, a voluntary relief fund was at that time founded in the capital city of Stuttgart by a private association, and placed under the protection and guarantee of the Government; from which fund large sums were advanced to the managers of charitable foundations, communities and bailiwicks, upon moderate interest, and in some cases of larger loans, to be repaid by instalments. This fund, however, as its object is already obtained, has ceased, since the year 1818, both to take new sums upon interest or to lend out any more capital. In some respects, we may place under this head the General Credit Association, which was formed at Stuttgart in 1827.

FOREIGN POOR.

Restrictions of the same.

§ 19. *Poor foreign individuals, who can prove a legally allowed object of their journey, or who must necessarily pass through the Wurtemberg territory on their way to a foreign state to which they belong*, are suffered indeed to pass unmolested through Wurtemberg; they are however not only seriously warned to refrain from all begging by the way, but a route by the shortest road is prescribed them, from which they are not to deviate, on pain of being treated as vagabonds.

Strangers, on the other hand, who are not able to give a satisfactory account of their condition and the object of their journey are not allowed either to abide in or to pass through the kingdom; on the contrary, and likewise with the threat of being treated as vagabonds in case they again enter the kingdom, they are, if possible, immediately refused admittance at the frontier, and if they are already in the kingdom, they are sent out of it by the shortest road.

Persons who for any reason whatever have been ordered to leave neighbouring states, and who desire to be delivered up at the frontier by what is called the *Schubs*,* and who, on the other hand, by the existing regulations (§ 1.) have no claim to any settlement in Wurtemberg, are not allowed to enter the territory of the kingdom, unless it can be proved that the vagrant to be received belongs to some place situated beyond, to which he cannot well be sent except through the Wurtemberg territory, and that the neighbouring state observe the same mode of proceeding towards Wurtemberg. Hitherto Bavaria, Baden, the Grand Duchy of Hesse and Sigmaringen have engaged by formal conventions to act in this manner.

Travelling artisans and journeymen mechanics who have got the itch, if they come directly from a foreign country, and if they are not subjects of Wurtemberg, are sent back into the country from which they last came till they are perfectly cured.

§ 20. Foreign journeymen artisans (*wandergesellen*, or what are called travelling artisans), who —

A.) Have already passed their 40th year; or —

B.) Do not possess a sufficient sum to continue their travels and at least 10 florins; or —

C.) Cannot satisfactorily show that they will obtain work with a master in the kingdom, are at once refused admittance on the frontier, or, if they have already crossed, are sent by the shortest road out of the Wurtemberg territory, unless they are upon their return to their own home, and the shortest way to it is through the Wurtemberg territory.

In the same manner, a foreign travelling journeyman admitted into the kingdom, who has been there eight days without work, even though he can show that he has looked for work without success, is sent by the shortest road over the frontiers, unless —

a.) He can prove that he has been hindered from work by sickness; or —

b.) That at the moment of being ordered away an opportunity for getting work offers itself; or —

c.) That he can prove that he possesses means to travel to the amount of at least 10 florins.

A foreign travelling journeyman, who stops more than 24 hours in a place where he has looked for work, but not obtained it, or in another place longer than over night without having obtained special permission from the magistrates, is punished with imprisonment for not less than one nor more than three days, unless circumstances of aggravation, for example, frequent

* It is in fact hardly necessary to translate this word "*Schubs*," which means a shove; and in the present instance is a transfer of the person in question from one state to another (shoving him across the frontier.)

frequent repetition of the offence, shall give ground for sending him out of the kingdom; but if grounds for mitigation should appear, a notice in his travelling book may be substituted for the imprisonment.

Foreign journeymen artisans who are found without an authentic certificate, or who have disregarded the directions given to them at the countersigning of the same, are sent by the shortest way over the frontiers, with the threat that if they return they shall be treated like other vagrants.

Simple begging by a foreign travelling journeyman is punished by imprisonment for at least three hours; but importunate or repeated beggary or begging from house to house is punished by imprisonment for three to eight days, and, according to circumstances, by expulsion from the territory.

§ 21. Other foreign individuals, who have either no regular settlement, no service, and no business, or whose business is partly in itself injurious to the public, partly at least not sufficient for their subsistence, and which furnishes an opportunity and occasion for illicit secondary occupations, or the object of whose journey is not compatible with the laws of the police; namely,—

A.) Strolling foreigners, who make a business of the exhibition of wild beasts, sleight of hand, athletic exercises, musical or dramatic representations and the like, unless a higher degree of perfection or art or science authorizes an exception; consequently all strolling common players, jugglers, conjurors, mountebanks, gamblers, *scholderer*,* showmen, &c.

B.) All foreign china-menders, bellows-menders, tinkers, basket-makers, dealers in kitchen-spoons and stove-pipes, bagpipers, knife-grinders, saw-filers, buckle-makers, van or winnow basket-makers.

C.) All strolling quack doctors, hawkers of medicine, oil and colours, foreign pedlars who have no settlement any where, or have not regularly acquired the right to trade, or whose stock of goods is of very little value.

D.) All foreign lottery collectors and beggars without exception, whatever may be their origin or rank, and for whatever reason they may think themselves entitled to collect contributions for themselves or others, especially foreign Jew beggars, are immediately refused on the frontiers, without regarding whether they have a regular passport or not; but if they are already within the kingdom, if it is the first time of their coming and they cannot be properly considered as vagrants, and are not convicted of a crime or a connexion with criminals, they are sent out by the shortest way, with the threat that if they come again they shall be treated as vagabonds.

§ 22. If persons of the class of vagrants, properly so called, have, in spite of the prohibition, clandestinely passed the frontier, and if they are found in the interior of the kingdom, such persons, if they cannot be convicted of a crime or of a connexion with criminals, whether male or female, are to be punished, first on account of their idle vagrant life, which is detrimental to the public, with imprisonment for three to six days, and also, according to circumstances, by being beaten with a cane, and then sent over the frontiers, with the threat of still more severe punishment if they are again caught in the Wurtemberg territory. If such a person, notwithstanding the warning received, should again find his way into the kingdom, he is put into a workhouse or house of correction for four or six weeks, or subjected to a proportionate corporeal punishment; and if he should not be deterred even by this punishment, he is considered as a criminal and punished as such, with the observance of the necessary gradations.

Foreign Jew beggars or other Jews wandering about without a settlement and without a regular trade, who on account of a defect in their passport, or otherwise on account of insufficient license to reside in the kingdom, have been refused admittance at the frontiers, or have been otherwise sent away, and who, in spite of this, have in an illicit manner again clandestinely entered the kingdom, or have abused the permission given them to pass through, to commit underhand knavery, even though they are not convicted of any crime or of a connexion with criminals, yet on account of their vagabondizing, which is contrary to the police regulations, they are, according to circumstances, put into a workhouse.

Vagrants who are furnished with a *false passport* are sentenced to six months' hard labour.

If it is found that a vagrant brought in by the police is in *connexion with thieves and sharpers*, or has otherwise injured the public security by *actual crimes*, he is delivered up to the tribunals, and proceeded against according to law.

§ 23. If foreign vagrants and beggars have become liable to imprisonment for a term which does not exceed the duration of the first degree of hard labour in a workhouse, it may be commuted by the tribunals, and namely,—

A.) So that when the punishment incurred does not exceed six months' confinement in a workhouse, the offender, (the physician of the court having first given his opinion,) may be chastised with from 25 to 50 blows with a stick, and threatened, that in case of a repetition of the offence, the time of imprisonment which he has incurred shall be doubled. But if—

B.) The penalty incurred exceed six months' imprisonment, the offender is exposed for an hour, and the above punishment publicly inflicted on him, with the same threat as above.

In both cases, he is then conveyed over the frontiers, and given up to the authorities of his own country, when this is practicable.

Relief

* No explanation of this word can be found.

Appendix (F.)

*Relief of Foreign Poor.*Foreign
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§ 24. At the same time that these police regulations are strictly enforced, the *duties of humanity towards foreign poor* are not lost sight of.

When they duly observe the above police regulations, foreign wandering journeymen receive in every place where there is an auxiliary guild fund, (§ 10.); other foreign poor, who on their journey fall into embarrassment, especially foreign sick persons who cannot pursue their journey on foot, or who fall sick by the way, in every place where this occurs, even foreign poor who are conveyed by the police out of the kingdom, at every station, and foreigners under sentence of imprisonment, in every prison in Wurtemberg; all these receive precisely the same relief that is given to a native in the same circumstances. See below, (§ 84, 89 & 98.)

Foreign poor who are put into a penal establishment at Wurtemberg, or are removed from the kingdom by the police, receive this assistance out of the public treasury; foreign journeymen artisans, at the expense of the guild fund of the place where they happen to be; other foreign poor, at the expense of the fund of the endowment or community of the place in which they fall into embarrassment. Wurtemberg has made a convention with many foreign governments that this shall be reciprocally done without any indemnification for the expense, if the traveller in question should not be able to make it good from his own resources.

The corporations of some bailiwicks however, in order that unfortunate strangers may not suffer by this, have resolved to reimburse to the communities concerned, out of the fund of the bailiwick, the expenses which they may incur on this account.

Native Poor.

§ 25. Whoever, according to the principles above laid down, (§ 1.) is to be considered as a *subject of the state of Wurtemberg*, is never forced upon another state whose subject he is not, and in whose territory he has no settlement, or through whose territory he must necessarily pass as a subject of a state lying beyond, particularly not on the states of Bavaria, Baden, Hesse (the grand duchy,) and Sigmaringen, which are authorized by treaty to cause even those vagrants who, according to the documents found upon them, have already been sent to a state lying further on, but not received by it, to be sent back to that state from which they had been sent away, to be provisionally kept. Every vagrant or vagabond from whose papers it satisfactorily appears that he is a subject of Wurtemberg is, on the contrary, received on the frontier, if he desires to be given up by a neighbouring state.

Assignment of Settlements or Fixed Places of Abode.

§ 26. Every native vagabond who travels about without a profession has a *fixed place of residence* assigned to him, if it has not already been done, in the middle of that inland community in which, according to the laws (§ 6 & 7.) he has to claim a right of settlement, and which is accordingly bound to receive him. If a person confined in this manner names another inland community where he might hope to be received as a burgher or a settled non-freeman, and which would be peculiarly favourable to him for the carrying on of a useful trade, the competent authority is consulted upon the subject, and if there is no obstacle to his being received, he is allowed to change his place of residence, with the reserve of the continuance of the restriction in his new abode.

No person so restricted may remove from the place of residence assigned him, on pain of corporal punishment or hard labour, without special permission from the magistrate; and this permission can only be granted in case of his having observed an unexceptionable conduct during his abode in the place assigned him; this permission can be granted by the local magistrate only for the purpose of seeking or doing some work for a short distance, not beyond the boundary of the neighbouring place, and for eight days at the most; but if it is wanted for other purposes than to seek for employment, for a greater distance and a longer time, it can be granted only by the magistrates of the community.

In case however of blameless conduct for several years, and a regular business securing his subsistence, a person so restricted may be relieved from the restriction imposed upon him.

Restriction of Marriage.

§ 27. No subject of the state can marry till he possesses the rights of a member of a community or a settled non-freeman. But even such an one must prove to the magistrates before his marriage that he possesses sufficient means of subsistence. The want of such means of subsistence is considered as existing,—

A.) In every one who is not personally qualified for the exercise of a liberal art or science, or for exercising on his own account, commerce, a profession, agriculture or some other business sufficient for the support of a family, nor possesses sufficient property for the independent support of a family; and,—

B.) In every one who, at the time of the intended marriage, is the subject of political or police investigation, for vagabondage, prodigality, habitual idleness, notorious propensity to drinking, for repeated fraud, repeated theft or systematic begging, or who has been punished for the same, during the two years immediately preceding, or who in the course of the three preceding years (excepting in case of misfortune not incurred by his own fault) has received assistance from public funds for his support, or is in the receipt of such at the time of the intended marriage.

Prohibition

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Prohibition of Beggary, Idleness, &c.

§ 28. *Returned emigrants, discharged prisoners, and vagrants confined to a certain place, and their families*, are placed under the special superintendence of their local magistrates, who are bound to do their utmost to convert all such people into harmless and, if possible, into good and useful citizens; to keep a vigilant eye over the *restricted*;* to observe their conduct and the means employed by them to gain their livelihood; to summon each of them to appear before them once a week, but not upon a fixed day; and in the like manner strictly to observe *other inhabitants of the place who are addicted to idleness, prodigality, or otherwise to an irregular and immoral kind of life*; and, if they should observe any indications of illegal associations among them, or even of intercourse with suspicious foreigners, to give notice of it to the superior authorities, that they may act accordingly.

§ 29. Whoever desires to exercise a business, whether it consists in work or in trade, by hawking out of the limits of his place of abode (travelling from place to place), must obtain for this purpose the permission of the public authorities in general, and in the several districts in which he means to exercise his calling, the special permission of the local police authorities. Every license of this kind is valid only for the person licensed, and, without the special permission of the public authorities, he can never be accompanied by other persons while travelling on his business; but this permission is, according to the established rules, never given to more than one of several sons of a father who supports himself by an itinerant calling. The license, too, is granted only for a certain time, at the most one year, and for a limited extent of country; it may, however, be renewed at the expiration of the time for which it was granted, according to circumstances. Whoever is guilty of transgressing any of the existing regulations on this subject is arrested, and unless there are grounds for proceeding against him in the place where he is arrested, he is to be conveyed back to the tribunal of the community of his place of residence, to be dealt with according to law. With respect to Wurtemberg journeymen artisans who are caught begging, or who by being long out of work, by neglect of looking for work, &c., make themselves suspected of idle vagrancy, the regulations above enumerated (§ 20.) with regard to foreign journeymen artisans are applicable, only with the difference, that where the alleged transgression would be followed, in the case of a foreign journeyman, by expulsion from the kingdom, the native journeyman, on proof of the allegation, is punished with three to eight days' imprisonment, and threatened, on repetition of the offence, to be treated as a vagrant.

§ 30. But in general, all *begging*, as well in the houses as in the streets, especially during divine service, is forbidden in the whole kingdom to Wurtembergers as well as foreigners, without distinction, and is punished as an offence against the police laws. In particular, the going out for the purpose of begging, especially to fairs, whether at home or abroad, is forbidden under severe penalties to every Wurtemberger, and particularly to idiots, dumb, epileptic, crippled or otherwise impotent or deformed poor. Every Wurtemberg subject who is caught begging out of his place of residence is imprisoned for the first offence for three days, for the second for eight days, every other day on bread and water. If a native beggar, who has been twice punished with imprisonment, has again gone out begging, and either confesses or is proved to have done so, he is put, according to circumstances, for a longer or shorter period in a house of correction (Polizeihaus).

OBLIGATION OF SUPPORTING THE POOR.

§ 31. On the other hand, every native indigent or poor person, that is, every subject who is not able to procure the necessary subsistence, either from his property or his trade or his work, can require that he shall receive sufficient for his subsistence, and be maintained, even though there should be no hope of an indemnity for the expense thereby incurred.

If the duty of maintaining him appertains to any person on a ground of private right, such right must be enforced before support can be required as a matter of public right.

Duty of Private Individuals.

§ 32. Such *private duty* is founded, for instance, sometimes by *contracts*; for example, the *deed of gift*. If a person has promised to give something to another, and before the execution of his promise falls into poverty, the donor has the right to deduct from his gift as much as he requires for his necessary support, and in case of need, to withhold the entire gift. But if the object of the gift has been already delivered, the donee is bound, on pain of losing the whole donation, to give to the donor the necessary support, if he has not himself, through misfortune or without any great fault of his own, fallen into poverty; or the gift is not too trifling or not calculated to afford support.

Such a duty is likewise sometimes founded upon an *annuity contract*, by which a person engages to pay to another, during his life, on the receipt of a certain thing, a fixed revenue destined for his support; for instance, when a person purchases a place in an hospital as a beneficiary (*vide below*, § 92.); or when a person during his life transfers or sells his estate to one of his heirs, and by a supplementary contract provides for his subsistence during life

out

* *Restricted*; this seems to be the best expression for the German "*Confinirten*," which is itself not a legitimate German word.

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out of these estates, or when a debtor gives up his property on condition that he shall receive aliment.

A private duty of this kind also attaches, occasionally at least, in part,—

To drivers, with respect to persons injured by their carelessness.

To the lords of hunting grounds, to the vassals who meet with accidents in their service.

To masters, towards their servants.

To lords of the manor, towards poor dependents.

To vassals, towards needy feudal lords.

To lords of the manor, communities or other corporations, towards catholic candidates in divinity, to whom they have given table allowance, (Tischtitel).

To the Sovereign, to the former inmates of suppressed monasteries.

To parishioners, towards necessitous patrons.

To sponsors, towards their godchildren.

To the guilds of artisans, towards needy brethren.

To insurance societies against hail, fire and sickness, in respect to the contributors, &c.

Family Duty to support the Poor.

§ 33. A further private duty to support the poor is frequently founded on *family connexions*. Sometimes indeed the individual members of families are dispensed, at least in part, from this duty by the family endowments mentioned above, (§ 9.); but where no such endowments exist, or where they are not sufficient, the following rules prevail according to the laws of Wurtemberg.

Of Husband and Wife.

§ 34. The husband is not indeed bound, as is the case according to the common law, unconditionally to support the wife; but by virtue of the community of goods, the expenses attending it must be borne by the husband and wife in common. When however the wife of an emigrant, remaining behind with permission of the magistrates, is not able to derive sufficient support from her own property, or the retained *hinterfällig** property of her children, the emigrating husband is bound to make up a sufficient aliment by leaving behind a part of his property, according to the decision of the magistrates. In the case of married persons separated from bed and board, the guilty party is bound to give the innocent alimony according to a judicial sentence; nor can either of a married couple entirely disinherit the other without special cause, but is bound to leave, at least, what is called the portion fixed by law (Pflichttheil.)

Of the Parents:—Of the Legitimate.

§ 35. To support and provide for legitimate children conformably to their property and station, and duly to educate them in the fear of God, and to study or to learn honest trades and professions for which they are fitted, is, so long as both the parents are alive, the common duty of both, and after the death of one, the duty of the survivor. If the latter should, in the sequel, marry again, the father-in-law or the mother-in-law is bound to support and to educate the step-children; if they have no property of their own, in conjunction with the real father or the real mother. If the surviving parent dies before the children are married or have attained their 25th year, they are to be delivered to their grandfather on the father or mother's side, if still alive and able and willing to undertake the charge, together with the administration of their property till they are married or have attained their 25th year; for which, however, an indemnity is to be allowed him.

When a child has attained the years of manhood and his full age, and is capable of superintending an establishment of his own, the parents, if they are both still living, are bound to portion him or her, if he or she marries with their knowledge, consent and advice, with an honourable fortune out of the common property of the parents, and suitable to their estate and rank in life; but if only one of the parents is still living, the marriage portions are to be allotted to the children from the property which has already fallen to them, and of which the surviving father or mother has the usufruct; and if there is none such, out of the property belonging to the surviving father or mother. Parents in indifferent circumstances however, that they may not implicate themselves in debts, are not to promise a larger marriage portion to their children than is suitable to their remaining property and the number of their other still unmarried children. Parents cannot, without special reasons, wholly disinherit any of their children, but must in every case leave them what is called the *legitimate portion*, (Pflichttheil). If parents do not provide suitable maintenance and support for their children who have fallen into poverty, misery or sickness, or who have lost their reason, children may disinherit their parents; and if such a child dies intestate in this his distress, and the parents have, knowingly, neither given nor have desired to give him any assistance, they are excluded by the law from the estate he has left.

Of the Illegitimate.

§ 36. With respect to illegitimate children, they cannot indeed inherit the fortune of their father if they have not been legitimated, or he has left legitimate children, or a lawful wife,
nor

* The word "*hinterfällig*," not translated, does not appear to be in any wise applicable here; it is not to be found in any dictionary.

nor can the fortune of their mother, if they are the fruit of an adulterous intercourse, or are the offspring of persons who on account of their affinity are prohibited from marrying by the Divine law. As it is, however, more natural and equitable that such children should receive the necessary support from their parents, than from the poor's fund, or from others, such fathers shall be called upon, and obliged by the magistrates, to make the necessary arrangements during their life-time, that these their illegitimate children may be decently maintained, clothed and educated till they are able to gain their own livelihood.

The compacts and agreements by which the fathers sometimes impose exclusively on the mothers the maintenance and bringing up of their illegitimate children, on the payment of a certain sum, shall not be valid unless the sum fixed in the agreement is in proportion to the property of the father, and suitable to the circumstances and to equity; but if the sum agreed upon is too small, and the mother of the illegitimate child herself is poor, the father or their heirs, notwithstanding the agreements made, shall be obliged by the magistrates, to allot to such illegitimate children additional support and necessary maintenance, according to their ability.*

But should the fathers have omitted to make during their life-time due provision for the maintenance, clothing and necessary support of their illegitimate children, it shall before all things be assigned to them by the heirs on the division of the father's estate; and if the heirs refuse or attempt to allot to such children too small a maintenance, it shall be duly regulated and appointed by the magistrates according to the nature of the inheritance, so that, on the one hand, it may be such as can be borne by the right heirs, and on the other hand, that such children may not want the necessary support.

Of the Children.

§ 37. When the *father* or *mother* become aged, poor, infirm or fall into any misfortune, without any fault of their own, and their own property does not suffice for their necessary maintenance and support, but the property belonging to the children is sufficient, not only for the necessary support of the children themselves, but also of their indigent parents, as they are bound by divine, natural and all laws, shall give their parents the necessary help and support. Should the children unjustly refuse to do this, the magistrates shall assign to such parents out of the property of their children, according to the nature and extent of that property, what is absolutely necessary for their maintenance, and to this end so much of the property of the children as is requisite for the maintenance of their indigent parents shall be sold. Besides this, children and grandchildren, who do not maintain according to their ability their *parents* or *grand parents*, who have become poor or sick, or have lost their senses and reason, who have not provided them with necessaries, and who have let them suffer want of food and due care, even if such father, mother, grandfather or grandmother has made no will, are disinherited by the law, and those who have afforded them care and support, whether they be children, near or distant relations, shall be their heirs.

Neither can children, without a special reason, ever entirely disinherit their parents, but must in every case leave them at least what is called the legitimate portion.†

Of the Brothers and Sisters, and more distant Relations.

§ 38. According to the opinion of eminent lawyers, the brothers and sisters have a legal obligation to support each other; the laws of Wurtemberg, however, appear not to contain any express enactments on this point, any more than on the obligation to leave to brothers and sisters what is called the legitimate portion, though the latter appears to be assumed in practice, and the legal exemption of the eldest brother, or, if he is already serving in the army, of the next brother of a family who have lost their parents and who keep house together, following agriculture or any other regular business, from the military conscription, appears to presuppose a duty of this brother to support his brothers and sisters.

More distant relations are not in any case bound to support each other.

OBLIGATION

* In general when the mother is of mean condition, there is assigned to her for the loss of her virginity (*die Schwächung*) from 10 to 20 *f.*; for the expenses of the christening and childbed, from 10 to 15 *f.* for the illegitimate child itself, till it has attained the age of 14 years, from 10 to 15 *f.* annually; and if the mother is of a higher rank, from 20 to 30 *f.* annually.

† It is probably on account of this duty of the children to support their parents that the following are exempt from the military conscription:—

A.) The only son, who is also the only child, or whose father is sixty years old, or whose mother lives in a state of widowhood.

B.) The eldest son, or if he is already serving in the army, the next son, whose father is sixty years old, or whose mother lives in a state of widowhood.

C.) The only grandson, whose grandfather is sixty years old, or whose grandmother lives in a state of widowhood, that is to say, if the grandfather or grandmother has no son living then under the same conditions.

D.) The eldest grandson, or if he already serves in the army, the next grandson to him.

All these exemptions, however, take place only when the father or the mother, and, as the case may be, the grandfather or grandmother of the person liable to the conscription are still living.

If however the children themselves live in indigence, and cannot spare anything from their pittance for their parents, they cannot be legally required to support them. The son who is himself in straitened circumstances may take his father into his house, and let him share his table, but if the son's property is not sufficient for this, he must be excused, and he is not legally bound almost to die of hunger himself in order to support his father.

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OBLIGATION OF THE STATE TO SUPPORT THE POOR.

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*Of the Communities.**

§ 39. He who cannot derive the necessities of life either from his property, his labour or his trade, nor be supported by his nearest relations and other persons, who (according to § 31 seq.) are bound to it by private right, has a claim on the support of the (political or civil) community in which (according to § 5, 6, 7.) he has the right of a burgher or settled non-freeman.

In times of particular distress, not only those who are absolutely poor, but those also who are indeed not without property, but, by the unfavourable circumstances of the times, are rendered incapable of providing the necessities of life for themselves and their children, have a right to require from the communities of which they are members, the necessary support. Thus in the year of scarcity in 1817, the spiritual and temporal overseers of the communities were expressly made responsible by the Government, that none of those who were confided to their superintendence and care should be exposed to suffer want, with the threat, that if, for want of care on the part of the overseers, any person should perish, the guilty should be prosecuted with all the rigour of the law.

If a person belonging to one or more communities (§ 6, 7.) has need of public support, the share to be borne by each is determined by the Government authorities, having respect to the merely personal or family connexion with the several communities.

Each of the three religious persuasions prevailing in the kingdom has indeed the full enjoyment of its poor fund. Poor members of the community, however, who belong to a religious persuasion different to that which prevails in the place, cannot however be denied the necessary relief from the poor fund of the place, on account of the difference of religion.

Of the Bailiwick Corporations.

§ 40. If a community has so many poor, or is so limited in its resources, that it is not in a condition properly to support its poor, the *other communities of the bailiwick, particularly the towns, so far as they are better able and have few or no poor*, are bound by the law to assist such a poor community with their alms. A general obligation of the bailiwick corporation to assist those communities of the bailiwicks which are not able to afford the necessary assistance to their poor inhabitants, is not ordained by the laws, unless such assistance is to the interest of the bailiwick corporation as such.

In the year 1817, however, the bailiwick corporations were enjoined, so long as the dearth lasted, and with reference to old laws, in case that single communities should be unable sufficiently to provide for all the inhabitants, to give them credit so far as to answer either partly or entirely for the debt, but always with the reservation of repayment by the receivers of the aid. And with respect to the support of the formerly homeless poor, which are in the sequel assigned to a community (§ 6, 7.) it is expressly ordered, that if the assignment is founded on one of the titles to a right of settlement enumerated under A., B., C., the community against which the right is established is to bear only one-third, and the whole of the bailiwick the other two-thirds; but if the assignment is founded on one of the titles enumerated under D., E., F., G., the whole bailiwick has to take upon itself this support. The expense which is hereby incurred by a bailiwick constitutes an object of what is called *amtsvergleichung*, and is imposed on the whole old and new rateable *Cadastre* of the bailiwick.

Of the Duty of the State.

§ 41. The public Exchequer affords indeed (see above, § 11-17.), partly on account of the previous sequestration of the church property and of some other funds and revenues destined for pious and charitable purposes, and partly without any such special legal ground, contributions for the foundation and support of various public beneficent institutions, and it sometimes assists single bailiwicks, communities and individuals in particular cases, by contributions for charitable purposes. But a general obligation of the public Exchequer to intervene in case of the inability of the communities or bailiwicks, is nowhere enacted in the laws of Wurtemberg, and is also not recognized by the Government, because too great liberality on its part, and the grant of a distinct head of expenditure for this purpose, as in general the transferring of local burthens to the public Exchequer, might lead to very extensive consequences, and might gradually give rise to always increasing claims, which, in the impossibility of ranging single cases under general points of view, it might not be always possible successfully to meet.

The support of poor Jews, without any distinction between burghers and settled non-freemen, is indeed, in the first place, the duty of the Jewish community to which the pauper belongs; if however such a community is so poor that it is unable wholly or in part to defray the expense, in this case the civil community to which the poor Jew belongs has to take upon itself two-thirds, and the Jewish central fund one-third of what is wanting.

Amount of Relief to the Poor.

§ 42. What is *necessary* for a poor person or a poor family, and how much such a person or family may require for their *necessary support*, is not expressed in the laws of Wurtemberg; on

* The word "*Gemeinde*" here and elsewhere translated by "*Community*" might perhaps in some instances be rendered by "*District*," and in others by "*Parish*," but is more like the French *Commune*.

on the contrary, the answer to this question is left to the judgment of the magistrate in every particular case. In fact it is not well susceptible of a general answer, because the wants of men are so very different, according to their constitutions and inclinations and the means of satisfying these wants depend too much on personal, local and temporary circumstances.

The experience of how much each person, on an average, costs in the barracks, prisons, poorhouses, houses of education, &c., cannot serve as a sure guide in this respect; because where so many persons live together, many things are cheaper and many dearer than in the case of an individual or a family living alone.

A rather surer criterion in this respect may be afforded us by accurately observing the privations to which a poor person or family, living independently without external aid, submits voluntarily or of necessity, without being actually reduced to starvation; and an investigation of the minimum which such an individual or family actually wants in a year upon an average.

Yet even this question is very difficult to answer, for such people do not know how to estimate in money the commodities which they use, keep no account, set nothing down, and do not themselves know what they use. We know very well, that a very small house or a part of a house, such as people of this description often possess and inhabit with a family, which is often pretty numerous, for which they must sometimes pay, besides the tax, 6, 8 or 10 *f.* in ground rent, often does not cost above 100 to 200 *f.* to build or to buy; or that such families, when they lodge with another poor family, often do not pay above 10, 12, 15 or 20 *f.*, and poor individuals not more than 4 or 5 *f.* annual house rent. We know that they seldom possess a feather bed, but content themselves with chaff, moss, hay or straw; and at the most have a miserable covering with feathers collected by themselves, or some old pillows purchased for a trifle at auctions. We know that their clothing costs them very little, (perhaps not 25 *fl.* in the year for a whole family,) because they often do with cast-off clothes which are given them, or which they purchase very cheap, or go from one year's end to another in clothes made of tick, or even in rags and barefoot. We know that the doctor and apothecary cost them but little, because they call in a doctor but in the utmost need. We know that the religious instruction and schooling of their children costs them very little, because the ecclesiastics and the schoolmasters are paid by the public; the school-money for each child does not amount to more than from 1 to 2 *fl.* a year, and as few school-books as possible are bought; we know that with such people food is the chief expense. But all this again depends very much upon circumstances of time and place; and besides a single person or a family, according to their individual wants and inclinations, requires more or less, sometimes under one head of expense, sometimes under another.

§ 43. Thus it appears almost impossible to learn in this way the average consumption of an independent poor person or family; we must rather (to have at least some ground to go upon) go further back and inquire how much such people, on an average, *receive*. But even this inquiry is very difficult, because the receipts of most of the independent poor flow from very various sources, while the custom of piece-work, where it is applicable, as well in agricultural as domestic work; because those who work for daily, weekly or yearly wages, seldom receive money alone, but for the most part, besides their wages, have their board; because in general, the receipt of such people consists partly in money and partly in commodities; because they do not know how to estimate the value of these commodities, and do not write down or say what they know. The following data may however perhaps in some measure serve as a guide.

A.) A grown-up *female*—

a.) By spinning and ordinary knitting can seldom gain more than 4, 6 or 8 *kr.* daily; by finer knitting, embroidery, lace-making and other such female work, which are paid by the piece, can seldom gain more than from 10 to 25 *kr.* one day with another.

b.) A sempstress receives, in the country in small places, from 4 to 6 *kr.*, in larger places and towns, from 12 to 15 *kr.*; in the capital, a dressmaker, an ironer, a plaiter, from 24, 36, 48 *kr.* daily, besides board.

c.) A washerwoman or charwoman receives in the country only 8, 10, 12, 15 to 18 *kr.*; in the capital, 36 *kr.* daily with board, or without board, from 1 *fl.* to 1 *fl.* 12 *kr.*

d.) A maid servant receives, in money and money's worth, annually, besides board, in the country only 16, 18, 20 to 24 *fl.*; in the capital, 24, 30, 36 to 40 *fl.*; to which, according to circumstances, vails are to be added, especially in the capital.

B.) A *male* adult receives, namely,—

a.) A journeyman workman—

aa.) In the country, with the shoemakers and tailors, 20, 24 to 30 *kr.*; with the bakers, 48 *kr.* to 1 *fl.*; with the smiths, 48 *kr.* to 1 *fl.* 12 *kr.*; with calenders and tanners, 48 *kr.* to 2 *fl.* weekly, with board; a journeyman carpenter or bricklayer, from 30 to 36 *kr.* daily, with bread and something to drink.

bb.) In the capital, with board, from 1 *fl.* 12 *kr.* to 2 *fl.* 42 *kr.* weekly; without board 36 *kr.* to 1 *fl.* daily; on Sunday, nothing.

b.) A man servant receives in the country, 20, 30, 36 to 40 *fl.*; in the capital, 50, 60 *fl.* and more per annum, with board.

c.) A farmer's labourer or other day-labourer in the country, 12, 15, 18, 20 to 24 *kr.* daily, with board, or, instead of the latter, 10 or 12 *kr.* in money; in the capital, in winter, from 24 to 30 *kr.*; in summer, from 36 to 48 *kr.*, for every thing.

d.) A wood-cleaver can gain daily in all only from 20 to 24, and at the most, 30 *kr.*

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All these rates of wages rise or fall according as the work requires more or less dexterity or exertion, as the individual workman is more or less distinguished by skill, strength or diligence, as the scarcity and the supply of workmen is greater or less, as the days are longer or shorter, &c.

§ 44. Many *sempstresses*, *embroideresses*, live, however, exclusively on the above remuneration for their work, without, it is true, saving any thing, but enough to purchase a bed or a few things to begin housekeeping, but yet without suffering hunger or making debts. At Saulgan, three grown-up sisters support not only themselves but their parents, who, on account of their great age and infirmity, are totally incapable of work, that is to say, five persons, by embroidering muslin, by which each gains daily from 10 to 12 *kr.*, that is altogether 3 *fl.* or 5 *s.* sterling a week, or from 150 to 175 *fl.* a year; and with this they do not deny themselves any thing essential in eating and drinking, dress respectably, &c.

The *journeymen workmen* do not often save any thing of their wages, because the most of them consider that as saved which they expend in purchasing many and good clothes, and because they are fond of visiting public-houses, especially on Sundays, though they have with their masters good food, namely, in the capital, in the morning, coffee, 2 *kr.* worth of white bread, or, instead of the coffee, a quart of cider and a pound of bread; at dinner, every day, vegetables and meat; in the evening, soup, potatoes and two ounces of butter; in some trades they have besides a quart of cider and bread. There are, however, instances of journeymen tanners, for example, that receive high weekly wages, who annually save as much as 50 *fl.* out of them.*

With respect to *servants*, however, both male and female, in the capital and in the country, it very frequently happens that they save out of their wages, especially if they receive many vails, 20, 30, 50 *fl.* and more every year, which they deposit in the Savings Bank at Stuttgart (§ 47).

Day-labourers, if they are unmarried, may likewise easily save part of their wages. Many of them lay by as much as the half; even a married day-labourer, who has not more than one or two children, can even, though he should save nothing, very well maintain his family by his wages; many of them live very respectably upon them. In the district called *Auf der Bahr*, for instance, every day-labourer regularly kills a hog every year, either alone or in conjunction with others, and has meat through the winter. In the Black Forest every woodcutter in like manner constantly eats meat, drinks wine, and in general denies himself nothing. Other day-labourers, who have fewer opportunities of obtaining constant work, or who have large families, must indeed live more frugally. A poor woodcutter at Delmensingen, in the bailiwick of Wiblingen, for instance, puts in the morning a slice of bread in his pocket, and is happy if he can drink a small glass of brandy with it, and in the evening finds a dish of warm vegetables when he comes home; during the whole week he does not taste meat, and often not even on Sunday. A poor tailor at Saugau, whose business does not afford him the means, supports by day labour himself, his wife and eight children, who, on account of their youth or attendance at school, can earn little or nothing, that is, ten persons, without incurring debts and without support from others, except perhaps a few articles of clothing which are given them as presents. The work on which he is employed is chiefly woodcutting and (*stumpengraben*,†) by which he earns, one day with another, at the most, 24 kreutzers, or 120 florins per annum. These people take, in the morning, soup; then the man goes into the forest, takes with him brandy to the value of 1½ kreutzer, and black bread, for 2 kreutzers; and in the evening sups with his family, who, during the day, have had potatoes, or *garlic*‡ and herbs, or some other vegetable, or perhaps potatoes again. These people taste meat at the most sometimes on Sundays; never wine or beer.

Not much better than this woodcutter's family, lives the family of a farmer at Saulgau, consisting of a husband and wife and three or four children. He possesses about four acres of arable land, two and a half pastures and two cows; only this family is perhaps able to kill a hog in the winter.

In other country towns also, for instance Rentlingen, there is many a poor *citizen's family* which, without applying on that account for public relief, eats every day in the morning potatoes; at noon, potatoes, seldom garlic (*knopflen*‡), sometimes half a pound of meat; in the evening milk and potatoes, but never wine, cider or beer; and in which the father dresses only in tick, and often does not even possess a coat. In the little town of Forchtenberg, many poor citizens, particularly vinedressers, often have not a bit of bread in their house for months together, especially when corn is dear, but live entirely on potatoes and curdled milk, without, on that account, applying for relief.

At Burgberg, in the bailiwick of Heidenheim, the schoolmaster, with a wife and seven children, lives without any other income or assistance upon an annual salary of 200 florins at the most, and rent-free. These people are respectably dressed, but their diet is of the poorest description. In the morning the parents often eat nothing, the children perhaps some weak broth; at noon, some farinaceous or vegetable meal; in the evening, potatoes or milk, most rarely meat.

The

* One florin = 60 kreutzers = 20 pence.

† The word seems to be "*Stumpengraben*," which may mean grubbing up the stumps of trees which have been felled.

‡ "*Knopflen*."—This word is not to be found in any dictionary; it is supposed to be *garlic*.

The Mode of relieving the Poor.

§ 45. With the great diversity of the means which are applied in Wurtemberg to the relief of the poor, the Government always abides by the fundamental principle,—

As far as possible to afford the poor man opportunity to *gain his own livelihood*, by the application of his own resources and abilities, and to induce him conscientiously to make use of this opportunity in a manner not injurious to the public.

Exemption of the Poor from certain Restrictions and Obligations.

§ 46. The poor enjoy for this purpose in Wurtemberg certain *immunities* and *privileges*, which, however, as the English Government has not expressly inquired about them, are here but slightly noticed.

Among these are, for instance,—

- A.) Certain privileges of the poor with respect to the acquiring the rights of citizenship;
- B.) The exemption of the poor from military service in certain particular cases (§ 37, 38.);
- C.) Their exemption from feudal service in certain particular cases, and the exemption of widows from having soldiers quartered on them;
- D.) Certain privileges of the poor in respect to the payment of the house tax, personal tax, property tax, excise, fees, stamp duties, postage, fees for testimonials and the affixing the seal to the same, and the exemption from tithes, ground rent, &c., which are conceded to them in cases of extraordinary misfortune, such as failure of the crops, frost, hail, inundations, fire, &c.;
- E.) The restriction of the liability of gratuities and pension to be taken for debt;
- F.) Certain privileges of the poor when their effects are sold by auction;
- G.) The gratuitous conducting of lawsuits for the poor;
- H.) The gratuitous defence of the poor implicated in a criminal investigation;
- I.) The right of the poor to work off or to be excused from the costs of criminal proceedings and prison fees which they are sentenced to pay;
- K.) Their right to the commutation, working off or remittance of fines, &c. &c.

Protection of the Poor against the Loss and Waste of their Savings.

§ 47. In order to give the poor the inclination and the opportunity to turn to good account the little which they possess and earn, to put out to interest without risk even the smallest savings, in this manner to lay by a trifle for the time of need, and always to be able to get it back with the interest when they want it, there is, in the capital city of Stuttgart,—

A.) For servants of every description, for the military who receive daily pay, for those who work for daily or weekly wages, for those in general who are employed in meaner services or who support themselves by manual labour of an inferior nature, for children of such persons and orphans who cannot be educated from the income of their property, and in general for all those who enjoy more or less support from public funds or would be entitled to claim it, without distinction, whether they are subjects of Wurtemberg or have only resided a long time in the country, the *Wurtemberg Bank of Savings*, which was originally founded by Her Majesty the late Queen Catharine, with the approbation of the Government, and after the death of the august Patroness, placed under the especial protection of His Majesty King William; and —

B.) For persons who are not allowed to take part in this public bank of savings, but who would willingly lay by and put out to advantage something out of their moderate income for particular purposes against misfortunes, &c., there is a separate *Private Saving Fund*. Considering the difficulty of finding opportunities of placing out the money in a safe and proportionably advantageous manner, and the difficulty of the management, which increases with the extent of the administration, the directors of these two institutions are desirous that separate *district savings banks* may be gradually established in the several bailiwicks; and the more so, as only district institutions of this kind would find it possible to unite with them a loan fund, out of which necessitous inhabitants of the districts might obtain loans upon interest, upon not burdensome securities, without exposing the institution itself to risk; in fact, a beginning has already been made, with good success, in some districts, with the establishment of such district and loan funds.

Education of poor Children under Fourteen Years of Age.

§ 48. However,

A.) Poor children, when they are left to their parents or relations, or to themselves, are too frequently exposed to the danger of becoming deformed, both in body and mind, of addicting themselves to idleness and beggary, and of so habituating themselves to these and other bad ways that no subsequent education is able to eradicate them.

(B.) It is a matter of experience, that men who, from their youth upwards, have been devoted to idleness and beggary, and have not been accustomed, from their childhood, to industry and perseverance, and acquired a certain, at least a general, skill in manual employments, and become sufficiently inured to them, cannot, for the most part, when they arrive at maturer years, and have full powers of body and mind, be made by the most rigorous constraint, industrious, diligent and skilful, or qualified even for the coarsest manual labour. Nay, even,—

C.) From the adult poor, the gaining of their own livelihood is, on the whole, only to be expected when, free from bodily and mental defects, they possess a certain degree of corporal

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and intellectual powers, and have been accustomed, from early childhood, to make a proper use of those powers.

D.) The keeping of poor children from idleness and beggary, the gaining them over to religious behaviour and morality, the early accustoming them to frugality, cleanliness, order, punctuality, industry and perseverance, the qualifying and inuring them to manual labour in general, and instructing them in works by which they may, in the sequel, be able to gain their own livelihood, is therefore the only condition, by the fulfilling of which we can prevent these young people from becoming subsequently, for their whole life, a burden to the community, and infinitely increasing the number of families of idlers and mendicants.

The education of poor children is, especially in modern times, one of the main objects to which the authorities entrusted with the direction of the affairs of the poor of Wurtemberg fix their attention, and as this education can have a complete and permanent influence when it is commenced in the first years of childhood, they are more and more desirous of beginning it as early as possible.

Infant Schools.

§ 49. To what dangers to their bodies, morals and understanding are not the little children of poor persons exposed who are not yet old enough for the ordinary schools, whose parents follow idleness and beggary; and also the children of indigent persons, who even if they are able and willing, and have the opportunity of earning by their labour a livelihood for themselves and children, yet, as, for instance, the vinedressers and other field-labourers, day-labourers, wood-cleavers, washerwomen, female water-carriers, market women, workmen in manufactories, &c., are obliged, by their business, to pass the whole day, or at least part of the day, from home, or, like the wives of poor tradespeople, must assist the husband in his business. While these poor infants are at the same time deprived of the enjoyment of the happiest years of their life, their older brothers or sisters, to whose care they are entrusted, are thereby kept away from school, and conscientious parents, who themselves attend to their little children, are thus hindered from earning their necessary subsistence; and lazy parents find herein an excuse to spare themselves the trouble of working for their livelihood, and to make a claim on public charity.

§ 50. In order to counteract, and at the same time to develop and prepare the body and minds of such poor little children, a private society founded, a few years ago, in the capital city of Stuttgart, an *Infant School*, consisting of two divisions in different quarters of the city, and has hitherto been maintained chiefly by voluntary contributions. In this school all poor children of the city belonging to the above class, both boys and girls, who have not passed their sixth year, are received every day, with the exception of Sundays and holidays, in the forenoon from seven or eight till twelve, and in the afternoon from one till six or seven o'clock. They are under the care of some women who have been instructed for this express purpose, and amused, partly in the house, partly in the open air, by games, pictures of natural history, &c., and accustomed to carefulness in going and returning through the streets, to obedience, order, punctuality, cleanliness, good behaviour, &c. They are at times also employed in easy work, such as knitting, &c., and prepared, by conversations, counting and other exercises of the memory and understanding suitable to their tender age, for the subsequent proper elementary instruction.

Such infant schools have also been commenced by private associations in several other large and small towns.

In order partly to assist in defraying the expense, and partly to render the institution more popular, children who are not poor are allowed to participate on payment of a small monthly contribution, or they are confined to the summer season, in which the want of such an institution is more felt in the country than in winter. As the experiments hitherto made have not only answered but exceeded all expectation, it is in contemplation gradually to extend these establishments through the country.

Elementary Schools.

§ 51. For older children, from the age of 6 to 14, there has long existed in Wurtemberg in every, even the smallest community, supported chiefly at the expense of the local church estate and community fund, and of the parents, with the co-operation, however, of the public treasury, a *German or elementary school*, which all children of that age, both boys and girls, must attend, and in which, with the exception of short holidays during the time of haymaking, harvest and vintage, they receive throughout the year every day, with the exception of Sundays and holidays, in winter for five and in summer for at least two hours, instruction in religion, morality, singing, the German language, reading, writing, arithmetic and the elements of natural philosophy, natural history, geography and history. In summer, in consideration of the work in the fields, the instruction is given as much as possible in the morning; and at the season when the labours of the field are the most urgent, and in cases of great poverty, an exception is made in favour of those children, where it is required, who, on application, are excused two or three times a week from coming to school. With this exception, every illegal neglect of school is punished by a fine of two or three kreutzers, and if the neglect of attending is continued, from four to six kreutzers; and no child, even if it has completed the 14th year, is suffered to leave the elementary school till it has acquired sufficient knowledge of what is taught there. Besides this, in order that even the poorest children may participate in these elementary schools, there are in some of the larger towns, for instance, Stuttgart and Ulm, separate free schools (poor schools) for them, and in the other places their school money, school books, &c. are paid for out of the local fund.

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In what are called the *Latin schools*, which exist in most of the towns, and which are chiefly intended for boys of the better classes, as well as in the *lyceums* and *gymnasiums* in the larger towns, poor boys are also permitted to receive gratuitous instruction, and, if necessary, the requisite schools are also provided for them at the public expense; and in like manner 18 or 20 girls of the less opulent class are gratuitously admitted to receive instruction at the institution called the "Catharinen Stift," founded for the education of girls of the better classes.

Schools of Industry for Children.

§ 52. As, however, many poor children endeavour notwithstanding to avoid attending the elementary schools, and in all cases the instruction in these elementary schools occupies only the smaller portion of the day, so that those poor children who are not properly attended and employed by their parents have still plenty of time for idleness and beggary; attempts have latterly been made in some places to put such children under special superintendence, and, for instance, by appointing a guardian for each poor child in the person of an overseer or other public officer of the community, or of a neighbour, who has to observe it every where, at home, at work, at play; or by periodical general summons to the several parents; or by periodical visitations in the houses of the poor families, especially of those who are suspected of not paying proper attention to the education of their children; or by the periodical exhibition of the work done at home; or by the public performance of some work as a specimen; or by gratuitously providing the poor children with tools and materials; by the distribution of rewards among the most diligent and skilful of the children; and by exhorting, summoning and punishing negligent parents;—by these means to acquire the certainty that such children are kept to the constant attendance of the church and school and to doing their tasks; that they are sufficiently employed in a suitable manner; that they are not ill-treated, either by being overworked or by unmerited corporal chastisement; that they are not neglected with respect to clothing and cleanliness; and that they are not abandoned to idleness, beggary and other vices, &c.

§ 53. In other places, a few poor children have in latter times been confided to one or more persons experienced in useful works, sempstresses, embroideresses and knitters, to be instructed in their own houses at the public expense, or at least care is taken by the magistrates that there shall not be wanting in the place itself persons capable of giving instruction in such works.

But properly, according to the laws, the poor children are every where to be kept and instructed in common, in a public establishment, gratuitously, in useful works of this description, and it is expressly laid down, that a school of work or industry shall be attached to every elementary school. Hitherto, however, this regulation has not been carried into effect in many places, and it will probably never be generally executed, because the incurring of the expenses connected with the founding and support of a public school of industry could hardly be justified in many cases; for instance, in places where the inhabitants themselves are very industrious, and the poor children are employed at home in manufactures and other mechanical works, or where the children are from their childhood employed to assist their parents in their business and their domestic and agricultural occupations, or lastly, in places where there are few or no absolutely poor families. But in those places, where there is a great number of poor children neglected by their parents, and where on that account a public school of industry is really wanted, such establishments have been founded and hitherto maintained, partly so far back as the last half of the 18th century, but chiefly since the year 1817, by the exertions of the Charitable Union. In general it cannot be overlooked that the interest taken in them by the magistrates and the public is daily increasing, and there is every reason to expect that the establishment of schools of industry will be more and more extended.

§ 54. The existing Schools of Industry are often attended, not only by the Christian, but also by the Jewish children, not only by the poor, but those that are better off; which latter circumstance, so long as the number of the scholars is not disproportioned to the strength of the masters or mistresses, and the size of the room, makes the institution more popular, and helps to defray the expense, because the children who are not poor always bring their own materials, and also pay a small sum to the establishment.

There are, indeed, on the other side, still many Schools of Industry which are not attended, at least not regularly enough, even by all the poor children who need instruction, partly because the masters and mistresses are not equal to the management of a greater number of children, or there is not room enough for more, or the requisite means are wanting for extending the establishment, and partly because the parents prefer employing the children in their own domestic and field labours, or to hire them out to attend cattle, or take care of children, or even to send them out begging. Such parents generally excuse themselves by alleging that they want their children to gain their livelihood, that the School of Industry, even if it procures their children the necessary materials at the expense of the establishment, and pays for their work suitable wages, or, instead of that, even gives up the work gratuitously, does not afford them a sufficient remuneration; that the children, particularly in bad weather, have not the necessary clothing, especially shoes, to attend the Schools of Industry, and that they cannot possibly attend the establishment unless it provides them with food, particularly living at too great a distance from the school, cannot return home at noon. Arrangements, it is true, have already been made, with good success in many places, partly by voluntary contributions of the rich inhabitants, partly at the expense of the local public funds, partly at that of the bailiwick corporation, and lastly at that of the

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Central Board of the Charitable Union, that such children receive, in the Schools of Industry, the necessary clothing, and on every working-day, from half a pound to two pounds of bread, and in some places even a warm dinner. But it has not hitherto been possible to obtain the necessary funds for introducing this regulation every where that it might be wanted.

The worst, however, is, that while the poor boys, on account of their greater bodily strength and forwardness, are in general much more inclined to beg than the girls, and as we hear there are far more male than female criminals in the penal establishments, it has hitherto happened, that it is the attendance of the *boys* in the schools of industry which it has been practicable to enforce only in a few places, chiefly because it appears to be extremely difficult, in Wurtemberg at least, to find suitable employment for them. (See § 63.)

§ 55. Another imperfection of the Wurtemberg schools of industry hitherto, is, that in many of them, indeed, especially in the towns, the instruction continues *throughout the year*, and only part of these permanent establishments is closed during the sheep-shearing, hay-making, fruit-gathering, and harvest, in general when agricultural labour is the most urgent; but that the number of these schools of industry is still greater, especially in the villages, which are open only in the *winter months*, or at least are frequented only in those months by a great number of children. This is very much to be regretted, because it is just in summer that the better weather and better roads give the children more temptation and more opportunity for idleness and begging; and the limitation of the elementary schools to a few hours in the morning (see § 51.) leaves them to themselves, while it is precisely in the summer months that the school-rooms are least wanted for the elementary schools, and might therefore be best employed for the schools of industry, the expenses of warming and lighting them would be spared; and the masters and mistresses of the schools of industry are most of them poor people, too weak for field labour, and consequently not hindered by them, like many masters of the elementary schools, from giving instruction. But the overseers in those places in which the schools of industry are confined to the winter, say the children of the better class of people, are too much engaged during the greater part of the summer in field and domestic employments, and even the children of the poor are so much occupied, while the parents are at work for daily wages, in taking care of the children, house-work, attending the cattle, collecting fodder, or even assisting in field labour, nay, even in the autumn, in gathering in the harvest, winnowing, heckling flax and hemp, that they cannot attend the schools of industry.

There are also schools of industry, in which the instruction is given only in the *summer months*, and the overseers of such places say, in winter people want their children at home in those hours which the elementary instruction, which is longer in that season (see § 51.), leaves them, to spin their own or other people's flax and hemp, on which they set more value than on knitting and other works; for the same reason the teachers in these schools of industry have in winter less time to devote to the school; that besides the days are too short in the winter for the work in the schools of industry; that the heating and lighting the schools would cost too much; that a place is wanting in the winter, &c.

§ 56. In many places the school of industry is open *every day* in the week, with the exception of Sundays and holidays only, and in some places they even work on holidays, at least for half a day. In such places as the elementary schools are in summer, open only in the forenoon, and even in winter regularly break up in the afternoon at two or three o'clock at the latest, sufficient time has been found, before and after the school hours, for instructing and exercising the children in work. But in many places the school of industry is connected with the elementary school, and such a division of the lessons has been made, that the children, who are divided into different, generally three, classes, are alternately instructed and exercised now in the usual branches of elementary instruction, now in works of hand.

This arrangement is attended with no difficulty, in those cases especially in which the school of industry can have a room in the same building in which the elementary school is held. There are, however, places where, for want of a separate room, the school of industry is carried on in the same apartment as the elementary school, only on separate forms, and where the pupils, while they are receiving elementary instruction, if it does not happen to be instruction in religion, or they do not want their hands to write, do some work, for instance, knitting, at the same time. In some of these places, however, the school of industry remains closed on fair-days, wood-day and vacation-days.

In some places, too, *fewer days* are devoted to the school of industry *in summer than in winter*; but there are others again in which the contrary is the case, and in which, in summer at least, the *rainy days* are used in addition to the usual industry school days, as such. Lastly, there is a place in which the number of days in the week for attending the school of industry is fixed, but *the days themselves undetermined*, in order to be able to choose them at all times, according to circumstances. But in far the greater number of the schools of industry, instruction is given only on the two half holidays, generally Wednesday and Saturday afternoon, because in the smaller communities there is generally no separate place to be obtained for the school of industry, and consequently the elementary schoolroom must serve for it, and this is not free, except on the two half holidays.

Hence it is only in some places that the industry school continues for six, seven, eight or nine hours together on each working day (but only on the whole, not for each separate class of children). In some places the number of working hours in summer is greater, in others less than in winter; but as a general rule, it amounts on each working day to one, one and a half, two, and at the most to three, four and five hours.

§ 57. The

§ 57. The *employment of the children* in these schools of industry consists indeed, especially in the villages, for the most part only in ordinary female works for the use of the scholars themselves and their families, such as spinning, sewing, knitting, &c.; but in very many schools of industry, besides these usual works, many others are introduced, according to local circumstances. Besides these works, it is the custom in several such schools during the work to sing and pray with the children; instructive stories are told them, and extracts from the Bible, or from moral works and other writings for young people, are read and explained. They are made acquainted with the rules of the German language, and with subjects of natural history; they are made to learn something by heart, or to reckon off-hand, and otherwise to exercise their understanding. In several places instruction in drawing is connected with the school of industry, and in those of the capital city of Stuttgart the children receive besides, special auxiliary instruction in reading, writing, arithmetic, the German language, scripture history and singing.

With the increase in the number of such public schools of industry and of the scholars who attend them, it becomes indeed more and more difficult to make use of them as a means of affording considerable pecuniary advantage to the children and their families; but they prove more and more to be an excellent means to keep the children from begging, idleness and neglecting the elementary school, to accustom them to order and cleanliness, to excite in them a sense of religion, morality and industry; to accustom them to diligence, punctuality and obedience in their work; and, at least in general, to qualify and inure them to works of hand, by which they may in the sequel, in maturer years, more easily gain their livelihood, or at least earn something, and occasionally save themselves an expense.

§ 58. The smallest number of these schools of industry have a *fund* of their own. The expense attending their foundation and support is, on the contrary, defrayed in most of them, partly by the profits of the work of the scholars themselves and small sums paid as school-money by those among them who can afford it, partly by other voluntary contributions of the inhabitants of the place, partly by assistance from the local church and community fund, and lastly, by grants from the Central Board of the Charitable Union.

Private Boarding Houses for Poor Children.

§ 59. However, the mere care for providing superintendence, employment and instruction is not all that is required in the case of poor children who have either no parents, or, what is frequently the case, especially with illegitimate children and those of vagrants, parents and other relations bound to maintain and educate them, so poor, weak or immoral, that their education cannot be entrusted to them without fear for the future welfare of the children themselves, and for the public tranquillity and security, or whose parents, for instance, soldiers, itinerant dealers, prisoners, are long absent from their home. In the case of such *unprotected children*, care must therefore be taken by the public authorities to provide them with lodging, clothing and food, and, in case of sickness, with the necessary medical attendance, medicine and nursing; the public authorities must therefore entirely provide for their physical, religious, moral, intellectual, industrious education.

It was formerly frequently the case that such children were taken in by all the members of their community from house to house, by the day or by the week. However as the object is but very imperfectly attained in this manner, there exists in most places, partly for a long time since, but for the most part only of late, the arrangement that such children are placed in certain private houses with people of good character for a continuance.

In many places such poor children are taken in gratuitously, not only by relations, but also by strangers. As a general rule, however, money is paid for the board of such children received in private houses. Almost in every village there are now at least one or two, and in many large and small towns 10, 20, 30 or 40 children placed in private houses, whose board is paid sometimes by the families of the children or individual benefactors, but for the most part out of the church and other local funds of their community, and but seldom out of the fund of the bailiwick corporation. Two hundred poor and unprotected children of all religious denominations and from all parts of the kingdom are boarded in private houses at the expense of the orphan asylums (§ 61). For the care of unprotected Jewish children, whose number is proportionably greater than that of unprotected Christian children, a separate association was formed a few years ago, which, by collecting voluntary contributions, has placed a number of such children, for their maintenance and education, with worthy families in the country, chiefly Jewish schoolmasters, who receive an annual sum for their board.

Public Houses of Education for Poor Children.

§ 60. In many poor children, however,—

A.) The physical, intellectual and moral weakness, infirmity and corruption has already attained such a degree, especially in the larger towns, where poor children are besides more exposed than elsewhere to temptations of various kinds, that the ordinary private mode of education is no longer sufficient to save them from total ruin; but for a time at least, a more careful attendance, closer inspection and stricter treatment are necessary.

B.) Many children, even though their own corruption is not gone so far, are yet so much exposed, when placed in private houses, to the seductions of wicked parents, relations, &c., that, even with the utmost good will of the foster parents, the intended object cannot be attained.

C.) Very often, too, the foster parents to whom such children are confided for their education,

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education, do not fulfil the duties they have undertaken, partly from want of good will and from interested motives, partly through want of the necessary judgment and of physical and moral energy; many expect them to make exertions which are out of proportion with their physical strength; nay, there are instances of such children having been actually trained and kept, by wicked foster parents, to begging, lying, cheating and theft.

D.) Lastly, when the physical and moral corruption of the parents and children has reached a certain degree, it is often not possible to find honest people who will take such children into their houses, even when good payment is offered them for it.

Accordingly, the necessity has long been felt of providing public houses of education for such poor children who are either already unprotected and corrupt, or at least in imminent danger of being abandoned and corrupted, besides the education of part of them in private boarding houses.

Public Houses of Education.

§ 61. There have existed, in fact, in the Kingdom of Wurtemberg, for more than a hundred years, two orphan houses for the children of soldiers, vagrants and others, of both sexes, and every religious denomination, and from the whole country, who have lost their parents, or at least one of them, especially the father, in which a considerable number of such children are brought up gratuitously, partly by means of the property belonging to the houses themselves and by voluntary private donations, partly from particular revenues assigned to them, and at the expense of the State.

The children of persons of the better class who are destitute of resources, are sometimes received, boarded and educated gratuitously, by the special favour of His Majesty, in the *Catharine Asylum* at Stuttgard, which was founded in the year 1818 for the instruction and education of young ladies.

Lastly, there is an establishment for the maintenance and education of *deaf and dumb*, and *blind* children, of both sexes, which was founded in the year 1807, at the expense of the State, with a small subsidiary establishment, in which poor children of this class are received gratuitously.

Community, Bailiwick and Private Houses of Education.

§ 62. In these Public Houses of Education, however, only children who are above seven years old, and are in good health, are received, and they are adapted only for a limited number, which is in no case large enough to admit into a public house of education all the children in the whole country who are in want of it. Now such of these children as could not be received into a public orphan house were, indeed, formerly admitted in general into the *hospital* or other public *poor-house* of the place (§ 89 seq.), which sometimes happens even now. But as the object is very imperfectly attained in consequence of the very dangerous communications for the health and morals of the children which take place in such houses, with grown-up persons of bad principles, there have been founded, in latter times, in fifteen places in different parts of the country, separate *community*, *bailiwick* and *private houses of education (refuges)* for *unprotected children*, each of which is adapted to receive only 12, 30, 50, up to 78 children, and in some of which none but children from the town in which the institution is situated, are admitted, but in others, children from the other towns belonging to the bailiwick, or from other bailiwicks, and even from foreign countries.

§ 63. Some of these community, bailiwick and private houses of education, are destined only for Protestant, others only for Catholic children; but in the greater number no difference is made on account of religion. In one of them only boys are admitted, in the others children of both sexes, but in most of them the number of the boys exceeds that of the girls (§ 54). Deaf and dumb, and blind children are admitted in only three of these houses, in which particular arrangements are made for giving them an education suitable to their circumstances; from the others, deaf and dumb, and blind children, or who are otherwise labouring under considerable bodily infirmity, are regularly excluded. One of these establishments is exclusively designed for *infants* from the cradle to the completion of their sixth year. In the others, the children are not admitted before their fifth or sixth year, for the most part from five to eight years old; one of them, however, receives, besides the older children, infants from one to six years of age. Children above ten years of age are admitted only as exceptions, when the danger of bad example which they might bring into the establishment is not too great, and there is still hope of some good effect from their education during their short stay in the institution. Only in the cases of deaf and dumb children these houses do not wish to receive them before their seventh year, and they are, for the most part, taken in between the ages of seven and twelve; past that age, only as exceptions to the rule. The pupils in these establishments are always *kept there* till they have completed their 14th or even their 15th year. Deaf and dumb children are, if possible, instructed so far that they may be confirmed, for which reason no fixed time can be named for their quitting the establishment.

§ 64. Only a few of these establishments have, besides their real property in land and building, and the effects in the latter, any *capital*. Several of them have, on the contrary, *debts* to the amount of some thousand florins, which, however, in no case exceed the value of their property. The means for founding these establishments are (besides the gratuitous grant of a site and some gifts of timber, without any charge to the public treasury) obtained partly by contributions from His Majesty the King, the Central Board of the Charitable Union, and of the church and community funds of the place and bailiwick, and partly by private donations and loans.

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To meet the current expenses of these establishments the sum of 36, 40 to 50 florins, and from deaf and dumb children 55 florins, is annually paid for the board of each child admitted either by the family or the community to which it belongs, and, according to the circumstances, money for clothing is also paid. This is, indeed, the general rule; but a great many children are received and educated for a very moderate remuneration, and many quite gratuitously, and the deficiency thus occasioned is provided for (with the exception of some contributions of wood for fuel, likewise without charge to the public treasury,) partly by support from the Central Board of the Charitable Union, and from the church and community funds of the place in which the institution is situated, partly by voluntary gifts of money and goods, among which the presents of His Majesty the King, and of other Members of the Royal Family, are the most distinguished, and by which, in particular, the members of private religious societies, both at home and abroad, and some ladies' societies, who assist these establishments with gifts of linen, stockings, &c. of their own manufacture, are honourably pre-eminent.

Public Houses for the Education of poor Children in general.

§ 65. With respect to the *physical* education of the children in these establishments, the buildings are throughout constructed in such a manner, that the children are sufficiently protected against all injurious influence of the weather. In the sleeping apartments the boys and girls are separated, and each child has its own separate sleeping-place, with a bed sufficiently, but not too warm. In summer the children are well dressed in linen, in winter in woollen. Their food consists, in the morning, of soup, dinner of vegetables, some farinaceous dish, or meat; in the evening, potatoes, or meat, or both together; between meals they have some bread. Separate apartments are fitted up for children who are ill; they have rather better beds, and are fed entirely according to the direction of the physician, and provided with all necessary medicines and attendance.

With respect to *morals*, it is indeed a matter of course that among so great a number of children, some of whom come into the institution so very much corrupted and neglected, some disagreeable occurrences are the less easy to be avoided, as, unfortunately, the fathers, mothers, and other near relations of the pupils, nay, even people from whom it could be less expected, exercise an influence over them which is dangerous to their morality. On the whole, however, but few of these children are, in their obstinate idleness and intractableness, unsusceptible of better impressions, and even the most corrupt are never to be despaired of if they are only entrusted early enough to the House of Education.

With respect to the cultivation of the understanding, the pupils of the community, bailiwick, and private houses of education, may be something behind those in the public institutions which have at their command ampler means to pay more and better masters; yet the former perform, in this respect at all events, as much as an ordinary German elementary school in a village.

With regard to habits of *industry*, on the contrary, however, the local, district and private houses of education seem to have this advantage over the public establishments, that the education in the former approaches more nearly to domestic life, and the pupils in them have more opportunity to learn and to practise, from their earliest age, so far as it can be done without injury to their health, domestic and agricultural labours, than is the case in the public institutions, or than is, indeed, possible in them, on account of their greater extent. In particular, the field-labour connected with many of these smaller houses of education affords the decided advantage, that whereas the pupils in the public establishments can, in general, be brought up only to domestic services and professions which require less bodily strength, in the others the young people are trained so as to become fit for various kinds of service, and particularly qualified and inured for agricultural employments, and for professions which demand more bodily strength.

Even for those pupils who in the sequel learn professions which require less bodily strength, these agricultural employments are very beneficial, because the masters in the country, where most of them settle, generally, besides their profession, employ some time in agriculture, and they are therefore far more serviceable to such masters. But even in general, these agricultural occupations cannot fail to have a very advantageous influence on the sleep, the growth, the health, and the whole physical education of the children; and it is doubtless with reason that the very inconsiderable mortality for which the community, bailiwick, and private houses of education are distinguished, is ascribed partly to the frequent employment and exercise of the pupils in the open air, as well as to the careful superintendence of them.

§ 66. It is true indeed, that, notwithstanding all these institutions, there are still, in many places, unprotected children enough remaining, to whom admission to a public establishment of education would be very advantageous, and many of these establishments could and would receive a greater number of pupils from their own, and even from other bailiwicks, if they were enabled, by sufficient contributions, to defray the expenses of the extended arrangements and the instruction of the children. But, partly, many communities, whose duty it chiefly would be to provide for them, especially for illegitimate children, sometimes refuse to do anything for them because they are apprehensive of encouraging immorality, and partly they really appear to be too poor to do what perhaps they would readily do if they were able.

Poor Youths and Girls above the Age of 14 Years.

§ 67. Partly to retain, by practice, what they have learnt in the elementary schools, and partly to promote the further improvement of the grown-up youth, a *Sunday School* is kept

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in every community in Wurtemberg, in the common school-room, where every youth and girl above 14 years of age in the Protestant places to their 18th, and in Catholic places to their 21st year, must go every Sunday, or where there is only one school-room, the youths and girls every Sunday alternately, and attend the lessons for at least an hour and a half, on pain of paying 4 kreutzers, and if the neglect is of long continuance, 6 kreutzers, for every time that they remain away. It may be added, that, according to the existing laws, more care has been lately taken that young persons of this age, unless they are wanted to assist their parents in their domestic and field-work, particularly those who are educated at the public expense, and the poor girls and youths discharged from the penal establishments, *do not remain at home with their families*, or, out of love to a more unrestrained way of life, endeavour to gain a livelihood as *Eigenbrödler*,* as they are called, merely by sewing, knitting, &c., but that they try either to engage as servants or learn a trade. Thus the Jewish Orphan Association (§ 59) has for its principal object to educate the poor boys brought up at its expense principally for some trade, according to their abilities and dispositions.

§ 68. In the case of *deaf and dumb* and *blind* pupils leaving their institutions, there are indeed many difficulties in disposing of them in this manner. With regard to those who are sound and healthy, the overseers of these establishments likewise complain of the difficulty of procuring for them, when they leave the institution, suitable places in honest and religious families and with skilful masters, and likewise of the indifference of the communities to which these pupils belong, and which, from a selfish apprehension of the concomitant expenses, have an eye only to cheapness. But the overseers of other houses of education have hitherto contrived to meet this difficulty by taking from the magistrates and private persons who deliver a pupil to the establishment, immediately upon admission, a written engagement, by which they bind themselves to do their utmost to find a suitable situation for the pupil on his leaving; and even the other institutions of this kind, notwithstanding these difficulties, have in fact never been without an opportunity to obtain an eligible place for sound and healthy pupils on leaving the institution. Even the association for providing for those discharged from the penal establishments has, partly by written application to its local and district auxiliary associations, partly by sending out a man who is connected with the religious private associations in the country, who personally exerts himself to find such situations for a suitable remuneration, hitherto succeeded in most cases in finding for the young people in the penal establishments, before they are discharged, very acceptable places as servants in honest families and with skilful masters in different trades.

§ 69. As the young people who quit the public establishments of education in their 14th or 15th year have seldom taken, at that dangerous age, the decided direction for their path through life which might strengthen them for the struggle against the power of urgent temptations; as on the contrary it too frequently happens after they have left the establishment and come into other connexions, that bad passions which, during their residence in the institution, were happily subdued, break out with unexpected violence, or new culpable propensities, hitherto unsuspected, manifest themselves; as often even their fathers and mothers, with a deplorable zeal of infatuation or perversity, counteract the measures which are taken for their good when they leave the establishment, and do every thing to disturb the relations in which they have been placed, or to draw them entirely away from the profession which has been assigned them;—considering all this, care is taken not only to give these pupils on their departure the necessary exhortations, and to call upon the masters as well as on the spiritual and temporal overseers to pay particular attention to them, but pains are taken after they have left to retain them in certain connexion with the establishment, directly by reciprocal visits, and indirectly by the distant friends of the houses of education. A superintendence is maintained over their conduct and over their connexions with their masters; they are, as circumstances may suggest, called before the directors to receive exhortations and warnings, and if they have well-founded causes of complaint, endeavours are made to remove them. The same is done in the cases of the young people who have been placed as servants or apprentices by the care of the association for the providing for persons dismissed from the penal establishments; though notwithstanding, as cannot but be expected, especially in the latter class, it not unfrequently happens that such young people run away from their masters or need a warning; yet by far the greater part, especially of the former pupils of the houses of education, conduct themselves well, or are at least easily brought back into the right way by such exhortations.

Especially respecting Poor Girls above 14 Years of Age.

§ 70. With respect to grown-up poor girls in particular, as they are generally at the age of 14 still too weak for what may be properly called service, care is taken in the houses of education (in order that they may obtain admission in the more respectable houses, and till their strength is equal to household labour, may be employed in good families, partly to attend upon children, partly to perform minor services), that they learn particularly spinning, knitting and sewing, acquire some knowledge of washing, ironing and cooking, learn to speak pure German, and have a good external address. Where it is necessary, they are kept in the institution for some months after they have completed their 14th year for this purpose. Those pupils of the houses of education who are qualified to be nursemaids, housemaids.

* "*Eigenbrödler*," means one who endeavours to earn a livelihood independently.

housemaids, housekeepers, &c., if no other opportunity for procuring them a situation offers, are recommended by the directors of the institution in the news papers for such places. For poor girls who, on account of their weak constitutions, are not fit for servants, arrangements are made in many places that they may at least earn a livelihood as sempstresses or even as mistresses in the schools of industry, to defray the expenses of instructing them out of the public funds, or to give them gratuitously board and lodging during the time they are learning.

Several of the female members of the Jewish Orphan Association have also expressed their readiness to do all in their power for the *Jewish girls* educated by the Association, when they leave the private boarding house assigned to them, and, together with the care for their moral and religious improvement, to lead them especially to learn and practise female works. Besides this, in many places, poor girls, partly before they enter into service, partly during its continuance, are provided, at the expense of the local funds, with *clothes and linen*; this is also done, in part, by the public Houses of Instruction and by the Association for providing for discharged penal prisoners, which sometimes also, as an encouragement for them and for others, give rewards to those who have behaved themselves well as maid servants.

But that females dismissed from the penal establishments, who have little knowledge of domestic and agricultural employments, or for whom a suitable place cannot be found before or at the moment of their discharge, may, if possible, find an opportunity of bettering themselves if they wish it, and of earning their bread, in future, in a lawful and regular manner; the Association for such discharged prisoners has made the arrangement that a number of young persons of this description find a *refuge*, till an opportunity is found of otherwise disposing of them, upon a farm half a league from every other place, and still further from any town. The persons so admitted receive here, in two Christian families who have hired this farm, shelter, with plain but sufficient food; and in case they become ill, the necessary medical assistance and other attendance. Here they find an opportunity of learning as well agricultural business as useful domestic business; and if they conduct themselves in an orderly manner, and are diligent, care is taken to provide them with the requisite clothing, and, if possible, to get them into service with people of good character, and for suitable wages.

Especially respecting Poor Youths, and putting them out as Servants or to Trades.

§ 71. In order that the poor youths to whom opportunity has been afforded of learning a trade, may not be afterwards prevented from exercising it for their own benefit, by want of the necessary means to set them up; and that if they cannot settle elsewhere as masters, they may, at least, be able to obtain a maintenance in their native place; it has become customary of late, when they are put out apprentices, to choose such a trade as does not require any expensive arrangements to carry it on independently, and which is not already overstocked in that place.

In order to facilitate their apprenticeship to trades, those masters who take a poor youth, educated in a public institution, as apprentice, are free from the usual legal restrictions with respect to the *time of work* and the number of apprentices; and the apprentices themselves are free from the payment of apprentice fees.

In order not to be obliged to pay a premium with such poor apprentices, their board is, in some places, provided out of the hospital kitchen, (§ 90.) But if the premium cannot be saved, either in this manner or by prolonging the time of apprenticeship, a premium is paid for them. For those apprentices who have been educated at the expense of the Orphan-houses, the premium is paid out of the funds of the establishment; for the scholars of some Community and Bailiwick Houses of Education out of the funds of those establishments; for discharged penal prisoners apprenticed to trades by the Association for providing for them, and for other poor apprentices, by the Church or Community Funds of the place in which they have the right of settlement.

Many poor youths are also provided, at the expense of the above-mentioned funds, with *clothes, linen, tools, books and money*, partly at their entering on their service or apprenticeship, partly during its continuance, and partly also when they leave it, before they set out upon their travels, (*Wanderschaft**). The masters of boys apprenticed from the Orphan-house have an additional year's service for keeping them, during their apprenticeship, in clothes and linen.

When such an apprentice becomes ill, he is received and attended in the Orphan-house. In the year 1829, a particular infirmary was opened at Göppingen for sick servants and apprentices, and the foundation of a similar infirmary has been commenced at Ravensburg, (§ 89.)

Sunday Schools for poor Apprentices and Journeymen Artisans.

§ 72. As however the establishments hitherto described do not afford to all poor youths designed for mechanical and other trades sufficient opportunity to acquire all the knowledge which, in the present state of society, is necessary to perfect them in their business, and enable them to practise it in an advantageous manner, a *Mechanics' Sunday School* was founded at Stuttgart, in the year 1825, for apprentices and journeymen mechanics, who cannot take part in the School of Science and Manufactures connected with the School of Arts in the capital, partly from want of the preparatory knowledge, and partly from want of time and means.

* "*Wanderschaft*" means "wandering," properly applied to the travels of journeymen mechanics, &c. who, by the old laws, must travel for a certain number of years into foreign parts before they can be admitted as masters in their own country.

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means. In this school, they now receive instructions according to the knowledge they have already acquired and to their destination, for three to five hours every Sunday (holidays excepted), in nine classes and nine separate rooms, from 11 different masters, in the following branches:—

A.) In reading well, particularly MS.

B.) In writing, together with exercises in arithmetic, letters and other compositions.

C.) In arithmetic, up to the doctrine of proportions with their several applications, and the doctrine of square and cubic numbers and the extracting of the roots, and particularly in mental calculation.

D.) In geometry, up to the drawing and calculating of geometrical bodies, with the application to arches.

E.) In the elements of mechanics (statics), solid bodies and hydrostatics.

F.) In drawing, especially of simple and compound geometrical forms and figures, household furniture, ornaments, members of the human body and other natural objects, to be copied from designs and plaster casts.

G.) In architectural drawing, with reference to the arrangement of buildings and their construction of wood or stone.

H.) In the modelling of ornaments, heads, animals and other whole figures, after models provided for them.

I.) In the necessary parts of technical chemistry.

Most of the native and foreign mechanics, apprentices and journeymen in the capital take part in this institution, and the masters are in general very well satisfied with their conduct, attention and diligence; only complaints are made that many scholars, especially apprentices, under the pretext that they have been kept by their masters to work, put the workshop in order, go on errands, &c., or without making an excuse at all, frequently come too late to the lessons or entirely neglect them, or even wholly leave the establishment without giving any notice. The expenses of this institution have been latterly diminished by its having obtained the use of the apartments and of the mechanical, technological, chemical and other apparatus belonging to the Government School of Arts and Industry, and some of the Teachers in the latter give instruction in some branches in the Mechanics' Sunday School, without expense to it; the remainder of the expenses are defrayed, partly by certain fees which the mechanics' apprentices at the commencement and end of their apprenticeship, and the journeymen when they are received as masters, have to pay, partly by annual grants from the City Fund, of the central board of the Charitable Union, and of some private individuals, friends to the institution.

§ 73. In consequence of a recommendation issued in the year 1825, mechanics' Sunday schools have been established in the country in most of the considerable towns, and even in some smaller towns and villages, in which schools the mechanics' apprentices and journeymen are gratuitously instructed in singing, correctly speaking the German language, reading and writing, in making estimates of expenses, receipts, letters and other compositions in writing, in arithmetic, geometry and mathematics in general, in drawing, geography, natural history, chemistry and physics, in general technology, mechanics (knowledge of machinery), architecture, &c. It is true indeed that they are not everywhere instructed in each of these branches, but for the most part only in one or some of them, and chiefly in drawing, arithmetic, geometry and composition.

Unfortunately these mechanics' schools in the country are not everywhere attended, or at least not frequently enough by all those who might benefit by them, and several such establishments formerly opened in the country have even ceased entirely after a short existence.

The expenses of these mechanics' Sunday schools in the country are wholly defrayed out of the local funds, only with some small aid from the Central Board of the Charitable Union.

Superior Education of Poor Youths.

§ 74. The poor, and especially the poor youths brought up in the public institutions of education, are not exclusively confined to becoming servants and mechanics, but the road to every other destination is open to them for which they appear to have the requisite bodily and mental qualifications. Several of the former pupils of these institutions are, for instance, now apothecaries, jewellers, printers, booksellers, surgeons, gold-workers, instrument makers, merchants, lithographers, painters, clerks, letter-founders, silversmiths, watch-makers, &c.

Pupils of the Orphan-house, who are intended for the arts and other special purposes, are kept in the institution after they have completed their 14th year, till they have acquired the necessary instruction; and not only with the two public Orphan-houses, but also with one of the private houses of education, small *associations of schoolmasters* are connected, the first object of which is indeed to educate good teachers, especially for such houses of education, and likewise for the instruction of the deaf and dumb, but at the same time to afford to poor youths belonging to the houses of education the opportunity and possibility to qualify themselves for that profession, which they cannot obtain elsewhere on account of the expense. Pupils of these houses of education have also been already admitted into the theological seminaries. For poor *university students* there are in Wurtemberg family endowments and other stipends, free table, gratuities, aids towards travelling expenses, &c. The Jewish Orphan Society also intends, in case one of its scholars should distinguish himself by remarkable talents, so that it might seem desirable to give him a superior education, to make application in the proper quarter for this purpose.

Employment

Employment of the Adult Poor.

§ 75. With respect to the adult poor, it is enacted by our oldest laws, that such grown-up poor who would willingly work, but cannot find employment, *shall*, as far as possible, *have means found them by the magistrates* to earn a livelihood by their labour; but that lazy idlers who are strong and healthy *shall be compelled to work*; and according to a recent ordinance the able-bodied restricted in particular (§ 26.), who claim support from the public funds, are bound to take any work for which they have adequate strength, whether it be public or private, which is assigned to them by the local overseers, receiving for it proportionate moderate wages. If they refuse to do the work assigned them, and cannot allege that they can earn something by other work or produce some other excuse, the overseer is authorized to employ towards them the means of compulsion which he is competent to use.

§ 76. Poor persons who have no property, or at least not enough to maintain themselves and their families, enjoy the legal title of every active citizen to participate in the revenues of the community, that is, in those advantages which accrue to the members of the community, independently of their landed property and the quota of their taxation, from the productive property of the community, by a transfer of their usufruct, for instance, common lands, which, in many communities, is a very great relief, because in many places it is so considerable that a family may support itself thereby, if not entirely, at least in a great measure.

A poor community, which had not a sufficient extent of land, obtained, in the year 1826, assistance from the government to purchase woods belonging to the lord of the manor, and to clear and cultivate them, and this without paying the forest tax.

In the year 1818 the government founded, at the public expense, a small *Poor Colony* in a thinly-peopled and uncultivated part of the country, for poor returned emigrants, and other families reduced by misfortunes, who had resolved to seek their fortunes in a foreign country.

In the year 1821 a clergyman purchased, at his own expense, some acres of land in a similar district, and had it divided into twelve parts, and cultivated by poor persons belonging to the place who had no land of their own, under his personal direction and superintendence. He gave up the tithes that would have come to him, paid the land-tax for them, and left to them, first the whole produce of the land, and at last the property of it, without any remuneration.

Lastly, the law allows the poor to glean in the corn-fields after the corn has been carried in, and to pick up dry wood in the forest, what is called *raff* and *lescholy*.

§ 77. Widows and orphans who possess vineyards have, in the autumn, the privilege to gather their grapes before others (*das Recht der Vorlese*.)

According to old laws, poor persons who still have a house and lands, or at least some little portions of land, and who have suffered by failure of the crops, frost, &c., or who cannot sow their lands, or are unable to dispose of them without great loss, but are still able to work, and have hopes of retrieving their losses in the harvest and autumn, shall be assisted by the communities, which, according as the case may be, shall lend to them from the public fund a sufficient sum, to be repaid as they may be able to do it in course of time, or shall at least give security for them.

The Central Board of the Charitable Union, also, has frequently assisted individual unfortunate farmers who had settled on lands previously uncultivated, chiefly by advances of money without interest, to procure the necessary *implements, seed and cattle*; it has also lent money, without interest, to a community for the purchase of clover and sainfoin seed for poor burghers; and in order to protect farmers who have not sufficient means to purchase cattle for themselves, and are therefore obliged to make shift with hired cattle against the exorbitant demands of interested cattle-dealers, and to enable them, by purchasing cattle of their own, to reap the full advantage arising from keeping cattle, this Union did, in the years 1823 and 1824, likewise assist, to the utmost of its power, the auxiliary and loan funds recommended by the government and founded in many places for this very purpose, by loans to the communities, to be repaid by instalments, and partly at less than the usual interest. The Central Board of the Charitable Union also takes much pains to introduce branches of culture advantageous to the poorer classes, such as horticulture, planting of orchards, breeding silk-worms, &c., and in parts where they have been hitherto neglected, and particularly to procure to the poor the means to learn and to practise them.

Lastly, it has, for many years, left a part of the annual donation which it receives from His Majesty the King to the fund of the Agricultural Institution at Hohenheim, for the assistance and maintenance of necessitous, well-recommended and diligent pupils of the Agricultural School at that place.

§ 78. Ordinary offices in the community, for instance, that of field-guard, wood or forest-keeper, cowherd, watchman, beadle, gravedigger, or, if they are females, the office of gooseherd, midwife, mistress in the schools of industry (*Leichensägerin*),* are commonly given to poor persons who would otherwise be a charge upon the community, and who receive a fixed annual salary.

The laws also order that in public works which the communities have executed by daily labourers,

* The word "*Leichensägerin*" means nothing. If it were "*Leichensägerins*," though not to be found in any German dictionary, it might mean a woman who gives notice of deaths, or who invites to funerals.

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labourers, able-bodied *restricted*, who have a claim to support from the public funds, shall be employed in preference.

In places where the hospitals have lands of their own, and farm them on their own account, poor persons are also employed in preference at suitable wages.

Not only in the year of scarcity 1817, and subsequently, many adult poor have been employed at suitable wages on the public account in other hard work, such as forest labours, planting trees, cultivating waste lands, turf-digging, working in the quarries, limepits, or excavating for antiquities, pulling down old buildings, cutting down avenues of old trees, levelling ground, laying out new public walks or churchyards, draining marshes, cleaning common sewers and streets, working at bridges, roads and canals, &c.

Poor persons who wish to earn something by daily labour for private persons, as well foreigners as natives, are allowed at Stuttgart to signify their intention, and have their names entered at what is called the *Burgher-wache* (guard-house), where day-labourers are to be inquired for and bespoke, and in winter, when the weather is cold, to stop there some hours and warm themselves.

§ 79. According to the ancient laws, the communities are bound to advance money on loan according to the ability of the poor fund and to the circumstances of the persons, to poor mechanics who cannot begin or carry on their trade without assistance, which sum they are to repay as they may be able to do in time.

The Central Board of the Charitable Union also has very often, but particularly in the year of scarcity 1817, made such advances to mechanics and manufacturers, for instance, of silk, linen, baskets, tobacco-pipes, pottery, &c., or purchased a quantity of their goods, or made application in other quarters for them, especially when at the same time the employment of a great number of poor children or adults was to be expected from the support or extension of their business.

In order also to afford individual poor workmen an opportunity of earning something independently of the manufacturers, the Central Board of the Charitable Union, in the year of scarcity 1817, and subsequently, has exerted itself to the utmost, to introduce in the country new branches of industry, calculated for the poorer class of the population, straw manufactures, lace-making, &c., or to improve, extend and introduce among the poor, older branches of industry, hitherto neglected in the country, or not yet carried on so extensively as they might be. Not only were the establishments for spinning for poor adults and children, which were founded in many places in the last half of the 18th century, revived, but in almost every bailiwick materials for spinning were procured in abundance at the public expense, for the poorest places, and consumed in spinning, knitting and weaving, by the most indigent of the inhabitants. And in order to facilitate the sale of the productions of these institutions for the employment of the poor,—

A.) The sale of their goods was exempt from the excise duty.

B.) In the city of Stuttgart particular magazines were opened for the receipt and sale of such goods, one of the most useful of which is the National Magazine of Industry, founded at Stuttgart in the year 1817, by the Central Board of the Charitable Union, for the promotion of the sale of the produce of the private industry of the poor, particularly females of the country and the capital in reduced circumstances, to whom an opportunity was thus afforded of disposing of their work without disclosing their names.

C.) Both in the capital, and the country, sales and lotteries were established.

D.) The overseers of the orphan-houses, hospitals, mad-houses and penal establishments, were directed to procure such articles as they needed from those establishments in preference.

E.) The requisite steps were taken to obtain for these institutions, where it was possible, employment for the army. And lastly,

F.) Negotiations were entered into with respectable foreign, even transmarine mercantile houses, and with natives of Wurtemberg settled abroad. (See § 81.)

Loans to the more aged Poor.

§ 80. Besides the loans for the special purposes mentioned in § 77, 79, the poor are further sometimes assisted by *loans in general*.

It was enacted already by an old law, “diligently to help poor fatherless orphans to their marriage and housekeeping, with a serious exhortation to repay if they should be able.”

The object of the community corn magazines is not indeed properly to assist poor people out of them, but that a considerable real and constant stock shall be on hand, to be employed, in times of great distress, for the general good. However, the heads of the communities are empowered to lend some part of these stores of corn, according to circumstances, and not to rich persons, but to the poor, who want corn for the necessary support of themselves and their families, and have none of their own.

In order to maintain, alleviate and improve the condition of the distressed citizen who, without any fault of his own, is unable to obtain credit, the Government recommended, in the years 1823 and 1824, the establishment of distinct *corporation loan funds*, which have really been established in several bailiwicks, some earlier, in part through the assistance of the General Relief Fund and the Credit Association (§ 18.); some, in more recent times, partly in connexion with the bailiwick savings banks (§ 47.) Particularly, however, in the year 1817, the community overseers were urgently recommended by the Government to furnish

furnish the poor citizens with the necessary means of subsistence by loans, bearing interest; and that, in case of great dearth and scarcity of corn in consequence of frost or other causes, poor persons may not be led, for want of being assisted in time with some small assistance, to leave their homes and go a-begging, an ordinance has already been sometimes issued, for instance, in the years 1699 and 1710, which was renewed in 1817, "That the loans and credit given in such melancholy times for the sustenance of the poor shall, in case of sale by auction, have the preference."

Direct Relief of the more aged Poor.

§ 81. But the indirect support of the poor by employment and loans has, however, its limits.

A.) In many places the share of a citizen is only one-half, one-quarter, one-eighth of an acre of common land; the allowance of wood, only one-half, one-quarter, one-eighth of a cord or fathom annually; and in a great many places there is no land fit for culture destined or disposable for this purpose, or it cannot be employed for this purpose, partly on account of obstacles founded on the nature of the land itself, partly on account of external hindrances; for instance, when it is indispensably required as a road, timber-yard, bleaching-ground, clay-pit, a dam against inundations, or for plantations of timber, or as a pasture for cattle, on account of existing contracts, services, rights of property, &c. on account of disagreements among the citizens, &c. Besides this, only actual citizens are entitled to participate in the revenues of the community (§ 76.), and these only so far as the individual rights of members of the community do not interfere, partly only on payment of a certain annual rent. Those who are only settled non-freemen, or assigned to the community (§ 6, 7.), are excluded, unless they have obtained before the promulgation of this law, by virtue of local custom, a participation in the whole or portion of the revenues of the community; and even in this case, the right is restricted to their own persons.

B.) The extraordinary expense incurred in 1817 for *public works*, was indeed justified at that time by the extraordinary distress; but for the constant prosecution of such works, there would be wanting in most places occasion and opportunity, and at all events the necessary means; nor could the communities well be expected, merely for the sake of employing the poor, to have such works done by them if they are not absolutely necessary, or at least urgently required at the moment, or if they could be performed at a cheaper rate by contract or by statute labour.

C.) In many places there is not always an opportunity to obtain work for daily wages, with private persons, especially in winter and for women and children; or at least the wages at different times of the year, and for many kinds of work, are too small to support a family.

D.) Many poor persons, especially women and children, are not able to follow such agricultural employments and day-labour, for want of the requisite knowledge and experience, of bodily strength, clothes, tools, seed-corn, manure and other things necessary in agriculture.

E.) Even for the employment of the poor which demands fewer requisites of this kind, opportunities are often wanting in many places, especially where there are no manufactures, and few or no mechanical trades, to obtain employment from private persons, at least not every day and for a continuance. But when public institutions for giving employment are in question, great prudence is necessary,—

a.) That the price of the raw material may not be raised too much by over-extending a branch of industry, while the wages and the price of the manufactured article are too much depressed, or the sale of the latter even becomes impossible.

b.) That as in such an institution, according to the circumstances, the pay of accountants, superintendents and master, the purchase and keeping in order of the tools and utensils, and the fitting up, keeping in repair, lighting, heating of a separate working room, are to be attended to, the founding and maintaining such an institution, the expense connected with it may not be out of proportion with the advantage procured to the poor by it, and the authorities which incur the expense may not thereby deprive themselves of the means of relieving the other poor, who cannot take part in the benefits of the institution, and of defraying other equally or even more urgent charges. Lastly,

c.) That while a poor person is in this manner provided with work and wages, another may not find the source of gain interrupted or cut off by which he has hitherto obtained a livelihood without the assistance of the magistrates.

But when due attention is paid to these very important considerations, it is extremely difficult, in Wurtemberg at least, to find means of employing the poor capable of work, by the intervention of the magistrates, when they are themselves not able to obtain suitable employment, and this difficulty must increase, from year to year, in which the number and extent of the public institutions for employing children increase, and as the employment of the prisoners in the penal establishments (police and workhouses, and houses of correction) is extended.

On this account, there are indeed in the capital, and in some other places, where for the sake of the moral gain a small pecuniary sacrifice is not regarded, particular public establishments for employing the adult poor in spinning and other such work; but they nowhere extend to a whole bailiwick; wherever they still exist, though the poor in them are not fed and clothed, but only employed, their support requires considerable annual aid from public funds; and in most places the establishments formerly opened for the employment of the

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adult poor have been entirely broken up, with the exception of a part of the inhabitants of the poor-houses, (§ 91.)

F.) Many parents, especially mothers, being engaged in taking care of their young children, in cooking and in the household-work in general, and many children by their tender age and by the legal obligation to attend the schools (§ 57 *seq.*), are hindered from giving the necessary time to work which they might obtain so as to get a sufficient livelihood by it.

G.) Besides this, experience teaches that persons who have not been accustomed from their childhood to industry and perseverance, and have not acquired a certain, at least general proficiency in works of hand, but, on the contrary, have followed from their youth idleness and beggary, cannot in general, in riper years, even with the best bodily and mental powers, and by the most strict compulsion, be rendered industrious, diligent and capable of performing even the rudest works of hand.

H.) Besides, there are in Wurtemberg, as every where else, a great number of poor persons, who from sickness, infirmities, weakness, idiotcy, advanced age, tender youth, &c. are really physically unable entirely to earn a livelihood by their labour.

I.) Lastly, the communities in Wurtemberg are in general but little inclined to grant loans to poor persons who cannot offer sufficient security for them, or even to be sureties for such poor persons.

Consequently, and especially till the new institutions for the better education of the youthful poor shall have been able to produce their entire effect, there will still remain in Wurtemberg a very considerable number, not only of poor unable or unwilling to work, but also of such as are both able and willing, who cannot be supported otherwise than directly.

Donations to Adult Poor.

§ 82. In many places the local poor are, with this view, allowed *themselves to collect* gifts in money, food, &c. from the wealthier inhabitants of the place; but in most of these places this kind of collecting of such gifts is limited to the houses of certain of the richer inhabitants, who have given them express permission to do so, and to fixed days and hours, and it is likewise subject to the superintendence of the police; but as a general rule, the poor are prohibited from personal collecting of gifts, even in their own place of residence, (§ 30.) On the other hand, those poor persons in whose cases the above described (§ 45. 75.) indirect means of relief are not applicable, or not sufficient for their necessary support, regularly receive everywhere out of the *public funds of the community to which they belong*, and under different names, such as alms, gratuity, pension, board, &c., partly weekly, monthly, quarterly or annually, partly without any fixed time, as need may be, gifts according to the wants of the individuals relieved and the ability of the community, sometimes amounting to only one or a few florins, sometimes to 20, 50, 70 and even 100 and more florins, for each person or family in a year. With respect to the extent of these gifts, there is nowhere any general, legal ordinance; but the question, how much is requisite for the necessary (§ 31. 42.) support of each individual or of each family, remains entirely for the consideration of the authorities which have to give the relief.

§ 83. The gifts of money are not always left to be disposed of by the poor at their own discretion, but often expressly to provide for certain expenses; for instance, to pay the school money, to buy school books, to pay apprentice fees, to purchase tools, to pay rent, to buy fuel, clothes or food, to pay the physician, surgeon or apothecary, for the use of the bath; and, in order to be certain of the due application of the money to the intended object, such payments are frequently made for the poor immediately by the public authorities, so that the money does not at all come into the hands of the person relieved.

From the same motive, such gifts are not always made in money, but very frequently in kind; for instance, in books (especially Bibles and Testaments), fire-wood, cloth, clothing, or in corn, flour, bread, warm food, medicine, wine, &c.

Wood, in particular, for cooking and warming the rooms, is distributed gratis in the capital every winter, particularly when the cold is severe, principally to those who already receive public support, in portions of 5, 10, 15, 20, and, in rare cases, even more billets. In very cold winters, when extraordinary gifts of wood are made to the institution, the portion is increased, and the distribution extended to a greater number of necessitous persons, particularly such as have seen better days; or, when this is not the case, wood in very small quantities is delivered by weight, on payment, every evening, to indigent persons who are in want of it. A *turf magazine* is also established in the capital, from which the poorer class receive on every work-day turf in small quantities, on payment.

In the country, too, firewood is often distributed gratuitously to the poor in severe winters, partly by charitable individuals.

Corn and flour is seldom, bread frequently, given to the poor, partly in consequence of certain bequests. *Warm food* is at present dressed only at Stuttgard, chiefly for poor families with many children, for persons whose low wages will not provide them with warm food, partly to some who pretend to be poorer than they really are. It is distributed every day, except Sundays and holydays, between 11 and 12 in the forenoon, in portions of a quarter of a masz (a masz in Wurtemberg about a gallon English), partly gratis, partly on payment of one and a half to two kreutzers; those who receive it may either take it home or eat it in the establishment; invalids and weak persons receive, by order of the physician, particular food fit for them and wine, the last in portions of a quarter of a masz. In the year of scarcity 1817, and partly also in 1832, in which, before the harvest, the prices of provisions began

began to rise considerably, such soup establishments were set on foot in many parts of the country, particularly in the chief towns of the bailiwick, and in most of these places the arrangements are still in readiness, but no use is made of them in ordinary years, because when the prices of provisions are low, the poor are able to procure their food very cheap in another manner.

§ 84. Every *travelling journeyman* mechanic who can give a satisfactory proof of this his quality and of the observance of the police regulations, receives in every place where there is an auxiliary guild fund (§ 10.), if he has in vain sought work there, some money for his journey, which, however, he cannot receive more than once in the same place in the course of three months; besides this, travelling journeymen who, without any fault of their own, have fallen into distress, receive aid from the guild fund of the place where they for the time reside. Other *poor travellers*, who can certify a legal positive object of their journey, when they are in embarrassment, and, without violating the police regulations, apply to a public authority, receive out of the local funds a trifle to set them on their journey.

Poor travellers who, on account of bodily infirmities, are not well able to go on foot, are, so far as can be done without injury to them, conveyed in a *waggon or cart*, not from place to place, but from station to station, and if they are overtaken by illness, so that it is not advisable to send them any further, their removal is suspended, and they are *kept, taken care of, and provided with medical attendance* in the place where they happen to be at the time, till they are sufficiently recovered, and till they can be set forward without danger to their health; particularly journeymen mechanics, servants and other strangers who have the itch, or who are attacked in the place where they happen to be, by some other contagious disorder, which calls for the interference of the police unless they can reach their homes without passing a night any where else, are never sent away, without distinction, whether they are natives or foreigners, till they are perfectly cured; on the contrary, all care is taken in the place where they are taken ill, to keep them separate, support and cure them. (See Infirmaries, § 55. 71. 89.)

The expenses are defrayed out of the same public funds that have to provide for the cure of the local poor. In the case of native subjects they may, however, claim an indemnity from the community where the person relieved has his settlement. With respect to the indemnity for the expense of the foreigners, see § 24.

§ 85. For the *sick local poor who receive public support*, the medicines, especially in epidemic disorders, are always (for other sick local poor, mostly, at least in part) paid for from the public local fund, both in the capital and in the country. The apothecaries who furnish these medicines must make an abatement of 12 ½ per cent. from the usual prices; at Stuttgart they voluntarily abate 30 per cent.

Every poor lying-in woman receives in Stuttgart, besides relief in food, &c., two swaddling clothes, gratis, which remain her property, and the loan of a pillow, which she returns in three months.

All the physicians in the capital attend the poor gratis, but in the country the unsalaried physicians, if they will not do the same, are to refer the poor patients to the paid physicians of the bailiwick, who are obliged, by law, to afford medical assistance, gratis, to poor people at their own houses, as well as to the poor in the public hospitals and infirmaries.

In epidemic disorders, two-thirds of the expense of attending the poor are defrayed from the public treasury.

If a *poor person dies*, and the expenses of the burial cannot be defrayed out of his own property, or his relations decline to pay them, his body, if it can be done without danger to the public health, is delivered to one of the public anatomical institutions, which pays for the expense of removing it; for the interment of bodies, which, according to this regulation, are to be delivered to an anatomical institution, nothing is allowed (*passirt*) in any public account; in the contrary case the funeral expenses are defrayed from the public fund of the community to which the deceased belonged.

§ 86. Poor individuals who are very *old, sick or infirm*, have been long married, who have many children, who contemplate a marriage, the erection of a building, the purchase of a house or land, who have suffered by fire, inundation, frost, hail, damage to their buildings or lands, who have been robbed or suffered bodily injury and the like, receive, according to their circumstances, sometimes relief from the auxiliary guild funds, or from special family or other more general endowments designed for such purposes, or from the Public Gratuity Fund, or the Royal Private Gratuity Fund.

But in cases of injury by fire, hail or inundation extending over the greater part of a community, or over whole or several communities, or entire bailiwicks, or in cases of frost injuring the vineyards, orchards and fields, or uncommonly long and severe winters, or great dearness and general scarcity of provisions, either permission is given by the Government to single communities or bailiwicks to collect voluntary contributions in a limited extent of country, or a general collection of voluntary contributions in money and in kind is set on foot by the Government itself, or by the Central Board of the Charitable Union, or by private associations; in which cases the King and the Royal Family always take the lead in the most munificent manner, and the amount is divided among the sufferers; and in certain cases, where circumstances render it necessary, larger sums are assigned from the public treasury for the relief of the sufferers.

Private Boarding Houses for the Adult Poor.

§ 87. Adult poor who, on account of their great age, or of weakness, infirmity and sickness of body or mind, or on account of immoral conduct, cannot be left to themselves, and

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who have no relations legally bound and able to superintend and take care of them, and who consequently would not be sufficiently relieved merely by a present in money or in kind, are even now, especially in small towns, taken in by all the members of the community in their turn, from house to house, by the day or by the week, or else put out to board in a fixed private house at the expense of the local funds.

Town and District Poor-houses for more aged Poor.

§ 88. But as nobody readily determines to admit such persons to his table and his house, particularly persons affected with the itch and other contagious disorders; and as even the most careful selection of such private boarding houses, with the best superintendence which is possible in such cases, frequently answers neither the expectations of those who provide such accommodation, nor the wants of those intended to be provided, it is very fortunate that, partly so far back as the 14th and 15th centuries, partly in modern and very recent times, almost in every large and small town, and even in some villages, partly by particular endowments for the purpose, partly at the expense of the local funds, a distinct public poor-house, or even several such poor-houses, have been built, or purchased, or taken from debtors in lieu of payment, which were not precisely intended to provide for persons of the above description, but rather to receive foreign vagabonds, and also for fear of the leprosy, plague or cholera; which establishments, founded under various denominations, such as poor-house, beggars-house, hospital, lazaretto, infirmary, leprosy-house, cholera-house, &c. &c., now that the entrance of foreign vagrants is prevented, and the fear of plague, leprosy and cholera is past, can be made use of for the reception of the native poor belonging to the above classes.

§ 89. Many of these houses can, indeed, accommodate only 10, 20, 30 or 40 persons, but many of them are calculated for a hundred or several hundred persons.

As they must be entirely supported from local resources, foreign poor travellers are indeed, (§ 84.) if they are afflicted with the itch, or are attacked in such a place with some other disorder, especially if it is of an infectious nature, calling for the intervention of the police, and they cannot reach their homes without passing a night elsewhere, received into them; but except in these cases, only poor persons belonging to the place itself, and very rarely belonging to other places in the bailiwick.

Formerly it was usual to receive also poor children with or without their parents, into these houses, but latterly the children (§ 59.) are otherwise disposed of, and only *married persons without children* or single adult poor, are admitted, who for the most part are, as far as possible, kept separate according to their sex, and partly according to other circumstances, especially as prescribed by existing ordinances. Separate rooms for insane and sick persons, particularly for those who have the venereal disease and the itch, are fitted up in these poor-houses, so as to answer, as much as possible, this particular object; and in some cases separate buildings are allotted for this purpose. (See § 71.)

§ 90. In many of these poor-houses, those who are admitted into them have only free lodging and firing, and sometimes clothing; and to provide for their other wants, a weekly, monthly, annual allowance in money or in kind. (See § 82.)

In others, they are directly provided with every thing; that is, they have in the house free lodging, candles, firing, bedding, clothes, food, and in case of sickness medical care, medicine and attendance. In general, in this case, each of the two sexes, or a great number of such persons, nearly of the same class, have a *common sleeping room*, and a *common eating and working room*. Sometimes however only two, three or four poor persons together, and often even individual poor have their separate rooms.

In the common sleeping rooms, every person has his separate bed, generally feather beds, such as are usually found in poor independent families.

The clothing is mostly warmer and stronger, but not so good looking and more old fashioned than that of the poorer independent citizens.

The food consists generally in the morning of soup, at noon a farinaceous dish and vegetables, and once, twice, rarely three times in the week of a quarter or half a pound of meat; in the evening of soup, together with milk or potatoes. There are, however, poor-houses where they get no breakfast in the morning; at dinner only farinaceous food or vegetables (not both together), and once a week only, or even but a few times in the year on certain holydays, or even not at all, meat, and in the evening nothing but *Soup*.* When this diet is furnished by contract, 5, 5½, 6, 7, 8 to 8½ kreutzer daily per head are at present paid for it; besides which, however, the contractor mostly has lodging and firing gratis and the use of a garden.

Besides this, every person receives in most of these houses, 3, 3½, 4, 5, 6 and even 7 pounds of bread weekly, and in some places a few kreutzer every week for snuff; wine is given only where there are special endowments for that purpose, mostly on certain holydays. The sick have better and lighter food and wine, as the physician thinks fit to prescribe in every case.

§ 91. In

* The word "*Suppe*" here and elsewhere translated by the word *Soup*, has, however, a far more general signification; the proper definition of it being "*boiled fluid food*, eaten alone, warm, with a spoon." Thus the Germans have water soup, beer soup, milk soup, bread soup, flour soup, wine soup, &c.

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§ 91. In some of these houses, more, and in others less, care is taken that the inmates of them do not unnecessarily go out, and that those who are able to do some work are not idle. Some hospitals have lands which they keep in their own hands, and in this case the inmates are employed as much as possible in assisting in the agricultural operations; where there is no land, they must at least prepare the necessary firewood, carry wood and water, help in washing, cooking and other domestic employments; they must spin, wind yarn, knit, sew, make clothes and shoes for the house, &c. In some poor-houses they are also employed in making wooden pegs for shoemakers and tilers, matches, &c.

On the whole, however, the employment of these people in the poor-houses does not produce much; for old, weak, infirm, sickly, &c. persons for the most part seldom want a pretence to avoid working, and many of them are not qualified for regular work, and the overseers of the institution (see § 81.) have no opportunity of giving them suitable employment.

Some voluntary industry is found in such houses only when those who manifest such an inclination receive some little recompense for what they do for the house, and are allowed to enjoy, wholly or in part, the profit of their work for strangers. In this case, old people of 70 or 80 years of age, even blind persons, will employ themselves, as well as they are able, in order to earn a trifle to indulge themselves with a cup of coffee, a glass of brandy, or a pinch of snuff.

§ 92. In some of these houses there are individual almspeople (called rich or Lord's almspeople) who, by agreement, have a separate and better lodging, better bed and clothing, better diet than the other inmates of the house, and who can also claim entire exemption from work. The origin of this is, that in former times persons who had property and strength enough to subsist independently, were allowed, not from necessity, but for their accommodation, to purchase a retreat in the hospitals for life by means of a contract (§ 32.), by which they transferred the whole of the property, or a certain part of it, to the fund of the institution, to which this property fell after their death. Those who have formerly purchased a retreat in the hospitals are treated according to the conditions of the contract. But at present permission to buy themselves in, is, according to recent ordinances, partly no longer allowed, partly to those poor only in whose cases it may be foreseen that they would, in a short time, entirely consume the whole of their little property, and then be necessarily admitted, gratis, into the hospital.

State Poor-houses for Adult Poor.

§ 93. Chiefly for the capital (in which there is, besides a specific civic hospital for aged, weak-minded and infirm poor, and a separate infirmary for the insane, for those who labour under incurable bodily complaints, and for females with venereal disorders, arrested by the police,) and secondarily for the common good of the whole country, there was founded, in the years 1820 to 1828, as a monument to her Majesty the late Queen Catharine, a new infirmary at Stuttgart under the name of the Catharine Hospital, which contains 72 large and small rooms, and accommodation for 300 beds, and it is divided into a lying-in hospital and an infirmary, in which latter persons are received who suffer under a curable internal or external bodily complaint.

This infirmary owes its origin and first arrangement to the voluntary contributions collected for erecting a monument to the late Queen, to the liberality of the King and the Royal Family, and to the grant of a contribution from the public treasury, but the current expenses, so far as they are not covered by the property of some old poor-houses in the city which have been dissolved, by donations and legacies, and by the contributions of the persons entitled to the advantages of the institution, are defrayed only to the amount of one-third out of the public treasury, and the other two-thirds out of the public funds of the City of Stuttgart; poor pregnant women and invalids of the description for whom it was intended are admitted in preference if they are taken in labour or fall sick in the territory of the city, and, only when there is room, such as come from other parts of the country; if the latter are in want of special assistance, for instance, an operation, of the aid of a Stuttgart surgeon or oculist, or of particular arrangements which are to be found in the house.

Gratuitous admittance, attendance and care in this house may be claimed by—

A.) All poor having a settlement in the city of Stuttgart, for whom the city fund would have to pay an indemnity, whether they are citizens or not, and, without distinction, whether they are admitted to the enjoyment of public alms, or only [*word illegible*] for sick days in general, or unable to pay for the longer duration of their illness, and in need of assistance.

B.) All poor foreigners, male and female, who, on their passage through or during a temporary stay in the territory of Stuttgart, are overtaken by the pains of labour or illness, and, in the opinion of the physicians, cannot be sent away on their journey without danger to their own health or to the public, unless, by existing contracts, some foreign public fund is declared to be bound to give an indemnity for them. (See § 24.)

An equitable indemnity, modified according to circumstances, must be given—

A.) By persons in the class of servants, for whom the fund of the insurance against cases of sickness, established in Stuttgart, has to pay an indemnity.

B.) All poor natives whose settlement is out of the territory of the city of Stuttgart, for whom their community has to pay an indemnity, whether they are wholly destitute of means or only need temporary relief for this special occasion.

C.) All poor foreigners overtaken by sickness in a community beyond the territory of Stuttgart, who are brought to the institution at the expense of that community.

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D.) All poor prisoners who are under trial, or in the penal establishments, for whom an indemnity is to be paid by the local police fund of Stuttgart, or by the public treasury.

§ 94. In the year 1803, a public infirmary, belonging to the whole country, and amply provided with every requisite for the cure of diseases, was founded at Tübingen by the name of the *Clinicum*. In this institution most of our native physicians and surgeons have received their education. It consists of a medical clinicum ambulatorium, a surgical ambulatorium, a fixed surgical clinicum, and a clinical lying-in hospital, with a school for midwives. In this establishment the most desperate cases, and even patients who have already been declared incurable by the physicians, to whatever part of the kingdom they belong, may seek their last refuge. The women and sick are not only treated and nursed gratuitously, but even, according to circumstances, assisted at their departure with a small sum for their journey.

§ 95. Particular *baths* for the poor are attached to some of the establishments in Wurtemberg. Thus there is a Royal foundation, by which a certain number of indigent, infirm subjects are entitled to enjoy at Ball, for 24 days together, free lodging, with a complete bed, free board and firing, and the use of the sulphureous baths in that place, with the attendance of the physician to the baths. In like manner, and also by an endowment of the present King, a number of poor persons may enjoy at the *Wildbad*, for 24 days together, and under the special care of the physician to the baths, not only free use of the bath and lodging, but also board and attendance, gratis, in a distinct building properly fitted up for the purpose. The community to which the poor here received belong, has only to provide for their conveyance thither, and in case the cure should take more than 24 days, to take on itself the charges of board and other expenses, and in case of death, to pay the expenses of the funeral.

§ 96. For insane and melancholy persons from all parts of the kingdom who require to be more carefully guarded and more attentively superintended, a madhouse was established in the year 1746 at Ludwigsberg, in connexion with the house of correction and poor-house in that place; but in the year 1812 this institution was entirely separated from the house of correction, and transferred to the ancient monastery of Zwiefalten; and in the year 1833 in the ancient Castle of Wümenthal an entirely new institution for the cure of persons with disordered intellect from all parts of the kingdom, was established; besides which the madhouse Zwiefalten is now continued chiefly only as a place of security for lunatics, without, however, entirely excluding the prosecution of the cure. Both the establishments were founded and fitted up entirely at the expense of the state, and the current expense is likewise paid by the state, so far as it is not covered by legacies and donations; but a certain sum per annum must be paid to it for every patient admitted, which, if the patient has not sufficient property of his own, or if it cannot be paid by contributions from relations bound to support him, or by other private assistance, must be defrayed by the local funds which are bound to support the patient.

§ 97. An establishment for the care of adult blind persons from the whole country was founded in the year 1832 at [name of place illegible], under the name of Asylum for the Blind. It was indeed opened by a private association, and, for the present, with a small number of blind persons. The institution has a twofold object:—

A.) In the case of those blind persons who in their own home might indeed find a suitable asylum, but not an opportunity to learn and to practise works of hand adapted to their condition, to procure them such an opportunity by a residence for a shorter or longer time (one, two, three or four years) in the institution, and, according to circumstances, by subsequent continued connexion with it, chiefly by furnishing them with the necessary raw material for their work, and providing for the sale of the manufactured article.

B.) To afford employment and an asylum to blind persons who want, in their own homes, not only this opportunity, but also a proper asylum.

Prisons.

§ 98. With respect to the prisons, see the Appendix.

Support of certain particular Classes of Poor.

§ 99. Besides the above described general establishments for the poor, there are also separate institutions for certain particular classes of poor, particularly for the class known by the name of *modest poor* (*Verschämter armen*). Among these are—

A.) For *noble ladies*, a family foundation at Obristenfeld;

B.) For *officers and servants of the Court*, a pension fund, a widows' fund, and a Court infirmary;

C.) For the widows and orphans of the Royal Chapel, a separate pension fund;

D.) For the military and the jager corps (land jagercorps) gratuities, pensions, hospitals and an infirmary;

E.) For clerks, &c. in the post-office, a pension fund;

F.) For the clergy, a clerical widows' fund, table-money (*Tischtitel*), various gratuities, &c.;

G.) For schoolmasters, participation in the clerical widows' fund, separate funds for schoolmasters' widows, gratuities, &c.;

H.) For

- H.) For other public servants, a pension fund, gratuities ;
 I.) For persons not public servants, a general private widows' and orphans' pension fund, State Gratuity Fund, &c.

*The Effects of the preceding System of Management of the Poor on the Morals
and Number of the Poor.*

§ 100. If we now compare the situation of one of the poorest of the Wurtemberg poor, who support themselves independently by their labour without external aid (see § 40.), with that of one of the more favoured of the Wurtemberg poor who lives by public charity, for instance, the inmate of an hospital (§ 90 & seq.), and even of a prison (§ 98.), it might certainly appear that the condition of the latter is preferable to that of the former.

In fact, we often see such hospital inmates, and even prisoners, attain the most advanced age, while many a poor day-labourer and artisan sinks at a much earlier age under the weight of his cares and the want of necessaries. In fact, many an inmate of an hospital and many a prisoner, even with bodily infirmities and sufferings, still seems to find his condition quite comfortable, and shows himself thankful for the good which he enjoys, while many a day-labourer or artisan in the enjoyment of good bodily health feels himself miserable and curses his existence ; in fact, many a one seeks admission into the hospital who would be very well able to provide himself with necessaries by his work at home. In fact, the man often separates from his wife, or the wife from her husband or from the children, to be received into the hospital. In fact, many a one does not economize, but squanders what he has, and does not work in order to earn something, because he thinks that he always has the right of being received into the hospital as a last resource. In fact, in many places where there are rich hospitals and other foundations, the number of the poor is proportionably greater than in places where less is done for their support. In fact, many a one continues to beg and to steal who has already been frequently imprisoned for these offences, because he finds his situation in the workhouse very tolerable in comparison with the laborious life of a poor man at liberty.

§ 101. Yet where, which is often the case, the liberality towards the inmates of the hospitals rests upon special endowments made expressly for this purpose, where the founders have positively declared their intention that the poor, whom they meant to benefit, should not only live, but in some measure enjoy their life, would it be right, in such cases, to act contrary to the will of the founders? Would it be right, even in cases where without the assistance of express endowments, there are ample means to be liberal to those of the hospital inmates (and of these there are certainly not a few) who have been compelled to seek a refuge in the hospital, not in consequence of prodigality or idleness, or in general by their own fault, but through unmerited misfortune, poverty, bodily or mental infirmities, debility or sickness. Is it possible to distinguish, in an hospital, between those who have fallen into decay without any fault of their own, and those who are themselves the cause of their misfortunes? And does not humanity require, even with respect to those who are actually to blame for having been obliged to seek refuge in an hospital, or having brought themselves into prison, that we should not be too niggardly, as long as we are able, without unjustly favouring them at the expense of other more needy and more deserving poor, and thereby depriving the latter of necessaries?

However, the situation of the inmates of an hospital, even of those which are the most liberal to their inmates, is by no means so enviable as from the above comparison (§ 100.) it might seem to be. Frequently their residence is embittered by their being obliged to live together with rude, quarrelsome, mad, silly and disgusting persons. Many embitter their own lives by a discontentedness, which may either be natural to them or communicated by others. Many dislike the kind or the quantity of the work allotted to them, the restrictions with respect to the time of going out and returning home, which are prescribed by the regulations of the house. Prisoners, in particular, consider the loss of their freedom as an intolerable burden. Besides this, too, the treatment is by no means in general and in every poor-house so good as it is represented in the above comparison ; hence it is not the case with all the poor received into a poor-house, that they have voluntarily sought admission there, or that they voluntarily and willingly remain in it ; hence, too, the applications for admission to these houses are not every where equally pressing ; hence the assertion that the existence of such houses increases the number of prodigals, idlers and poor, cannot be taken as generally correct.

At all events, the above comparison applies to the actual inmates of the hospital, rather than to those poor who are relieved only by money and commodities, or by finding them employment ; for the relief which they receive in this manner is in most places dealt out with so scanty a measure, that their situation is little or not at all better than that of a healthy poor person, who maintains himself independently by the labour of his hands, without external assistance. The independent poor man always has the cheering consciousness of maintaining himself and his family by his own exertions, and of enjoying the respect of his fellow citizens, which is always lost in a greater or less degree by the poor man who receives relief, to whom, in the eyes of the better classes, a kind of disgrace attaches, which must often fall on the idle, who is excluded from elections of the community, &c. restricted in marrying, &c.

§ 102. According to the Population Returns which the Government causes to be made,
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the following are the numbers of persons, out of the whole population of the kingdom, stated as receiving alms :

Foreign	On the 1st November 1818	-	-	-	-	-	-	22,804
Communications.	—	1819	-	-	-	-	-	25,193
—	—	1820	-	-	-	-	-	24,602
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	—	1822	-	-	-	-	-	22,390

But according to a return made at the instance of the Central Board of the Charitable Union, on the 1st of January 1819, there were at that time, in the whole kingdom, 63,367, and according to a return made by its direction on the 1st of January 1820, there were 64,896 poor; namely :

Poor orphans	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4,645
Unmarried adult poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	13,389
Poor families, 15,154, consisting of individuals	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	46,862
Total	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	64,896

The difference between the numbers stated by the Government and those of the Charitable Union, arises from the circumstance, that in the Government Population Returns, only those are enumerated as receiving alms who were actually in receipt of them, kept house themselves, or at least were to be considered as independent members of a community not depending on any other family; but in lists of the Charitable Union, all those are included, even women and children, who for want of property or of strength, or of an opportunity of employing it, were at that time in want of assistance from others.

Since that time no enumeration of the poor has been set on foot, either by the Government or the Charitable Union; but as the numbers estimated in the years 1819 and 1820 were doubtless increased for the moment, in consequence of the years of scarcity, 1816 and 1817, and from that date better times have come, and as the Charitable Union was only founded in the year 1817, and has since done so much to improve the condition of the poor, and especially for the better education of the youthful poor in Wurtemberg, it may be confidently affirmed that the number of poor persons requiring relief in the kingdom does not exceed 50,000, though the effect of many measures adopted latterly, especially with respect to the better education of poor children and the restrictions on the marriages of the poor, cannot, in the nature of things, have yet manifested their influence on the present generation of adult poor, and will not be felt till the next generation; consequently there is in Wurtemberg, upon an average, only one poor person to 30 inhabitants, whereas in most other countries this average proportion appears to be much more unfavourable.

Effects of the present System with regard to Beggary.

§ 103. It has already been observed, under the several heads, that, and why, the above system of the Government with regard to the management of the poor has by no means been every where carried into effect.

Even in many communities, where the requisite pecuniary means would not be wanting, there are yet wanting, from a *deficiency of judgment and good will*, many institutions which must be supposed as existing, if the local poor are to be deprived of every pretext to allege that they are driven to beggary by want; and in many really existing charitable institutions all those poor persons who should participate in them do not however do so, or at least not regularly, which they must do if they are to be restrained from beggary and led to gain their own livelihood. In many such cases the laws do not admit of any direct compulsion; and even when such compulsion might be legally employed, prudence advises not to make use of it, because in many instances friendly exhortation and encouragement, examples in the neighbourhood, the waiting for a change of persons, or some other favourable conjuncture, and in general patience, lead more securely to the object than any imperative interference.

Besides this, many communities really have not the pecuniary resources required for completely carrying into effect the system of the Government.

There are communities which have so many poor that they may indeed be able in ordinary times, with a little exertion, to afford them the necessary support out of their own resources, but might no longer be able to do so in case of any extraordinary misfortune.

There are also communities where the number of the poor is so very great, that they are not indeed left entirely without relief, yet even in ordinary times cannot possibly be so far supported by the less indigent part of the community to which they belong, as to deprive them entirely of the pretext of being obliged by necessity to seek relief elsewhere. Lastly, it is precisely through the improvements of the police regulations that a number of formerly homeless poor, who, as basket-makers, brush-makers, buckle-makers, knife-grinders, saw-filers, tinkers, &c. used to roam all over Germany, generally with their whole family, and when they did not entirely obtain a livelihood by those trades, endeavoured to supply the deficiency by begging, and occasionally perhaps by cheating, stealing and robbery, were crowded together in a proportionably small number of places in Wurtemberg, where the land-owners had formerly taken them under protection, as it was called (§ 6, 9.), partly out of self-interest, partly out of mistaken religious zeal, and sometimes only out of vanity or thoughtlessness. As most of these places have no territory, or at least of very inconsiderable extent, as the half, the third, the fourth-part possess neither land nor property sufficient to carry on a regular

regular trade, and as these places are precisely those which have the least property belonging to endowed establishments or to the community, it is evident that such communities are utterly unable to fulfil their legal duties towards their poor inhabitants, who have no share in the land nor any other property, and who for the most part have not been brought up from their youth to any hard labour. If we at the same time consider that even in places where all the necessary public establishments exist, where all poor children are regularly kept to their attendance at the elementary and industry schools, all the adult poor able to work made to attend the public institutions destined to afford them employment, where all the poor incapable of work either receive sufficient support from the public funds or are admitted into the existing poor-houses, no police can hinder individual attempts of foreign beggars from entering the kingdom, or the native poor to get something by begging, especially so long as the public will relieve beggars, does not denounce them to the poor establishments or the police, nay, even frequently conceals them from the police when it is in quest of them, or actively takes their part against the police. No one will be surprised by the confession, that it has *not yet been possible entirely to extirpate beggary in Wurtemberg.*

§ 104. However, the measures taken to keep away foreign beggars cannot possibly be without effect; and with respect to the native poor, at least the many poor children who now attend the infant, elementary and industry schools, and are received in private boarding-houses and houses of education, the many poor young people who by the intervention of the magistrates are provided for as servants, apprentices and journeymen, and attend the Sunday schools, the older poor who, by means of the magistrates, obtain employment either at their own homes or at the public institutions, and who are in private boarding-houses or the public poor-houses, do not beg during the hours that they are in those establishments. A very great number of poor persons are certainly kept from begging by these establishments who, without them, would certainly be mendicants, but are now always led and induced to gain their own livelihood. By this means the number of beggars in Wurtemberg must certainly continue to decrease, whereas in many other countries it is increasing in a frightful degree.

In fact, ever since the year 1807, in which the first decisive steps were taken to keep foreign beggars out of the kingdom, and to repress the practice of mendicity by the native poor, *the number of beggars in Wurtemberg has evidently decreased considerably.* It is now extremely rare to see a foreign beggar in Wurtemberg. Only the travelling journeymen artisans, both foreigners and natives, are seen; it being more difficult to watch them, as they are travellers, often at great distances from their home, begging sometimes on the road, sometimes at house-doors, for a trifle, either to buy food or to pay for a night's lodging. But they are satisfied with the smallest current coin in the kingdom ($\frac{1}{2}$ kreutzer) and generally soon fall into the hands of the police. The inhabitants of the poorest places in the kingdom (§ 103.) do indeed still frequently importune in the neighbouring country, partly under the protection of the travelling licenses granted them to carry on a little trade, partly too under the pretext of bodily infirmities or of losses by fire or hail, &c. Such people, knowing very well that the peasantry are more able to give commodities than money, seldom ask for the latter, but more frequently for the produce of the field, corn, potatoes, fruit, hay, flax, hemp, &c. (which they also occasionally pilfer); and in the houses they ask for flour, bread, milk, butter, lard and warm food; of persons who have just killed a hog, they beg for meat, sausages, &c.; of sugar refiners, for treacle; at village fairs, for cakes, beer, brandy, sometimes even for clothes, household utensils; at night, for a night's lodging, &c.; and people seldom refuse such a request, partly out of good nature, partly from fear of their revenge. The vigilance of the police, however, for the most part confines this species of beggars to within a short distance of their own home, and the Government, which is at present devising the means of better providing for people of this description, will doubtless be able to put an end to such practices. Besides, it is only the begging of the local poor respecting which more complaints are made in many places, in proportion as the present police regulations hinder them from going to beg elsewhere. But the greater inconvenience arising from this has, in better times, induced many local magistrates to approach nearer to the system of the Government for providing for the poor, and it is to be hoped that this species of mendicity will also be more and more limited, by the amelioration of the local institutions for the poor.

Conclusion.

§ 105. This is the present system of the Government of Wurtemberg, with respect to the management of the poor. It sees at present no grounds for any essential changes in it; less essential improvements will be adopted as often as a change in temporary and other circumstances shall call for them; when new observations, investigations and experience shall give occasion for them; or further consideration, experiments or the examples of other states shall offer new means for introducing such improvements.

Should *further more detailed accounts* of any of the institutions here mentioned be wished for, they will, if called for, be communicated with great pleasure.

LETTER from *W. Wellesley, Esq.* to the Right hon. Viscount *Palmerston, G.C.B. &c. &c. &c.*
 MY LORD, Stuttgart, July 4th, 1834.

Enclosures (A.) to (E.)

WITH reference to my Despatch of the 22d of May, I have now the honour to enclose various translations of dietaries, &c. belonging to different prisons and charitable institutions in this country, together with a table approximating as nearly as possible the weights, measures and money of Wurtemberg with those of England. I do not think it worth while to forward the whole of the dietaries I have procured, as they are a mere repetition of those I send.

I beg at the same time to add a copy of the statutes of the poor establishment at Weinsberg, which I have been enabled to obtain, and which gives an excellent idea of the system in general pursued in this country. I am obliged to send it in original, on account of the great difficulty of getting an accurate translation made here.*

I have the honour to be, &c.

The Right hon^{ble} Lord Viscount Palmerston, G.C.B.
 &c. &c. &c.

W. Wellesley.

Enclosure (A.)—(Translation.)
 POOR HOUSE, WEINBERG: BILL OF FARE FOR TWENTY-FIVE PERSONS.

F O O D.	Flour.		Bread.		Potatoes.	Pease.	Lintels.	Beans.	Barley Meal.		Lard.	Salt.	Pepper.	Onions & Vege- tables.	Meat.	Cider Vinegar.
	Lbs.	Loths.	Lbs.	Loths.	Vierling.	Vierling.	Vierling.	Vierling.	Lbs.	Loths.	Loths.	Loths.	Loths.	No.	Lbs.	Schoppia.
DINNER FOR THE SEVEN DAYS:																
Meat and Flour	-	16	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	11	18	1	1	6	-
Sour Potatoes	-	6	1	2	2½	-	-	-	-	-	8½	18	1	1	6	-
Meat and Barley Meal	-	17	-	-	-	-	-	-	28	-	-	18	1	1	-	-
Dried Bean Soup	-	6	-	-	-	-	3	3	-	-	8½	18	1	1	-	-
Pease and Dumplings	-	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8½	18	1	1	-	-
Meat and Potatoes	-	6	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	18	1	1	-	-
Lintels and Dumplings	-	6	-	-	-	-	3	3	-	-	8½	18	1	1	-	-
FOR A CHANGE ARE GIVEN:																
Potatoes and Dumplings	-	6	1	2	2½	-	-	-	-	-	8½	18	1	1	-	-
Pease and Bread	-	27	3	10	-	-	-	-	-	-	8½	18	1	1	-	-
Pease and Barley Meal	-	8½	-	-	-	-	-	-	31	-	8½	18	1	1	-	-
Dumplings in Lard	-	6	2	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	8½	18	1	1	-	-
Meat Soup	-	-	6	24	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	18	1	1	-	-
Sourcrout and Dumplings	-	10	{ Sourcrout Imi ½ }		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	18	1	-	-	-
FOR SUPPER ALTERNATELY WITH POTATOES:																
Pudding in Lard	-	24	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8½	18	1	1	-	-
Soup	-	-	1	16	-	-	-	-	13	-	3	17	1	2	-	-
Bread Soup	-	-	6	24	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	13	1	1	-	-

* This has been already received from Sir E. C. Disbrowe and printed, p. 500 et seq.

Enclosure (B.)—(Translation.)
KORNTHAL.—COST OF NOURISHMENT OF TWELVE CHILDREN.

Foreign
Communications.
WURTEMBERG.

BREAKFAST.		DINNER.		SUPPER.		Daily Cost.	
	kr.		fl. kr.		kr.	fl. kr. hlr.	
SUNDAY:							
Milk soup.		Sourcrout	- 4	Water soup.			
2 Measures of milk,		2 lbs. meat	- 12	1 lb. bread	- 2		
at 4 kr.	8	4 oz. lard	- 2	4 oz. lard	- 2		
1 lb. bread	2	1 vierling potatoes	- 3	Sallad of			
1 vierling potatoes	3			1 vierling potatoes	- 3		
				$\frac{1}{2}$ measure of vinegar	- 2		
				4 oz. oil	- 2		
						- 45 -	
MONDAY:							
Water soup.		Hot crout	- 2	Water soup.			
1 lb. bread	- 2	Dumplings, $2\frac{1}{2}$ mea-		1 lb. bread	- 2		
4 oz. lard	- 2	sures flour, at $4\frac{1}{2}$ kr.	- 11	4 oz. lard	- 2		
1 vierling potatoes	3	4 oz. butter	- 2	1 vierling potatoes	- 3		
						- 29 -	
TUESDAY:							
As above	- 7	Different sorts of cabbage	- 4	2 measures milk	- 8		
		6 oz. butter	- 3	1 lb. bread	- 2		
		1 vierling potatoes	- 3	1 vierling potatoes	- 3		
		36 oz. bread	- $2\frac{1}{2}$			- 32 8	
WEDNESDAY:							
As above	- 7	$\frac{3}{4}$ measure lentils	- 3	Soup.			
		6 oz. lard	- 3	1 lb. bread	- 2		
		1 vierling potatoes	- 3	$\frac{1}{2}$ measure flour	- $2\frac{1}{2}$		
		36 oz. bread	- $2\frac{1}{2}$	6 oz. lard	- 3		
				1 vierling potatoes	- 3	- 29 -	
THURSDAY:							
As above	- 7	Dried damsons, or po-		2 measures milk	- 8		
		tatoes and dumplings	- 8	1 lb. bread	- 2		
		1 vierling potatoes	- 3	1 vierling potatoes	- 3		
		4 oz. lard	- 2			- 33 -	
FRIDAY:							
As above	- 7	$1\frac{1}{2}$ measure pease	- $4\frac{1}{2}$	Mashed potatoes.			
		4 oz. lard	- 2	1 vierling potatoes	- 3		
		1 vierling potatoes	- 3	1 measure milk	- 4		
		36 oz. bread	- $2\frac{1}{2}$	4 oz. butter	- 2		
						- 28 -	
SATURDAY:							
As above	- 7	Potatoes in sour sauce.		2 measures milk	- 8		
		1 vierling potatoes	- 3	1 lb. bread	- 2		
		$\frac{1}{4}$ measure vinegar	- 2	1 vierling potatoes	- 3		
		6 oz. lard	- 3			- 30 3	
		36 oz. bread	- $2\frac{1}{2}$				
	55		1 35 $\frac{1}{2}$		1 16 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 47 -	
Each child, at 10 A. M.						6 oz. bread.	
Ditto - at 4 P. M.						10 oz. bread.	
						16 oz. at 1 kr.	- 1 24 -
							5 11 -

According to this, each child costs daily, with salt, table furniture, &c. - 3 kr. 3 hlr.

FURTHER NECESSARIES for the Maintenance of the CHILDREN.

CLOTHING FOR				Other Demands, reckoned for 40 Children.			
BOYS.		GIRLS.		Washing at 2 fl.	Wood and Light.	Inspec- tion.	Teach- ing.
	fl. kr.		fl. kr.				
2 Cotton neck-handker-		2 Caps	- 34				
chiefs	- 24	2 Cotton neck-kerchiefs	- 24				
2 Stuff waistcoats	1 -	1 Body	- 30	80 fl.	70 fl.	78 fl.	50 fl.
1 Cloth jacket	1 -	1 Woollen frock	- 45				
1 Ticking jacket, lined		1 Linen ditto	- 45				
with flannel	1 -	1 Under petticoat	1 -				
2 Pair ticking trowsers	1 30	1 Upper ditto	1 -				
1 Pair woollen stockings	- 30	1 Pair worst ^d stockings	- 30				
1 Pair thread ditto	- 30	1 Pair thread ditto	- 30				
2 Shirts	2 -	2 Shifts	2 -				
1 Pair shoes	1 -	1 Apron	- 30				
		1 Pair shoes	1 -				
	fl. 8 54		fl. 9 28				

A child will therefore cost, in 365 days,—nourishment, at 3 kr. 3 hlr., 21 fl. 22 kr. 3 hlr.; washing, 2 fl.; inspection, wood and light, 4 fl.; instruction, 1 fl. 12 kr.; clothing, 9 fl. 11 kr.; total, 37 fl. 45 kr. 3 hlr. But as the whole of the clothes are not renewed every year, a child's cost may be reckoned at 35 florins. A bed, consisting of,—a staw mattress, and a feather pillow and double cover, a woollen coverlid, a pair of sheets, in winter a foot pillow,—costs 14 fl. Paid by voluntary gifts.

Appendix (F.)

Enclosure (C.)

Foreign
Communications.

(Translation.)

ASYLUM FOR CHILDREN IN WINNENDEN.

WURTEMBERG.

THE Children, when well, are fed as follows:—

- 1.—Sunday dinner, soup, meat and vegetables.
- 2.—Thursday ditto, meat and vegetables.
- 3.—On the other days of the week, for dinner, all sorts of vegetables, dressed in different ways, dumplings, milk, salad, fruit, &c.
- 4.—Sunday breakfast, soup; other days, soup, with or without potatoes.
- 5.—Sunday supper, soup and salad, or potatoes or milk.
- 6.—In summer, and sometimes in winter, the children receive, in the fore and after-
noons, a piece of bread.

PROPORTIONS reckoned for 100 CHILDREN :

SUNDAY and THURSDAY'S DINNER :

	Fl.	kr.
Barley meal, $\frac{5}{16}$ imi. à 2 fl. 8 kr.	-	40
Meat, 30 lbs. à 7 kr.	-	30
Salt and wood	-	16
	fl. 4	26

Beans : One basket-full	-	24
Lard, $1\frac{1}{2}$ lb. à 20 kr.	-	30
Meal, $\frac{1}{8}$ sim.	-	$7\frac{1}{2}$
Salt and wood	-	16
Meat, 30 lbs. à 7 kr.	-	30
	fl. 4	$47\frac{1}{2}$

WEEK DAYS :

Pease, $\frac{1}{2}$ sim. à 1 fl. 12 kr.	-	36
Lard, $1\frac{3}{4}$ lbs. à 20 kr.	-	35
Meal, $\frac{1}{8}$ sim.	-	$7\frac{1}{2}$
Salt and wood	-	16
Potatoes, 2 sim. à 12 kr.	-	24
	fl. 1	$58\frac{1}{2}$

Lintels, $\frac{1}{2}$ sim. à 1 fl. 12 kr.	-	36
Lard, as above	-	35
Meal, $\frac{1}{8}$ sim.	-	$7\frac{1}{2}$
Salt and wood	-	16
Vinegar, 2 ma. à 7 kr.	-	14
	fl. 2	$12\frac{1}{2}$

WEEK DAYS—continued.

Dumplings :	Fl.	kr.
Meal, $1\frac{1}{2}$ sim. à 1 fl.	-	1 30
Lard, $1\frac{1}{4}$ lbs. à 20 kr.	-	25
Salt and wood	-	16
Salad or crout	-	36
	fl. 2	47

Pudding :

Meal, $\frac{3}{4}$ sim. à 1 fl.	-	45
Milk, 14 maas à 4 kr.	-	56
Lard, 1 lb.	-	20
Salt and wood	-	14
	fl. 2	15

BREAKFAST and SUPPER :

Potatoes, 2 sim. à 12 kr.	-	24
Soup, bread, 16 lbs. à 2 kr.	-	32
Lard, $\frac{3}{4}$ lb. à 20 kr.	-	15
Salt and wood	-	16
	fl. 1	27

If salad or milk is given for supper, from
15 to 30 kr. more must be reckoned.

AVERAGE COST of the DAY'S FOOD :

	Fl.	kr.	Fl.	kr.
Dinner, two days in the week	-	à 4 40	-	9 20
— five days	-	à 2 30	-	12 30
Breakfast	-	à 1 27	-	9 29
Supper	-	à 1 40	-	11 40
Bread	-	à 1 40	-	11 40
			fl. 54	39

Note.—In general, the expenses are rather under this calculation.

Enclosure (D.)

THE divers PRISONS of *Wurtemberg* contained, on the 31st December 1828, 1,420 Prisoners; namely, 996 Male, and 424 Female Prisoners. On the 31st December 1827 the Number of Prisoners was only 1,390; namely, 998 Male, and 392 Female Prisoners. The Average Number of Prisoners for the Year 1827-28 was 1,315, and each Prisoner earned, on an average, 21*fl.* 11 *ktz.* and 2 *heller.*

House of Correction, GOTTES ZELL, 223 Prisoners.		House of Correction, LUDWIGSBURG, 823 Prisoners.	Police House, MARKGRÖNINGEN, 84 Prisoners.	Fortress, HOHEN ASPERG, 9 Prisoners.	Police House, HEILBRONN, 50 Prisoners.	Police House, ROTTENBURG, 55 Prisoners.	Police House, U L M, 71 Prisoners.
<i>fl.</i> <i>ktz.</i> <i>heller.</i>		<i>fl.</i> <i>ktz.</i> <i>heller.</i>	<i>fl.</i> <i>ktz.</i> <i>heller.</i>	<i>fl.</i> <i>ktz.</i> <i>heller.</i>	<i>fl.</i> <i>ktz.</i> <i>heller.</i>	<i>fl.</i> <i>ktz.</i> <i>heller.</i>	<i>fl.</i> <i>ktz.</i> <i>heller.</i>
94 25 4½		72 58 1	83 46 2¾	185 46 4	81 9 2¾	85 13 ¾	90 59 ¾
65 21 2½		50 12 3¼	75 27 1	164 53 2	70 58 3¾	81 9 5	6 29 3¼
57 22 2		47 29 1¾	68 53 3½	152 33 2	65 3 3½	72 14 1	68 30 3½

In the Year 1827-28 the Average Expense of a Prisoner amounted to —
All charges included - - - - -
Expense, after deduction of the Prisoners' earnings -
Real expense, after deduction of all receipts and outlays of the Establishment - - - - -

In the year 1827-28 the average cost of a prisoner in the different prisons of *Wurtemberg* amounted to 54*fl.* 5 *ktz.* 2 *heller.* And including the expenses of the Prisons Commission, 56*fl.* 4 *hellers.*
In the House of Correction, Gottes Zell, the earnings of the prisoners amounted, in the year 1827-28, in the whole, to 6,483*fl.* 15 *ktz.*; so that each prisoner had earned, 29*fl.* 4 *ktz.* 2 *heller.* Of this sum the prisoners received, as the produce of the extra work done by them, 1,591*fl.* 23 ½ *ktz.* which averages for each prisoner 7*fl.* 8 *ktz.* There are prisoners who have saved from 20*fl.* to 36*fl.*
In the House of Correction, Ludwigsburg, the earnings amounted to 18,732*fl.*; for each prisoner, 22*fl.* 45 *ktz.* 3 ½ *heller.*; of this sum, 1,474*fl.* are for extra work of the prisoners, averaging 1*fl.* 47 *ktz.* 3 *h.* per head. Some prisoners have saved from 34*fl.* to 10*fl.*, which have been paid to them on quitting the prison, or it has been paid to their families.
In the Police Houses, as the imprisonment is of too short duration, the extra work done by the prisoners is very trifling.

PRISONS: NUMBER OF PRISONERS.	OFFICERS, &c.	Working-hours for the Prisoners; Mode of Employment.	DRESS.	D I E T.	E X T R A S.	I N S T R U C T I O N.
House of Correction, GOTTES ZELL, near G M U N D. (a) Average number, } 170 Male } 220 50 Female } Prisoners. (b) Number on the 31st Dec. 1828: 148 Male } 222 74 Female } Prisoners.	Director; Steward; Teacher; Surgeon; First Overseer, 11 Overseers besides, but only as an addi- tional employment; a Protestant; a Roman Catholic Clergyman; and a Physician. A Military Guard.	-- Eleven hours daily (Sun- days and Feast Days ex- cepted, on holidays they work during half the day.) I. For account of the esta- blishment, the making of linen cloth, namely, spin- ning, winding the thread, warping, weaving, &c. &c.; sewing and tailor's work, shoe and boot-making, carpenter's, turner's and cooper's work; then requi- sites for the establishment, such as masonry, &c. II. Documents, &c. copied to order, carding and spin- ning wool.	-- Prisoner's dress of strong linen, half brown, half grey.	-- Daily, 1 ½ lb. of bread made out of one-third of bar- ley and two-thirds rye, once a day warm food (in quan- tity about 2 ½ and 3 pints), eight times in the year meat (each person ¾ lb. without bone.) Drink, plain water	-- The produce of the extra work of the prisoners be- yond the task given, is placed to the account of the individual; of this extra earning the prisoner is al- lowed to lay out, daily, at most 4 kreutzer, for the pur- chase of such food as the prison regulations permit. Spirituuous liquors, except in case of illness, and prescribed by the doctor, are always prohibited.	-- Sundays, Feast Days and Holidays, Divine Service; religious instruction on a week day. Lessons given by the schoolmaster, which all prisoners under 25 years must attend, and which elder pri- soners, if they wish it, may also attend. Of the 76 male and 38 female prisoners (Pro- testants), there belong to the M. F. I. Class, good - 18 8 II. Class, giving hope of amendment 17 20 III. (a) Doubtful signs of amendment 31 6 (b) Without signs of amendment 10 4 (continued.)

Enclosure (D.)—continued.

PRISONS: NUMBER OF PRISONERS.	OFFICERS, &c.	Working-hours for the Prisoners; Mode of Employment.	DRESS.	D I E T.	E X T R A S.	I N S T R U C T I O N.
House of Correction, LUDWIGSBURG. (a.) I Class 270 Male } 670 70 Female } Pri- I. Class 240 Male } soners. 90 Female } (b) 497 Male } 675 178 Female } Prisoners. Namely, II. Class 402 } Prisoners. I. Class 273 }	Director; Book-keeper; Steward; Teacher; Surgeon; 2 First Overseers; 11 Overseers extra, as additional employment; A Protestant; A Roman Catholic Clergyman; and a Physician. A Military Guard.	Daily, II. Class, 10 hours - I. - 9 - as above, partly on account of the establishment, and partly for country orders, the same as at Gottes Zell, besides straw-plaiting, mak- ing wooden shoes, book- binding, and as day-labourers in gardens, fields, &c.	II. Class: Prisoner's dress of strong linen, half black and half grey. I. Class: Their own usual dress.	- - II. Class. Daily, 1½ lb. of bread, one-third barley, two-thirds rye. Once a day warm food, and every third Sunday and Feast Day meat. I. Class. Daily, 1½ lb. of bread, one-third barley and two-thirds rye. Once a day warm food, and meat every Sunday and Feast Day. Drink, water. - - As at Ludwigsburg, for the prisoners of the 1st Class.	- - As at Gottes Zell, but the II. Class is allowed to spend 5 kreutzers I. ditto ditto 6 ditto daily for victuals, including beer and cider; and for the prisoners of the II. Class, five times a week I. ditto, daily. The prisoners of the 1st Class have also the permis- sion to get their own beds. - - As at Ludwigsburg, for prisoners of the 1st Class.	- - Religious instruction and schooling as at Gottes Zell. By the accounts made up on the 31st Dec. 1828, in- struction was given to 209 Male } 292 83 Female } Prisoners. Religious, school and in- structive books are supplied here, as well as in Gottes Zell, in sufficient number. - - Divine Service and reli- gious instruction for Protest- ants and Roman Catholics, but no schooling, as the time of confinement is too short for the prisoners to profit by the lessons that could be given them. - - Prisoners must attend Divine Service.
House of Correction, MARKGRÖNINGEN. (a) 140 Male } 200 60 Female } Prisoners. (b) 148 Male } 201 53 Female } Prisoners.	Director; 1st Overseer; 3 Overseers extra, as additional employment; a Protestant; a Roman Catholic Clergyman; a Physician; and a Surgeon. No Military Guard.	- Daily, 9 hours (as above) employed for the establish- ment as tailors, shoemakers, &c., spinning wool, flax, hemp, &c. as day-labourers.	Their own dress	- - As at Ludwigsburg, for the prisoners of the 1st Class.	- - As at Ludwigsburg, for prisoners of the 1st Class.	- - Divine Service and reli- gious instruction for Protest- ants and Roman Catholics, but no schooling, as the time of confinement is too short for the prisoners to profit by the lessons that could be given them. - - Prisoners must attend Divine Service.
Arrest, and House of Correction, Fortress, HOHEN ASPERG, (a) 18 Male Prisoners (b) 6 ditto ditto.	As additional office, Commander of the Fortress; Director of the House of Correction in Ludwigsburg; 1 Overseer. A Military Guard.	- - Prisoners of the II. Class daily, 10 hours (as above) writing and translating fo- reign languages. Prisoners of the I. Class, and persons under arrest, have no obli- gation to work.	- - ditto - -	- - Bread as at Ludwigsburg for the prisoners of the 1st Class. Once a day warm food, and meat three times a week for the prisoners of the 2d Class, and five times for those of the 1st. Persons under arrest may have what they wish, but no excess is permitted.	- - Prisoners of the 2d Class may purchase, daily, for 7 kreutzer, and those of the 1st Class for 10 kreutzer, of the victuals they wish, without reference to their earnings. Persons under arrest have no restriction to these, and to the prisoners of the 1st Class the use of their own beds is permitted.	- - Prisoners must attend Divine Service.
Police, or Station House, HEILBRONN, (a) 100 Prisoners. (b) 89 Male } 142 53 Female } Prisoners. ROTTENBURG. (a) 100 Prisoners. (b) 50 Male } 76 26 Female } Prisoners. ULM. (a) 105 Prisoners. (b) 58 Male } 98 40 Female } Prisoners.	For every Station, or Police House, First Overseer; Overseer, then as additional office; a Steward; a Protestant; a Roman Catholic Clergyman; Physician; Surgeon. Without Military Guard.	- - Daily, 8 hours (as above) as in Markgröningen.	- - ditto - -	- - Bread as at Ludwigsburg for prisoners of the 1st Class. Twice a day warm food, and meat every Sunday and Feast Day. Drink, water.	- - Permission to purchase daily, for 6 kreutzer, extra victuals, without reference to their earnings. Permis- sion to have their own beds.	- - As at Markgröningen.

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Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.
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WURTEMBERG.

Enclosure (E.)—(Translation.)
REDUCTION of *Wurtemberg* into *French* and *English* WEIGHTS and MEASURES.

WURTEMBERG.			FRENCH.				ENGLISH.	
LONG MEASURE:			Metres.	Decim.	Centim.	Millimetres.		
1 Ruthen (rod)	-	-	2	8	6	4 $\frac{6}{10}$	1 Yard contains 1 $\frac{48}{1,000}$ Wurtem- berg Ells; in Cloth Mea- sure, 1 $\frac{86}{100}$. 8 Yards make 11 $\frac{16}{17}$ Wurtem- berg Ells.	
1 Schuh (foot)	-	-	-	2	8	6 $\frac{4}{100}$		
1 Zoll (inch)	-	-	-	-	2	8 $\frac{649}{1,000}$		
1 Linie (line)	-	-	-	-	-	2 $\frac{8,649}{10,000}$		
1 Elle (yard)	-	-	-	6	1	4 $\frac{235}{1,000}$		
SQUARE MEASURE:								
1 Square Ruthen (rod)	-	-	-	-	-	8 $\frac{2,077}{10,000}$	Mètres carrés.	
1 Square Schuh (foot)	-	-	-	-	-	$\frac{82,077}{1,000,000}$	- ditto.	
LAND MEASURE:			Decares.	Ares.	Deciars.	Centiars.		
1 Morgen	-	-	3	1	5	1 $\frac{746}{1,000}$	1 Acre (160 Square Poles or rods), contains 1 Morgen 83 Square, and 72 $\frac{5,788}{10,000}$ Square Feet.	
1 Viertel ($\frac{1}{4}$ Morgen, or 96)	-	-	-	7	8	7 $\frac{936}{1,000}$		
1 Achtel ($\frac{1}{8}$ Morgen, or 48)	-	-	-	3	9	3 $\frac{968}{1,000}$		
CUBIC MEASURE:								
1 Cubic Ruthen (rod)	-	-	-	-	-	23 $\frac{5,141}{10,000}$	Mètres cubes.	
1 Cubic Füss (foot)	-	-	-	-	-	$\frac{235,141}{100,000,000}$	- ditto.	
FIRE WOOD MEASURE:			Steres.		Decisteres.			
1 Klafter or Maas	-	-	-	3	-	3 $\frac{86,043}{100,000}$		
DRY MEASURE:			Kilo- litres.	Hecto- litres.	Deca- litres.	Litres.	Deca- litres.	Centi- litres.
10 Shäffel	-	-	1	7	7	2	2	6 $\frac{48}{100}$
1 Shaffel	-	-	-	1	7	7	2	2 $\frac{648}{1,000}$
1 Simri	-	-	-	-	2	2	1	5 $\frac{331}{1,000}$
1 Vierling ($\frac{1}{4}$ Simri)	-	-	-	-	-	5	5	3 $\frac{832}{10,000}$
1 Ecklen ($\frac{1}{8}$ Vierling)	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	9 $\frac{22,909}{100,000}$
1 Viertele ($\frac{1}{4}$ Ecklen)	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	7 $\frac{30,727}{100,000}$
FLUID MEASURE:								
1 Fuder	-	-	1	7	6	3	5	6 $\frac{416}{1,000}$
1 Eimer	-	-	-	2	9	3	9	2 $\frac{736}{1,000}$
1 Imi	-	-	-	-	1	8	3	7 $\frac{46}{1,000}$
1 Maas	-	-	-	-	-	1	8	3 $\frac{7,046}{10,000}$
1 Schoppen	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	5 $\frac{9,061}{10,000}$
WEIGHTS:			Hecto- grammes.	Deca- grammes.	Grammes.	Deci- grammes.	Centi- grammes.	
1 Pfund (pound)	-	-	4	6	7	5	8 $\frac{66}{100}$	1 lb. is equal to 31 $\frac{1}{4}$ Loth; so that the English and Wur- temberg lbs. are all but equal.
1 Loth, (ounce 32 to lb.)	-	-	-	1	4	6	1 $\frac{208}{1,000}$	
1 Quintessen	-	-	-	-	3	6	5 $\frac{302}{1,000}$	

COMPARISON OF MONEY:
A Florin is equal to about 1 s. 8 d.
There are 60 Kreuzers in a Florin,
And, 6 Heller in a Kreuzer.

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.

BAVARIA.

BAVARIA.

LETTER from Lord *Erskine* to *John Backhouse*, Esq.

Sir,

Munich, 5 January 1834.

IN compliance with the orders of Lord Palmerston, which you transmitted to me in your letter of the 30th November, I have now the honour of forwarding to you a detailed account of the laws and institutions within the kingdom of Bavaria relative to the poor, and of the legal and charitable provisions for their support.

In giving my answers to the questions which you transmitted to me, and which have been drawn up by the Poor Law Commissioners of England, relative to the condition of the poor, I have adopted the plan of marking on the printed list of questions a reference to my communications on that subject, inclosed in this despatch, according to the different articles mentioned, because there would not have been room enough on the printed paper itself to have answered fully the questions contained in it.

Upon carefully examining and considering these poor laws of Bavaria, I have come to the conclusion in my own mind that they are useful, and well adapted to the purposes for which they were intended, because by the establishment of the poor institutions (as they are called), by districts over the whole kingdom of Bavaria, with sufficient power by law to carry their provisions into execution, the great and important object is attained of giving relief and support to the aged, helpless and sick, and finding work in workhouses or at their own homes, at a moderate payment, for those who cannot otherwise obtain it; for which purpose a register is to be kept by the guardians of the poor of all those persons who are in want of work, and who are therefore either a burthen upon the parish, or are likely to become so, as also a list of those who wish to employ workmen, in order to endeavour to arrange between them the terms of employment; and that this object may be the more easily attained, the directors are required to be in continual communication with the overseers of public works, the masters of manufactories, with individual proprietors, and societies; and that where there are a quantity of hands capable of work, they are to be passed into that part of the country where they are most wanted; but whenever it may happen, that notwithstanding all inquiries and exertions, the necessary work cannot be obtained, in such cases materials and tools are to be distributed to those paupers who may be in want of them, to be used at their own houses; and if in larger towns the number of those paupers should be very great, houses are to be opened and maintained at the expense of the institutions for the poor, in which the paupers who are out of work are to be employed; but the number of paupers to be so employed is always limited to those who have not had a reasonable offer of work from any other quarter. But the great cause why the number of the poor is kept so low in this country, arises from the prevention by law of marriages in cases in which it cannot be proved that the parties have reasonable means of subsistence; and this regulation is in all places and at all times strictly adhered to.

The effect of a constant and firm observance of this rule has, it is true, a considerable influence in keeping down the population of Bavaria, which is at present low for the extent of country, but it has a most salutary effect in averting extreme poverty and consequent misery.

I am, &c.

Erskine.

John Backhouse, Esq.
&c. &c. &c.

ANSWERS taken from the Bavarian Poor Laws, inclosed in Lord *Erskine's* Despatch to *John Backhouse*, Esq. of the 5th January.

VAGRANTS.

1. To what extent, and under what form does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?—Begging not allowed.

2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country, seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded, and under what regulations?—See Art. 8 in Bavarian Poor Laws.

DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

1. To what extent, and under what regulations are they, or any part of their families, billeted or quartered on householders; or, 2. Boarded with individuals?—Are sometimes quartered, but must work. See Art. 39, 40, 41.

3. To what extent, and under what regulations are there district houses of industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families, and supplying them with food, clothes, &c., and in which they are set to work?—There are houses of industry established. See Art. 25, 29, 40.

4. To

4. To what extent, and under what regulations do any religious institutions give assistance to the destitute, by receiving them as inmates, or by giving them alms?—There are none.

5. To what extent, and under what regulations is work provided at their own dwellings for those who have trades, but do not procure work for themselves; or, 6. Is work provided for such persons in agriculture or on public works?—Work is sometimes provided. See Art. 27, 29.

7. To what extent, and under what regulations are fuel, clothing or money distributed to such persons or their families; at all times of the year, or during any particular seasons?—Are occasionally distributed. See Art. 37, 38, 39.

8. To what extent, and under what regulations are they relieved by their children being taken into schools, and fed, clothed and educated, or apprenticed?—Are relieved by their children being taken into schools. See Art. 17.

9. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are the relatives of the destitute compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking charge of part of their families?—Relatives are compelled to a certain degree to relieve them. See Art. 7.

10. To what extent, and under what regulations are they assisted by loans?—No loans made.

IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

1. To what extent, and under what regulations are there almshouses or other institutions for the reception of those who, through age, are incapable of earning their subsistence; or, 2. Is relief in food, fuel, clothing or money afforded them at their homes?—Almshouses are established for the aged. See Art. 1, 32, 36, 37.

3. To what extent, and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals; or, 4. quartered or billeted on the householders?—Are sometimes boarded. See Art. 40.

5. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking part of their families?—Relations are compelled to assist them. See Art. 7.

SICK.

1. 2. 3. The sick are taken care of. See Art. 9, 32, 34.

4. To what extent, and under what regulations is assistance given to lying-in women at their homes, or in public establishments?—Assistance is given. See Art. 34.

CHILDREN:

Illegitimate.

1. 2. 3. Illegitimate children are to be supported by the parents, when such are capable of doing so; when otherwise, by the poor institutions. See Art. 33.

Orphans, Foundlings, or Deserted Children.

4. To what extent, and under what regulations are they taken into establishments for their reception?—See Art. 33.

5. To what extent, and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders; or, 6. Boarded with individuals?—See Art. 40.

7. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—See Art. 7.

CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

1. 2. 3. They are taken care of in houses. See Art. 18, 32, 33.

4. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—Relatives who are capable are obliged. See Art. 7.

IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

1. To what extent, and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception?—Houses are to be erected for their care. See Art. 35.

2. To what extent, and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders; or, 3. boarded with individuals?—See Art. 7.

4. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—See Art. 40.

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.

BAVARIA.

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

You are requested to state whether the receipt or the expectation of relief, appears to produce any and what effect,

- 1st. On the industry of the labourers?—Industrious.
- 2d. On their frugality?—Frugal.
- 3d. On the age at which they marry?—At various ages.
- 4th. On the mutual dependence and affection of parent, children, and other relatives?—Generally affectionate towards each other.
- 5th. What, on the whole, is the condition of the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, as compared with the condition of the person subsisting on alms or public charity. Is the condition of the latter, as to food and freedom from labour, more or less eligible? (*See* p. 261 and 335 of the Poor Law “Extracts.”)—Compared with the paupers, have more comforts, and are better off every way.

LABOURERS, &c.

1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month, or the year, with and without provisions in summer and in winter?—Good labourers 8*d.* a day; generally provisions in harvest time.
2. Is piece-work general?—Not very general.
3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—In the country parts there are very few day labourers, as almost every person has some little ground of his own, and few are rich enough to hire labour except in towns, where it is of course different, and varying from 8*d.* to 16*d.* a day, according to their merit.
- 4 to 22. Not answered.
23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—Marriages prohibited by law, unless the parties can prove that they have competent means of support.
24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried; 2d, the married, save?—Savings seldom considerable.
25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—Generally improvidently placed.

COPY of the BAVARIAN POOR LAWS, enclosed in Lord *Erskine's* Despatch to *J. Backhouse, Esq.*, of the 5th January 1834.

PROPOSITIONS for INSTITUTIONS for the Relief of the POOR.

I. Division.—*Treats of the Formation of these Institutions, their Destination in general, and their Rights.*

- Art. 1.—Institutions for the poor are to be established every where, and are to be kept up with care.
- 2.—They are to enjoy the rights which the law allows to pious institutions.
- 3.—They are to be the heirs of those persons who had been supported during their lifetime by the means of these institutions, unless they have poor relations.
- 4.—These institutions are exempted from all stamp duties and fees.

II. Division.—*Concerning their Establishment.*

- Art. 5.—Each town, market and village, is to have an institution for the poor; but if several villages wish to unite in forming one of these institutions, it is not only to be permitted, but every facility is to be afforded it.
- 6.—Each provincial district (landgericht) must have an institution of its own.
- 7.—All the inhabitants of such district are obliged, according to their means, to contribute to that purpose; each person is, besides, bound to continue to support those poor relations whom the laws direct him to maintain.
- 8.—The claims for relief are to be fixed according to the laws of their district (heimath gesetz.) Sometimes in cases of great necessity, relief is allowed to strangers who do not belong to that parish.

III. Division.—*Concerning Overseers and Assistants.*

- Art. 9.—The overseers consist (unless it is otherwise determined) of the directors, of the police, commissaries and magistrates.
- In cases where medical aid is necessary, they are to be attended by physicians who are appointed by the State.
- 10.—In towns and larger market-towns, besides the above-named overseers, a council is to be formed, consisting of the clergyman and the mayor and persons deputed by the magistrates and all classes of the people, in proportion to the number of inhabitants of each place.
- 11.—In smaller market-towns the clergyman and deputies from the peasants form this council.
- 12.—When several villages join together to form one of these institutions, a general committee is to be formed.

13.—The

13.—The members of the council for the institutions for the poor are to be elected in the same way as the magistrates and mayors (burgermeister).

When several parishes are joined together a deputy is to be chosen from each, and again, several are elected from among these, who are to take immediate charge of the affairs. Each deputy is chosen for three years, and is obliged to perform his duties without remuneration; no inhabitant is allowed to refuse to perform his functions the first time he is elected; extraordinary merits in the service of the poor are to be publicly distinguished.

IV. Division.—*Concerning the sphere of Action of these Institutions.*

Art. 14.—The particular duties of the institutions of the poor are, 1st. To examine into the state of the poor; 2d. To provide for their wants; 3d. To take them under moral and civil inspection; 4th. To find out the necessary resources, to administer and apply them.

V. Division.—*Of the Description of Poverty and of the State of the Poor.*

Art. 15.—The condition of the poor is to be ascertained and described.

The preliminary inquiries and remarks for that description are to be collected by the members of the council and their deputies, according to the order that has been before agreed upon, or by assistants chosen by them; in towns the co-operation of the police may also be made use of.

16.—Every body who wishes to partake of the relief of the institution for the poor, is to be accurately questioned, and his present abode, his christian and surname, his religion and age, his birthplace, his right to his present abode, the cause of his poverty, the state of his expectations of property, the state of his body, his trade or occupation, his capability or incapability of working, and his former or present wages, his relations, or the persons who are also obliged to support him, and what he enjoys from them, what he receives besides public means or from the hands of private benefactors, and the kind and magnitude of his supposed wants are to be written down.

17.—If the person who seeks relief is married or a widower, every member of his family is to be described; and in families in which there are children who are capable of learning by the means of a school, he is to remark whether, where, and with what effect they attend the schools and lessons of religion.

18.—With regard to such persons as demand a participation of the institution for the poor on account of the malformation of their body and the state of their health, a medical examination is to take place if these circumstances are not visible to the eye.

19.—All the claims and declarations of those who wish for relief, are to be generally examined by diligent inquiries, and if necessary, to be confirmed by formal certificates, and besides this, their moral and civil conduct is to be mentioned in the description.

20.—The foundation of these descriptions is to be, 1st. Whether the described are really to be regarded as poor? 2d. Whether they have claims on the institution of that district or parish? 3d. In what kind and to what amount relief is necessary? 4th. How long the same is to last?

21.—Each description which occurs in the course of the year is to be dated with the day, month and year in which the same was formed. And after the addition of what has been determined (Art. 22), this description is to be arranged in consecutive numbers, and completed with a reference to these numbers, and the alterations are to be followed up each time.

22.—Every year, before the approach of winter, there is to be a general description of the poor, and after that the certificates are to be corrected and renewed.

23.—No pauper is exempted from personal attendance on those who are appointed over them for this description, except those who are prevented by illness or some other equally important reason, or who, on account of their reduced circumstances, are ashamed to appear, and are allowed to absent themselves by the pledges of at least two members of the institution.

VI. Division.—*Of the Charge of the Poor.*

Art. 24.—By the public care for the state of the poor, private benevolence towards single persons is not prevented; yet it must neither prejudice the public obligations of each man towards the institution for the poor of the district or parish, or interfere with the ordinances against begging.

25.—That public charge is brought into action into the following manner:

- 1st. By institutions for working.
- 2d. By institutions for taking care of people who are unable to work.
- 3d. By institutions for alms.

VII. Division.—*Of the Workhouses.*

Art. 26.—The principal attention is to be given to those who are only incapable of serving and working on account of their want of tuition, and are still capable of receiving that tuition from their age. These are to be taught either without remuneration or at the expense of the institutions for the poor.

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27.—Besides this a register is to be kept, which is to contain a detailed list of those persons who are out of work and service, and who for that reason are either a burthen to the parish, or on account of their continuation of their want of work, would soon be a burthen to it. Not only those who wish for work are to be put on this list, but also those who are looking out for workmen. The kind of work which they can perform is to be mentioned and compared on the one hand, and on the other the kind of work required, and they are, if possible, to satisfy each other's wants reciprocally.

28.—That this end may be the more easily attained, the directors are required to be in communication with the overseers of public works, the masters of manufactories, with proprietors and societies, &c. &c. If necessary, the councils of the different parishes are to help each other by reciprocal information; and it is also to be remarked, that where there are a quantity of hands capable of working, they are to be passed into that part of the country where they are most wanted.

29.—Materials and tools are to be distributed to those paupers (who, notwithstanding all inquiries and interference, cannot obtain the necessary work), to be used at their houses until the required situation can be obtained. If in larger towns the number of these is very great, houses are to be opened and maintained at the expense of the institution for the poor, in which the paupers who are unoccupied are to work.

30.—The choice among the different sorts of work in these houses is settled according to the local circumstances, and chiefly according to the facility with which either orders from private persons can be received, or with which the material is obtained and worked. Then accordingly as the material can be used for the wants of the poor or can be usefully employed for any other purpose.

31.—The houses for the employment of the poor are always to retain their original destination; namely, an employment for the present of poor men who would otherwise be without work, and therefore do not admit any such persons whose names are not down on the above-named register. Therefore those persons are no longer allowed to work in this house after they have had an offer of work from any other quarter.

VIII. Division.—*Of the Houses for the care of the Poor.*

Art. 32.—Houses of nourishment are to be erected for those poor who, besides having no fortune or means of obtaining their livelihood, are in an extraordinary degree helpless, namely, children, sick people, old persons and cripples.

33.—Poor deserted children, orphans and foundlings, who are deprived of the natural help of their parents, are to be put under the care of good-natured nurses, so that they may attend the schools and be taught some trade for their future honourable advancement, and provided with the necessary support till they are capable of providing for themselves.

34.—With regard to poor sick people, the institutions for the poor are to provide them with the necessary shelter, attendance, medical advice, and medicines; poor women who are about to be brought to bed are to be provided with a public midwife. For this purpose, country doctors are to be appointed by the State, according to a certain order, so that their assistance may be always had. The directors of the institution for the poor are to make an arrangement with them for this purpose.

35.—For the advantage of those poor who may be far advanced in age and helplessness, and who have a particular claim to compassion, and chiefly for the advantage of idiots and those who have a great many defects, a house is to be erected in those districts in which their number is largest, and all possible care is to be taken of them, and they are to be retained there during their lives, and clothed and fed.

36.—The care of poor children, and of the helpless from sickness and age, is to be attended to and assisted by the houses of nourishment, which are established either over whole districts or over the entire kingdom, which are founded either by the application of the funds which they have already got, or for want of these, by the general co-operation of the institutions for the poor, namely, of birth and foundling houses, of mad houses, of hospitals, &c. &c.

IX. Division.—*Of Almshouses.*

Art. 37.—Poor people who do not require extraordinary care, and who are not fit to be admitted into the particular houses of nourishment, or cannot yet be received into them, but are unable to gain their livelihood, are to be assisted by alms, which, however, are not to be given without the most complete proof of want.

38.—The alms are to be given in the form of gifts of money. These gifts are sometimes to be increased, according to the price of provisions; and from time to time a maximum is to be fixed, which is on no account to be exceeded.

39.—These gifts of money may, either in part or entirely, be substituted by provisions, if this sort of aid is more easily afforded with regard to lodging, nourishment and clothing.

40.—Their lodging is to be changed every day among the different members of the parish, but the poor who are lodged are obliged to repay this lodging by work. Where there are opportunities, rooms are to be warmed, to which the poor may bring their work.

41.—The nourishment of the poor can be facilitated and insured by the equal division of them among the public, to be maintained in turn, being obliged to partake of the work of their host, or by voluntarily offered days for food, or lastly, by distribution of bread and other nourishment. Where circumstances permit, kitchens are to be erected on purpose for preparing nourishing soups, partly gratis, partly very cheap.

42.—For the clothing of the poor, the stuffs made in the workhouses are to be chiefly used; the same use is to be made of the voluntary gifts of clothes or stuffs; and those parts of the dress of the deceased poor which can still be used, if the doctors do not object on account of infection.

43.—Lastly, the almshouses have to pay the extraordinary expenses, namely, the cost of the burial of the poor, and of the church service for it; the costs of the church service and of a simple monument for distinguished benefactors of charity; the costs of the education of poor apprentices, and of helping them to further instruction, particularly for intelligent and capable children and young men; the costs of the most necessary tools for poor beginners of a trade of great capacity, under the obligation of compensation on their part; travelling money, in uncommon and unavoidable cases, and under the restriction that the money be given by the body of apprentices.

Title 3.—OF THE MAGISTERIAL AND MORAL INSPECTION OF THE CONDITION OF THE POOR.

Art. 44.—The inspection of the condition of the poor consists, besides the care for the most necessary wants, in a continued inspection

1. of each particular pauper,
2. of the public offices in conjunction with the poor institutions, and
3. of the condition of the poor in general.

Chapter 1.—Of the Inspection of each particular Pauper.

Art. 45.—The inspection of each particular pauper regards not only their moral and civil conduct in general, but also particularly their instruction, their industry, their forbidden gain by begging, the use of the support granted by poor institutions, their feigned poverty, and the punishment of the transgressors against the officers of the poor.

46.—All children of the poor should, without favour and without regard to the usual pretexts, be kept to the practice of the public school and religious instructions, as also of frequenting the work and industry schools and of learning a trade. The school money for these is a settled payment from the poor institutions, who are to come to an understanding with the teachers when poor schools do not already exist.

47.—All the poor are bound to employ themselves as apprentices to husbandry, or to some work, and to continue strictly to do so.

48.—All sorts of begging are to be suppressed according to the existing laws without exception, and every poor man shall be made acquainted with the contents of these laws when he is inscribed.

49.—No pauper who partakes of the benefactions of the poor institutions may go away from his dwelling without the knowledge and leave of the head of the village, to stay for some time, or permanently in another village, even if it is in the same district.

The same leave from the police direction is necessary when a pauper wishes, for some good reason, to go out of his police district; the leave is only to be given in both cases on well-grounded reasons, and on proofs that the poor will not be burdensome to other villages and districts; also he must give in a declaration to the same, in which, besides his name and village, and the duration of his absence, the villages to which he intends to go must be expressed.

Paupers who are found vagabonding about are to be treated as vagrants.

50.—Every pauper is indeed in general allowed to make what use he likes of the assistance afforded to him; still this does not prevent inspection concerning the use of it, and parish officers have particularly to interfere when the abuse either has influence on the maintenance and morals of the pauper, on the expenses of the poor direction itself, or on the public opinion, or where the dissipation of an immoral head of a family has a bad influence on the whole family.

51.—Paupers who have been warned in vain concerning bad conduct and idleness, shall be proceeded against without favour, by the power of magistrates, and be punished accordingly.

52.—The poor institutions can claim repayment from those hypocrites who although they possess private means, embezzle and grasp at the gifts and assistance which are only intended for true poverty, which shall be fully repaid. The poor institutions can make the same claim from those persons who have renounced their duty of supporting those relations whom they are obliged to support, either by law or by contract.

Chapter 2.—Of the particular Inspection of the Public Establishments connected with Poor Institutions.

Art. 53.—The public establishments connected with the poor institutions, namely, the providing for and maintaining institutions for the communes and districts, are of themselves under the direction of the governors of the institution; but besides this, there should be inspectors chosen out of the number of the persons belonging to the direction of the institution; and at least every three months there should be a general inspection of these institutions.

54.—The duty of changing the particular inspectors, as well as that of the general visitation, is to examine into the aforesaid establishments, to convince themselves of the order

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which prevails in them, of the good and regular treatment of the poor, and altogether of the fulfilment of the fundamental purposes, and to prevent abuses and complaints.

Chapter 3.—*Of the Inspection of the Condition of the Poor in general.*

Art. 55.—The condition of the poor in general must be followed up with much attention, to consider whether the poor institutions answer their purposes, what influence they have had from time to time on the morals, the industry, and the habit of begging, what hindrances the officers of the poor still have to contend with, and how the same may be removed in the quickest and surest way.

The poor institutions offer the best means for discovering the causes of the growth or diminution of poverty, for finding ways to prevent it, and for making useful propositions concerning it.

56.—The poor institutions are particularly to help, by advice and aid, those heads of families who by unavoidable circumstances are in danger of ruin, and supply means for saving them.

Also, the poor institutions should watch over those heads of families who by their licentious conduct are likely to require their aid, and by well-timed warnings, with the assistance of their relations, strive to dissuade them from such conduct.

57.—Besides this, the poor institutions should support the existing or projected fire and storm insurance offices, according to circumstances, and take care that savings banks for old age and want are instituted, as also loan funds; but particularly they ought to see that societies in case of sickness are instituted, by means of small subscriptions of their pay, by the apprentices, with assistance from their masters.

58.—No marriage between people without capital shall be allowed without the previous permission of the poor institutions.

Directors who do not follow these orders, nor pay attention to the Act of the 12th of July 1808 (Government Paper, page 1506,) concerning marriages in the country, have to answer for the maintenance of the new families, should they not be able to maintain themselves. In the same manner, the priests and other churchmen shall be responsible for the support of such persons as they have married without leave from the authorities, besides other fines which are imposed on this breach of the rules of the marriage ceremony.

Title 4.—OF THE SOURCES OF CHARITY.

Chap. 1.—*Of what the Poor Fund consists.*

Art. 59.—Besides the extraordinary sources, which consist partly in the restitution which hypocrites and relations who avoid their duty are obliged to make, and partly out of fines which are given to the poor fund, or may be hereafter given, are sources for charity from donations from the district fund, and from loans or from taxes.

60.—The yearly produce of all charities belongs to the poor institutions, and is used for their purposes. With the establishments for the poor are united the already existing or still accumulating capitals of one or other of the poor institutions; the gain on mortgages or on those possessions whose owners cannot be discovered; the legacies for the poor, when by the will of the deceased they are to be laid out in a regular yearly income, and the fourth part of such legacies as are destined in general for pious purposes.

61.—The voluntary donations consist of casual gifts in money and food which have been given by philanthropic persons of their own accord, for the use of the poor institutions, and in this manner are to be employed for their daily use. Besides these, are the legacies which are meant for immediate division among the poor, and those subscriptions which are collected either by single persons or by companies and corporations.

62.—General and extraordinary collections, in the name of the institutions for the poor, are to be made monthly from house to house, when the members of the parish have bound themselves to a certain subscription; also in the churches on the great holidays, and in the public-houses by means of private poor-boxes; and lastly, on all important and joyful occasions of the state, or single companies.

63.—According to the circumstances of the place, certain accidental funds can be appropriated to the uses of the poor institutions, which particularly on great joyful occasions, namely, great marriages in the taverns, the permission to have music, particularly past the stated times, processions of the apprentices, shooting matches, &c. &c., at shows, balls, masquerades, and so on.

64.—When all the aforesaid sources do not suffice to cover the wants of the poor institutions, it will be supplied out of the funds of the district, or through loans, and then only when all these means cannot be put in practice, or do not suffice to cover their wants, compulsory contributions or poor taxes are to be resorted to; the manner and amount of these are to be according to the calls of the villages and districts, and are only to be levied for a certain time. It is to be observed, however, that these taxes are to be imposed with the greatest equality, and without any exception among all classes.

Chap. 2.—*Of the use of the Poor Funds.*

The charitable institutions, whose capital must never be touched, do not properly belong to the poor institutions, but are still to be taken care of by the particular directors, who till further orders enter into the poor institutions as members, whereas the poor institutions only direct

direct the appropriation of the yearly funds by voluntary and compulsory contributions, as also the funds which do not belong to the foundation. This direction contains the four following chief classifications, the calculation for the expenses of the ensuing year, the receipts of the funds, their appropriation and their estimates.

65.—The calculations for the ensuing year, for all the institutions of every commune and every district, are to be made with allowance for every want, as well of the work as of the district and almshouses, with a probable estimate of the receipts. The foundation of the estimate is the list of the poor.

66.—Concerning the receipt of the funds of the poor institutions, the district councils and committees name certain receivers out of their own number, or choose them out of the inhabitants.

67.—The appropriation of the receipts is in general determined by the wants of the institutions themselves, with the approbation of the higher authorities.

No part of the income may be used for purposes not belonging to the institution; no article of the approved estimates may be departed from without consideration; no new expenses made which are not authorized by particular authority. Also in the use of it there shall be made a just and well weighed comparison of the wants of the different offices of the poor institutions, also of the wants of the different classes of the poor and single paupers belonging to them, and none favoured or neglected.

68.—The inhabitants are to give up what they have collected to the treasurer, who is to be either one of the district councils or committees, or is to be chosen by these out of the number of the inhabitants.

Receivers and treasurers may be united in the same person. Also a treasury for the poor may be managed by a foundation under public direction, but never by a police or magisterial authority. The treasurer may not pay away anything without public or private directions from the assembled institution. Separate directions of the authorities, or of single members, are not valid.

69.—In order that such paupers as find themselves in unavoidable want, and cannot wait for the formalities of the decrees of the poor institutions, may be immediately relieved, a sum may be given weekly to priests to be given beforehand; at the same time, however, they must act with all possible circumspection, and bring the affair into the common order as soon as possible.

70.—Concerning the use of all sums received, there is to be a reckoning made yearly, which is to be open for every one's inspection; but in the towns it is to be made known by the press.

3d Section.—OF THE BUSINESS OF THE POOR INSTITUTIONS, AND OF THEIR RELATION TO THE PUBLIC AUTHORITIES.

Title 1.—Of the Assemblies in Affairs of the Poor, and their Resolutions.

Art. 71.—Every council of the poor is to hold an assembly weekly, to dispose of the affairs of their parish, and to hear the complaints of poor orphans, and to settle them, and to give required opinions. On important occasions extraordinary sittings are to be held.

72.—In the common sittings the councils and committees are to employ themselves in various affairs, particularly in the first reception of the inscriptions of the poor in the receipt of their revenues, the money to be advanced, and the inspection of the offices belonging to the institution; in choosing and instructing in their duty the needful assistants for that purpose, the receivers, the treasurers and inspectors; in verifying the assembled poor inscriptions, in correcting them, putting them together, and renewing them yearly; in calling the candidates and partakers of the institution before them, to hear them, to decide upon the manner, amount, and duration of their support, and to arrange quartering nourishment, clothes, &c., particularly to take measures for their work and instruction, according to circumstances; to institute work and district houses; to maintain order in them, and to arrange what persons shall be received, also to settle the quarterly visitations of the aforesaid and other charitable institutions, and to watch over the decisions of the councils; to warn paupers who conduct themselves badly, and if necessary to inform the public authorities; to aid the latter in suppressing begging; to consider how unfortunate fathers of families may be set up again, the ruin of whole families prevented; inconsiderate heads of families brought to their duty, and useful assurance offices instituted and supported; as also how the causes of charity in general may be furthered, and to consult concerning them with the more respectable inhabitants, and according to circumstances to appeal for assistance to the common authorities; to arrange an exact inspection of the resources of the poor institutions; to insure the full receipt of the income; to require payment from delaying debtors; to watch over the proper use of the funds; to make the yearly estimates; to settle the yearly bills; also to inquire minutely into the receipts and expenses every week. Lastly, to consider whether and how the want of means is to be supplied from the common fund, or by loans or particular taxes and poor contributions; also what necessities are to be supplied by the district institutions; with what means and revenues these district institutions are to be endowed, and how the subscriptions for this purpose are to be divided amongst the different institutions.

73.—The sittings in which the accounts for the year are brought up, are to be held publicly, and questions for more particular explanation from householders are not to be forbid. The time of their sittings is therefore always to be publicly announced.

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74.—In those cases where the wants of the poor fund are to be supplied out of the common fund, or by loans, or particular taxes and poor contributions, the district counsellors are to assemble in towns and large markets with the municipal counsellors and magistrates, for the purpose of taking council, and coming to decisions. In the smaller markets and country meetings affairs of the aforesaid description are to be brought before the assembled public, and submitted to their determination.

75.—Where these affairs of justice occur lawyers are to be chosen and joined to the sittings, and to be heard with their counsel.

76.—The police directors and commissaries are to take the chair in the meetings for the poor, where there are not particular presidents named; and the judges of the district tribunal at the places of their office; but otherwise the clergyman. Short protocols are to be made of their discussions, at which every member is at liberty to give his opinions, his disapprobations, and his wishes; the determinations are to be entered into them, according to the unanimity or majority of the votes, and to be signed by all present.

77.—The clerks of the police and of the magistrates are to be used for the writings; besides these the schoolmasters are to be employed for a given annual payment.

All useless writings are carefully to be avoided, and all are to be arranged with the greatest simplicity.

78.—The execution of the decisions, if no higher consent is necessary, is to be carried into effect by the members of the poor institutions, and of the committees appointed for that purpose. The announcement of the decrees to the different parties is to be verbal. Whatever is to be made known to a community, or a whole district, will be stuck up publicly or in the weekly papers, both after examination previously made by the police authorities; to these authorities are also to be left the measures which are to be taken, where punishment and compulsion is to be applied.

Title 2.—*Of the subordination of the Poor Institution.*

Art. 79.—The poor institutions and committees in such towns as have no police directors or commissaries, also in the market-towns and parishes, are directly under the control of the district tribunal, and under their guidance and inspection.

These should always have a continual knowledge of the condition of the poor institution in all its branches; to look from time to time into the description of the poor; to watch that the meetings for the poor, which they have to visit sometimes in single parishes, be kept industriously and orderly; to guard that no district should neglect the care of the poor for any reason whatever; to stop any arbitrary execution which occurs of the power given to the poor institutions, particularly in the employment of the funds, and in unfit delays in giving the accounts; to visit the poor institutions often; to correct abuses and disorders; to instruct the counsellors and committees in their duty, and in the course of their business, and to keep them in continual useful activity; in short, to help the institutions in every way, and to give the necessary assistance to the execution of their decisions, if they should not be contrary to any rule or law, or law process.

80.—To the particular duties and rights of the district tribunal belongs the ratification of the members and assistants chosen to be counsellors and committees for the poor institution; the discussion of the complaints brought against the decrees of the latter, the decision of the differences between the poor institutions of different parishes, the examination by the magistrates of the accounts for the next year.

81.—In the towns where there are police directors or commissaries, the counsellors for the poor are under the authority of the general and local commissaries. These can still, under some circumstances, empower the police directors and police commissaries to be their substitutes, and the latter remain always empowered and obliged to be attentive to the state and condition of the poor institutions, to inform the counsellors of the existing wants and abuses and to demand relief of them, and if it be not given, to call in the interference of the higher authorities.

82.—To the immediate inspection of the poor institution in the last named larger towns, the general circle commissaries have also the charge of the district tribunals.

83.—The general and local commissaries ratify the choice of the counsellors and other assistants for the institutions under their direction; they decide the complaints brought against the decrees and orders of the under police, and any differences which might arise between them; they give in their estimates and accounts of their offices at their examination, and are to inform themselves of the business going on in the district tribunals; they decide about the cases in which the deficiency of the poor money is covered, out of the parish purse or by loans; they further decide about the offers as to the necessaries and requisites for the general institutions, and lastly, about the measures which are to be taken in matters of law. About proposals of particular taxes (Article 63) and of the contributions for the poor, they have to refer to the finance directors.

84.—The inspection of the poor institutions of the whole kingdom is given to the ministry for the interior, which is to receive regularly the report of the state of this branch of administration from the annual accounts and other proper sources, and which is to issue the necessary general orders and regulations, and is to judge of the proposals for the establishment, the arrangement and fitting up of workhouses, and others in which the poor are taken care of, for single districts, whole circles, or for the entire kingdom, which decides with the finance all proposals for allowing certain taxes and poor subscriptions, decides the complaints brought against the general circle and local commissaries, if such do
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not belong to the private council, and causes the election of certain poor directors where it may be found advisable.

In having these Articles made known by the *regierungs-blatt*, We command our general circle and local commissaries to put them into execution without delay; to give the necessary directions with respect to arrangements already made, to the police directors, police commissaries, and to the district tribunals; to pursue this important affair with uninterrupted attention and activity, and to give Us an account of the plan of their progress every three months, until the poor institutions are every where established.

We trust to the dutiful zeal of the higher authorities and of the inferior officers in whose care the poor institutions are placed, to the particular aid of the clergymen and the heads of the parishes, and to the well known feelings of Our subjects for benevolence and order; and We hereafter expect that Our Royal resolutions shall be every where acknowledged and put into execution.

Munich, 17 November 1816.

Max. Joseph.

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THE following QUESTIONS apply to Customs and Institutions, whether general throughout the State, or peculiar to certain Districts, and to relief given :—

1st. By the voluntary payment of individuals or corporate bodies ?—By voluntary payment of individuals.

2d. By institutions specially endowed for that purpose ?—There are six different institutions in Frankfort ; town and country.

3d. By the Government, either general or local ?—Government poor funds, revenues from the gates on entering at night, and fines.

4th. By any one or more of these means combined ?—Many poor receive assistance from several of these institutions with the knowledge of the others.

And you are requested to state particularly the cases (if any) in which the person relieved has a legal claim ?—Never any legal claim.

VAGRANTS.

1. To what extent and under what form does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country ?—The poor in the town and territory of Frankfort receive sufficient support so as to be kept from begging in the streets ; but on the two weekly market-days, a good number of beggars from the neighbouring states enter the town, under the pretext of selling baskets, matches, &c., and ask for alms.

2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country, seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging ; and by whom afforded, and under what regulations ?—An assistance of 2d. per day is granted, by the police office, to beggars passing through the territory of Frankfort ; and suspicious characters, without passport or other satisfactory papers, are escorted over the frontiers by police officers. The sick and lame are provided with vehicles for that purpose. This assistance is only granted one day.

DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are they, or any part of their families, billeted or quartered on householders ?—Begging in the streets is not allowed ; the police arrest the beggar and conduct him out of the town, in case he is a stranger ; and on repetition, he is liable to be sent to the house of correction for a day or two. The poor belonging to the city or territory of Frankfort are never billeted or quartered on householders.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals ?—The poor are under the control of the police, living in their own or hired dwellings or lodgings.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there district houses of industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families, and supplying them with food, clothes, &c., and in which they are set to work ?—Under the control of the committee superintending the general poor funds intended alike for the poor of the three Christian religions. Through this establishment, the weekly assistance is given in money and loaves of rye-bread, according to the number of children and the degree of distress, but not in clothes nor free lodgings. Such loaves weigh 3 lb., and each costs, at the present price of rye, six kreutzer, equal to 2d. per loaf. See below. There are no district houses of industry.

4. To what extent and under what regulations do any religious institutions give assistance to the destitute, by receiving them as inmates, or by giving them alms ?—The regulations vary according to the existing funds and the annual income of the several religious institutions named further on ; none of them supply the poor with board and lodgings, but merely with money. Schooling is paid for poor children, and the premium is paid for their apprenticeship after the boys are confirmed, which generally takes place between the age of 13 and 15, according to their mental and bodily faculties.

5. To what extent and under what regulations is work provided at their own dwellings for those who have trades, but do not procure work for themselves ? or, 6. Is work provided for such persons in agriculture or on public works ?—There exist two establishments which supply the poor with work in their own dwellings : 1st, The Frauenverein or Association of Ladies ; a most useful establishment, which provides poor females with work at home ; they receive the raw materials, and payment for the work. 2d, The Versorgungs-house ; an establishment superintended by ladies and gentlemen, where the poor of both sexes are supplied with work (all trades), and the raw material charged to the account of each individual whilst they are credited for the proceeds. They can either work at home, or in the locality belonging to the establishment, supported by donations and annual subscription. A large hall is warmed in winter, where they are allowed to work during the day-time ; they are at liberty to take their dinner and beer in the hall, for which their account is debited. A few bed-rooms are reserved for cripples and infirm old people. The balance of

of their account is paid to them. Except mending the high and bye-roads, other work is hardly ever given to the poor, such as public work, &c.*

7. To what extent and under what regulations are fuel, clothing or money distributed to such persons or their families; at all times of the year, or during any particular seasons?—There exists no fixed regulation as to fuel, clothing or money distributed. To prevent scarcity of fuel, Government keeps a considerable stock of beech and fir-wood, out of which the wants of the poor are supplied at all seasons (at cost price), either on paying for it or gratis, as an assistance from the various poor establishments, in small lots of three logs each, and even in single logs three feet long, taxed at 2*d.* each.

8. To what extent and under what regulations are they relieved by their children being taken into schools, and fed, clothed and educated or apprenticed?—All orphans and children of poor citizens and soldiers are received and educated gratis, in a well-organized establishment called the Orphan-house; they must be six, and not above 13 years old; they must have had the small-pox, or be vaccinated. Epileptic children are excluded. The boys are apprenticed, and the girls taught cookery, to facilitate their being placed as servants; they are well clothed and well instructed.

9. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are the relatives of the destitute compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking charge of part of their families?—Neither parents nor relations are obliged by the law to assist their relations. The committees of the several poor institutions are obliged to apply to such relations to encourage and to request them to contribute towards it, but it cannot be claimed as a right.

10. To what extent and under what regulations are they assisted by loans?—There exists but one small donation of about 600*l.*, intended for loans to mechanics and tradesmen, which does not appear to have done much good, as it has already been reduced to 400*l.* through losses.

IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there almshouses or other institutions for the reception of those who, through age, are incapable of earning their subsistence?—The old and infirm, as well as the poor in general, who cannot get their livelihood by their own work, are entitled to apply for relief to one or several of the poor establishments, which apprise each other mutually of the extent of the assistance granted. There are three institutions founded by donations; one for six old men and six old women, having each their own room, and breakfast, dinner, tea, and fires gratis; two other establishments receive each 12 widows, or daughters of the higher classes, to whose option it is left to take such support in money, from 40*l.* to 50*l.* a year, and to remain with their relations. There is a fourth, for 12 daughters of the patricians of Frankfort (nobility), who have each a couple of rooms, and dine together; they have a certain allowance for pocket money, and may stay for life on remaining single.

2. To what extent and under what regulations is relief in food, fuel, clothing or money afforded them at their homes?—The extent of the relief granted depends on the degree of poverty, as well as on the information collected by the committees as to the character received.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—The Fraunverein, or Association of Ladies, is the only establishment which supports and superintends the poor quartered in private houses.

4. To what extent and under what regulations are they quartered or billeted on the householders?—No regulations exist on that head.

5. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are their relatives compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking part of their families?—No law in existence at Frankfort.

SICK.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there district institutions for the reception of the sick? or, 2. are surgical and medical relief afforded to the poor at their own homes?—There are six hospitals in the town of Frankfort: one for servants and strangers; two for burghers or citizens; one for the itch patients; one for epilepsy; one for mad and insane people. The poor receive medical and surgical advice gratis in the hospitals, as well as in their dwellings. The six youngest physicians on the list are obliged to perform this duty without any remuneration, or, some of them, a very small one. A medical board, named by Government, superintends the whole. The reformed or Calvinist church grants stipends to young parishioners to defray their expenses at the university and later travels; these young men are bound to visit the poor gratis who receive assistance out of their poor funds.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick?—Under the guidance of the committee for the general poor funds, and under three other committees of the confessional funds belonging to the Lutheran, Calvinist and Catholic separate poor funds, arising from the interest on legacies, annual subscriptions, and money collected after Divine service. The three latter grant assistance in money, clothes and schooling, and are well superintended.

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4. To what extent and under what regulations is assistance given to lying-in women at their homes, or in public establishments?—There is no establishment for lying-in women. Six midwives, received by Government after their examination, and the six before-named physicians, attend the poor gratis. The Frauenverein (Ladies' Association) attends to wants and comforts in such cases.

5. To what extent and under what regulations are there any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick?—Relations cannot be compelled to give assistance. The sick are placed in the hospitals, where they remain under the best care until perfectly recovered; when needed, each patient is attended by a nurse.

CHILDREN :

Illegitimate.

1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall; wholly upon the mothers, or wholly upon the fathers; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations?—If an illegitimate child is born at Frankfort, and of parents either burghers or under the protection of Government by special licence, it enjoys the same privileges as other children; but in case they are to be placed into one of the public institutions, they must, by an Act of the Senate, be received as illegitimate children, in order to enable them to be received as apprentices to any trade.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards?—The father of an illegitimate child (if rightly ascertained) is called upon to contribute towards its support, from 10 *d.* to 2 *s.* 6 *d.* a week. In case the mother has no means to do so, the child falls to the charge of the poor institutions.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?—No other regulations, than the above for illegitimate children, exist for foundlings, that must be supported at Government's expense, which makes agreements with the poor institutions about board, lodging, &c.

Orphans, Foundlings, or Deserted Children.

4. To what extent and under what regulations are they taken into establishments for their reception?—If borne by Christian parents, citizens are under the protection of the State. The child must be three years old, and not more than 13: the child must have had the small-pox, or be vaccinated: epileptic children are excluded.—Foundlings and deserted children are received into the orphan establishment at the charge of Government.

5. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?—The orphan institution takes also charge of younger children, under three years of age; they get board and lodging in the town or in the country.

6. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—At 1 *s.* 8 *d.* a week; clothes, medicaments, &c. gratis.

7. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—No obligation.

CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception?—Cripples are taken into the poor-houses: the number is not considerable.—For the deaf and dumb, and blind, no public institutions; they are assisted by private institutions and individuals.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?—At the charge of the poor institutions, but not quartered on householders.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—They receive soup, bread and money from the general poor funds, and from the Ladies' Association (Frauenverein).

4. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—No degree of relationship compelled to support them.

IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception?—Idiots are generally boarded and lodged at the charge of the Government, or the poor establishments on which the parents have some claims through annual contributions past or present.—There is but one lunatic asylum, particularly well-organized; patients are received gratis when poor, others are received against payment according to their means.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders? or, 3. boarded with individuals?—Not quartered on householders, except against an arrangement to be made.

4. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—Relations are obliged to contribute towards their support according to their means, on which subject negotiations take place between the parties and the poor establishments.

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

You are requested to state whether the receipt, or the expectation of relief, appears to produce any and what effect,

1st. On the industry of the labourers?—In the orphan or poor-house, children are taught every thing useful, even vocal and instrumental music, drawing, agricultural labour, and all work in the house, to make useful servants, &c.

2d. On their frugality?—Great attention is paid to frugality; repeated insobriety is punished by being sent to the house of correction.

3d. On the age at which they marry?—At the age of 14, they are placed as apprentices or servants, &c. The Government prescribes no age for marrying, but the permission to marry is only granted on proving a livelihood.

4th. On the mutual dependence and affection of parent, children, and other relatives?—At certain hours, on Sundays, parents may visit their children. Every New Year's day, and on deaths in the family or other particular occasions, the children are allowed to visit their parents. With few exceptions, the children appear very much attached to their relations.

5. What, on the whole, is the condition of the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, as compared with the condition of the person subsisting on alms or public charity. Is the condition of the latter, as to food and freedom from labour, more or less eligible? (See p. 261 & 335 of the Poor Law "Extracts.")—In general, the poor are so well supported in the charity institutions, that they live nearly as, and even more, comfortable than the common labourer who earns 5 s. a week. In the orphan or poor-house, the allowance is as follows:—For children (6 to 15 years) meat three times a week, from two, three, to four ounces per day, at dinner and supper; soup, from 1 to 1½ plateful, dinner and supper daily; bread in four portions per day, total 1½ lb., per week 148 ounces; fruit at supper in summer; beer, at dinner only, from ½ to ¾ pints daily. Prices: beef, 1 lb. 3 ½ d.; veal, 3 d.; mutton, 3 ½ d.; pork, 3 d.; bread, mixed rye and wheat, 1 lb. 1 ½ d.; beer, 2 d. a quart; potatoes, 1 s. a bushel. For the ushers and servants belonging to the establishment, two meals a day: dinner, 5 ounces meat, soup, greens, potatoes, butter and cheese; supper, meat, soup and salade ommelets, &c. The above allowance is considered fully sufficient for the children, as well as for the grown inmates. The rooms, beds and furniture are kept particularly clean. In summer, the children (boys) are obliged to bathe in the river, and are taught to swim by masters engaged for the purpose. In consequence of the careful and cleanly education, the morals are improved, and on an average the children there educated turn out better subjects than those merely kept to school and living at home.

LABOURERS, &c.

1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month, or the year, with and without provisions in summer and in winter?—Mason's wages, about 1 s. 4 d. a day; carpenter's, 1 s. 6 d.; in winter about 2 d. a day less; to begin work soon after sun-rise till six in the evening, without provisions from their masters or employers, but it is customary to allow each man 2 d. a day for beer, under the denomination of drink-money. The pay of a Frankfort common soldier is 4 d. a day. Their mess stands them in 2 d. a day, and is very substantial, including ½ lb. of meat per head.

2. Is piece-work general?—Piece-work is customary with carpenters, joiners, &c., but not general; a good many masters, such as coopers, tailors and others, board and lodge their journeymen at their own house: this used to be the general custom, but has fallen off within the last 20 years.

3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—Day-work and piece-work on an average, from 14 l. to 28 l. a year, according to their abilities and industry. Labourers coming to town from the neighbouring country, receive 1 s. a day in general; individuals working in tobacco and snuff manufactories, 10 d. a day. Many of these labourers hold an acre or two of land, superintended by his family.

4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?—The pay of a porter is from 7 s. 6 d. to 11 s. 6 d. a week. The wages of a man-servant, with board, lodging and livery, from 3 l. 10 s. to 10 l. a year; without board, lodging and livery, 30 l. a year. No servant or labourer can save much on a similar income. The needy obtain free schooling for their children, as well as religious instruction, and the girls are taught needle-work, &c. Parents who can afford it pay 2 fl. a year for schooling.

5. Is there any, and what employment for women and children?—Women work in the fields, in tobacco and snuff manufactories, washerwomen, charwomen. As there are no other manufactories in Frankfort, the children work in the fields, and earn from 2 d. to 4 d. a day.

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6. What can women, and children under 16, earn per week, in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed?—By washing, ironing, spinning, knitting, &c. from 1 s. to 1 s. 4 d. a day upon an average. As charwomen, or otherwise employed in families, the pay is 8 d. a day with board.

7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8, and 5 years, respectively, (the eldest a boy), expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?—Upon an average, about 1 s. 8 d. a day. If a widow, she is entitled to free schooling, and may also apply for a weekly allowance of bread for the youngest children; whilst a boy of 14 is generally apprenticed to some trade or other.

8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children, and, if so, on what food?—Yes: twice meat a week; soup, vegetables, potatoes, bread, coffee and beer daily.

9. Could it lay by anything, and how much?—They may save a trifle, if very industrious and saving; but hardly more than a couple of pounds a year.

10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?—The labourers living in the town have no land; they generally live in lodgings. Some of the day-labourers coming to town in the morning, have at times a quarter, half or one acre of land.

11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations?—The better class of labourers possess houses, of which they let part to those who are not so well off. Many of them are gardeners: their wives and children come to market with cabbages, potatoes, &c.

12. The rent of labourers' habitation, and price on sale?—The rent of a labourer's habitation is from 2 l. 10 s. to 4 l. per annum. The sale price of a house in Frankfort may be adopted at 100 l. to 160 l., but there are very few of that description; and in general 300 l. to 500 l. is the value. Such a house is let to four, five, and even six different parties.

13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—Land is hardly ever let to labourers; the rent is from 9 s. to 11 s. an acre per year; and the value, according to the soil and the distance from town, from 17 l. to 25 l. an acre.

14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?—The population of Frankfort and the suburb, Sachsenhausen, is adopted to be 50,000 souls.

Deaths in 1830	-	-	1,045	} 4,620 in four years; or, deaths 1,150 in one year; or, 1 in 43 $\frac{1}{2}$.
1831	-	-	1,218	
1832	-	-	1,127	
1833	-	-	1,230	

15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?—

Births in 1830	-	-	1,056	} 4,147 in four years; or, births 1,037 in one year; or, 1 in 48 $\frac{2}{10}$.
1831	-	-	1,015	
1832	-	-	1,076	
1833	-	-	1,000	

16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?—

Marriages, 1830	-	-	267	} 1,060 in four years; or, marriages 265 in one year; or, 1 to every 188 $\frac{7}{10}$ persons.
1831	-	-	279	
1832	-	-	262	
1833	-	-	252	

17. The average number of children to a marriage?—Average from five to six children to a marriage.

18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?—In the year 1833, births 1,000; of which 130 illegitimate (67 Christian, 63 Israelite) children; or, 1 in 7 $\frac{7}{10}$.

19, 20, 21. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first, 10th and 18th year?—Deaths in 1833:—

	Males	Females.	Total.	
In the first year	-	-	90	- 87 - 177 - or, 1 in 282 $\frac{1}{2}$.
From 2d to 6th year	-	-	37	- 40 - 77 - or, 1 in 649 $\frac{3}{10}$.
From 7th to 19th year	-	-	23	- 42 - 65 - or, 1 in 769 $\frac{2}{10}$.
From 20th to 25th year	-	-	41	- 18 - 59 - or, 1 in 847 $\frac{4}{10}$.
Upwards of 25	-	-	379	- 326 - 705 - or, 1 in 70 $\frac{9}{10}$.

22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—Men, from 25 to 36; females, from 18 to 27 years old.

23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—An application for permission to marry must be accompanied by a written consent of the parents (if both living) of both parties. The banns must be published on a Sunday morning from the pulpit by the officiating clergyman, stating, besides the Christian and family names, their trade or business, and if a widower, widow or spinster. The parties cannot be married but after the third Sunday is over, so that most marriages take place on Mondays (15th day after the banns); and objections against the marriage (such as previous engagements or other reasons) must be brought forth before the third Sunday is over.

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24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried; 2d, the married, save? 25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—Wages to men and female servants run generally from 2 *l.* to 8 *l.* per annum; and although low, yet some lay by annually, as appears from the saving bank books, where they receive so small a saving as one florin, equal to 1 *s.* 8 *d.*; and when accumulated to 10 florins, or 16 *s.* 8 *d.*, they receive 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. interest a year on such deposits, which dividend may be added to the capital. This useful establishment begun 12 years ago, and the last balance-sheet shows that the deposits of 4,024 individuals amount to 821,825 *fl.* 23 *c.*, equal to 70,000 *l.* sterling, or about 17 *l.* 8 *s.* each. Such savings are also invested in Frankfort bonds or obligations, bearing 4 and 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ interest.

British Consulate,
Free City of Frankfort, May 1834.

Employment given to the poor in the establishment called Versorgungs-house, superintended by ladies and gentlemen, named in the Answer to Question 5, under the head "Destitute Able-bodied."

Knitting stockings, sleeves, nets for fishing, covering vines, trees, &c.

Seaming and mending shirts, aprons, wool sacks and other bags.

Spinning flax, hemp, silk, wool, cotton dog's-hair, &c.

Picking and cleansing coffee, gum, hops, rice, lentils, wool, sarsaparilla, cardamoms, sago, horsehair, &c.

Grinding and pounding colours, &c., spices, mustard, sugar, linseed, &c.

Carding, twisting and spooling wool, silk and cotton-yarn.

Making and mending baskets, chairs, &c.

Average Expenses, six years, from 1826 to 1832; from the General Poor Funds Book.

			<i>fl.</i>	<i>c.</i>		<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>	
Per family	-	-	54	18 $\frac{3}{4}$	equal to	90	6	per annum.
—	-	-	-	8 $\frac{3}{4}$	—	-	-	3 per day.
Per one person	-	-	16	49 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	28	-	per annum.
—	-	-	-	2 $\frac{3}{4}$	—	-	-	1 per day.

Including assistance in money, bread, fuel, clothes and medicaments.

The following TABLE is a copy of the Register-book kept by the Committee superintending the General Poor Funds.

Copy of Account Book of the GENERAL POOR INSTITUTION REGISTER, FRANKFORT SUR MER.

Page.	NAME.	Where Born, 1833.	Age.	Religion.	Clergyman or Confessor.	Dwelling.		Settled here in the Year.	Single or Married.	CHILDREN.				
						La.	No.			NAMES.	Age.	Kept to School, where?	Where in Service or at Work.	Where Boarded.
	J. Adam His wife Elizabeth, born Fenning.	Frankfort - Bornheim -	Years. 52 40	Lutheran - Catholic	-	E.	6	- - Burgher: or Resident on per- mission.	-	William Catherine Julia Peter R. Q. L.	26 24 22 20 12 10 8	Journeyman tailor - Maid servant. Seamstress. Carpenter's apprentice. Orphans' house. Kept to school at	- Abroad.	
PROPERTY.			EXPECTANCIES.			Business.		Able or Incapacity Causes.	Daily earnings.	EXTRA SUPPORT.		Observations on his readiness to Work, and general Conduct.		
What?	Where?	Derived from	How much?							From whence?	How much?			
1 House under mort- gage. 1 share of 100 <i>l.</i> Burial Insurance Company.	-	- - Expec- tancy by in- heritance.	About 500 <i>f.</i>	- - Labourer; the wife washes, and charwoman.		- - The husband has a rupture, the wife sickly.		40 kreutzers, 1 <i>s.</i> 1 <i>d.</i>		- - Catholic poor funds. Lutheran poor funds.	2 <i>fl.</i> per month. Schooling and clothing for the children.	- - Both man and wife are active and industrious, but often pre- vented by illness from working.		
ALMS OR ASSISTANCE GRANTED.														
In Money Weekly.			Food or Victuals.			For House-rent, Quarterly.			REMARKS.					
Date.	<i>fl.</i> <i>kr.</i>	Time.	Date	What and how much?	Time.	Date.	<i>fl.</i> <i>kr.</i>	Time.						
January	- 48	For 6 months	-	4 loaves per week	not fixed.	-	3	-	-	January 6 - 20 - -	a truss for the husband. a pair of shoes and 2 shifts for the wife. wood, (fuel.)	- - The assistance cannot be augmented, and in case of sickness is to be received in the hospital. The wife died; the funeral expenses were granted.		

British Consulate, Frankfort Sur Mer,
May 1834.

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LETTER from G. S. Jerningham, Esq. to John Backhouse, Esq., transmitting Papers relative to the CONDITION of the POOR in Holland.

SIR,

The Hague, November 12, 1833.

I HAVE the honour to transmit to you herewith some Papers sent to me yesterday by M. Verstolk, upon the Condition of the Poor in Holland; which I had asked for in compliance with, and in the terms of, your note of the 12th of August; together with a copy of the Note which accompanied them.

I have, &c.

G. S. Jerningham.

John Backhouse, Esq.
&c. &c. &c.

Enclosure No. 1, in Mr. Jerningham's Despatch to Mr. Backhouse, of 12 November 1833.

Monsieur,

La Haye, le 11 Novembre 1833.

EN réponse à la demande que vous avez bien voulu faire au Département des Affaires Etrangères, par votre office, du 18 Août dernier, j'ai l'honneur de vous envoyer ci-joint copie d'une note rédigée au Ministère de l'Intérieur, et de ses deux Annexes, contenant les renseignemens que l'on a pu rassembler sur les réglemens adoptés aux Pays-Bas relativement à l'administration des Secours et des Etablissemens de Charité.

Je saisis, &c.

(signé)

Verstolk de Soelen.

A Monsieur Jerningham,
&c. &c. &c.

Enclosure No. 2, in Mr. Jerningham's Despatch to Mr. Backhouse, of November 12, 1833.

NOTA ter beantwoording der vragen door den Britschen Zaak gelastigden in deszelfs missive aan Zijne Excellentie den Baron van Zuylen van Nyevelt, dd 18. Augustus ll. gedaan.

VOLGENS het burgerlyk wetboek mag geen armbestuur, eene erfstelling, Legaat of Schenking onder de levenden aanvaarden, zonder daartoe de magtiging van wege het Gouvernement bekomen te hebben.

Tydens de inlyving dezer Gewesten in het Fransche Keizerryk zyn, wel is waar de Fransche wetten, betrekkelijk de daarstelling van Bureaux van Weldadigheid en Administratien der Godshuizen, ook in de Hollandsche Departementen executoir verklaard, doch zy zyn slechts in zeer weinige provincien met de daad in werking gebragt, en de daaruit in die weinige provincien voortgevloeide organisatie, is, in 1814, weder vervangen, door eene by Koninklyk besluit voorgeschrevene inrigting, meer overeenstemmende met het gene van oudsher hier te lande had bestaan en in de meeste provincien by voortdoring was blyven bestaan, en waarvan de hieronder volgende byzonderheden den aard zullen doen kennen.

De Kopielyk hierby gaande wet van den 28. November 1818, (regelt het onderstands domicilie der behoeftigen; hunne ondersteuning geschiedt, naar aanleiding daarvan, plaatselyk, men is in Noord Nederland steeds uitgegaan van het beginsel dat die last, in de eerste plaats, rust op, de in de gemeenten bestaande armbesturen der Godsdienstige gezindten; doch wanneer de middelen van zoodanig kerkelyk armbestuur ontoereikend zyn, kan hetzelfde zich, onverschillig tot welke gezindheid zoodanig armbestuur behoort, tot het plaatselyk bestuur om bystand wenden, welke, na gedaan onderzoek, ook gewoonlyk verleend en, in verhouding tot het vermogen der burgerlyke gemeente, door deszelfs bestuur geregeld wordt.

Zoodanige Armen echter, welke of geen lidmaat van eenig kerkgenootschap zyn, of van wier Godsdienstige gezindheid, in de plaats alwaar zy hun onderstands domicilie hebben geen kerkelyk armbestuur bestaat, worden van wege het Gemeente bestuur der plaats, alwaar zy hun onderstands domicilie hebben, ondersteund; ten welken einde er in veele groote steden en Gemeenten een afzonderlyk en aan het gemeente bestuur rekenplichtig burgerlyk armbestuur is daargesteld, terwyl in de overige steden en gemeenten, die onderstand, of, door den burgemeester of, door een daartoe door hem benoemden armmeester wordt verleend.

De Gast of Ziekenhuizen die in vele steden bestaan zyn meest overal burgerlyke Gestichten, welke voor rekening van het plaatselyk bestuur door één, door hetzelfde benoemd, Collegie van Regenten worden beheerd, en in welke gast of Ziekenhuizen, alle ingezetenen, zonder onderscheid van Godsdienstige gezindte, worden opgenomen. Eenige dezer gast of ziekehuizen zyn echter af zonderlyke fondatien die geheel of gedeeltelyk uit derzelver eigene Inkomsten bestaan.

Onder de Wees, en Kinderhuizen, als mede de Godshuizen voor oude lieden, zyn onderscheiden fundatien, welke geheel of gedeeltelyk uit hare eigene Inkomsten bestaan, terwyl de overige meestendeels het eigendom zyn van byzondere kerkelyke armbesturen, het geen in de groote steden byna algemeen het geval der wees of kinderhuizen is.

De vondelingen en verlaten Kinderen worden, ten laste der plaats in welke zy zyn verlate, verzorgd in de Kindergestichten der Maatschappij van Weldadigheid, door welke

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instelling almede de bedelaars in de daartoe door haar ingerigte en door het Gouvernement erkende gestichten verzorgd worden, ten laste der plaats van hun onderstands domicilie.'

Er bestaan drie *plaatselyke* Werkhuizen, als één te Amsterdam, één te Middelburg, en één in de Gemeente Nieuwe Pekel A., in de provincie Groningen, in welke, behoeftigen, meestal zoodanige welke zich vrywillig aangeven, worden opgenomen onder de verplichting om zoo veel mogelijk hun onderhoud door arbeid te moeten vergelden; voorts zyn er, in verschillende plaatsen, Een en twintig werkplaatsen van liefdadigheid die aan behoeftigen, welke tydelijk gebrek aan werk hebben, het zy in de werkplaatsen zelve, het zy aan de woningen der armen werk verschaffen.

De nevens gaande Tabel doet het getal kennen der personen aan welke Jaarlyks door de daarin vermelde openbare burgerlyke of Kerkelyke instellingen van Weldadigheid onderstand is verleend geworden of werk is verschaft. Hierby valt echter aantemerkken dat in Nederland niet gelyk elders wel eens plaats heeft, alleenlyk onder het getal der onderstand genoten hebbenden, de hoofden der huis gezinnen worden gerekend, maar ook alle by hen inwonende Kinderen.

Behalve de voormelde instellingen, bestaan er in veele plaatsen nog vereenigingen en genootschappen wier doel het is, om, op de eene of andere wyze, onderstand te verleenen, als daar zyn die tot ondersteuning van Schamele armen; die tot verleening van onderstand aan behoeftige kraamvrouwen, en de Commissien of vereenigingen, welke gedurende den winter uitdeelingen doen van levens middelen en brandstoffen.

Tot een doelmatig en oordeel kundig onderwijs aan de Kinderen der armen, zoo van bedeelde, als niet bedeelde doch behoeftige ouders, is byna in alle plaatsen kosteloos gelegenheid gegeven, het zy in de door de plaatselyke of armbesturen bekostigd wordende armenscholen, en waar deze ontbreken in de gewone scholen, gemeenschappelyk met andere Kinderen; ook neemt het getal der leerlingen jaarlyks toe. In 1831, heeft het getal derzelve in de eigenlyke armenscholen bedragen 36,378, en het getal der leerlingen, aan welke in scholen gemeenschappelyk met andere Kinderen onderwijs gegeven werd 372,31. Zoo dat er in alles aan 73,609 Kinderen van behoeftigen kosteloos onderwijs is gegeven.

De burgerlyke armbesturen en de gesubsidieerd wordende kerkelyke armbesturen, zyn aan het plaatselyk bestuur verantwoording van derzelve ontvangst en uitgave verschuldigt; zy zyn daaren-boven, even als de niet gesubsidieerd wordende kerkelyke armbesturen, gehouden om jaarlyks de noodige inlichtingen te geven, ten einde het Gouvernement in Staat te stellen om, ingevolge het 228 artikel der grond wet, jaarlyks aan de Staten Generaal een verslag, aangaande het armbestuur en de opvoeding der armen kinderen te kunnen aanbieden.

De gelden bestemd voor den onderstand, het verschaffen van werk en van kosteloos onderwijs der armen bestaan uit :

1. De inkomsten van de eigendommen der onderscheidene instellingen en de op sommige plaatsen aan eenige derzelve toegekende boeten of andere regten.

2. Uit Collecten.

3. Uit door de gemeente besturen en, in zeer enkele gevallen, ook door de Provincien of den Staat verleende subsidien; terwijl sommige werkplaatsen en armen scholen ook door armbesturen worden gesubsidieerd.

4. Uit de opbrengst van het werk of der Koloniale Etablissementen.

5. Uit contributien en vrywillige bydragen, en uit de door de Maatschappij van Weldadigheid by contract bedongen gelden voor de by haar uitbesteede personen.

Over de twaalf Jaren van 1820 tot 1831 gemiddeld hebben elk Jaar de ontvangsten van de besturen voor de huiszittende armen en die der Godshuizen te zamen bedragen.

1. Aan Inkomsten van Eigendommen en toegekende regten	-	\$	2,461,883	26
2. Aan opbrengst der collecten	-	-	1,320,551	48
3. Aan subsidien verleend door:				
a. De Gemeenten	-	-	\$ 1,779,719	67
b. De Provincien of den Staat	-	-	38,642	78
			1,818,362	45
			5,600,797	19
Uitmakende - - - \$				
Waar door alle de uitgaven dier Instellingen zyn gedekt geworden; en wanneer men nu by bovenstaande som nog voegt, insgelyks over voormelde twaalf Jaren, gemiddeld:				
1. Voor de plaatselyke werkhuizen en werkplaatsen van liefdadigheid:				
a. Wegens inkomsten van Eigendommen	-	-	7,458	50
b. Wegens kollekten	-	-	7,971	63
c. Wegens subsidien van de Gemeenten	-	-	99,083	87
2. Voor de thans opgehevene bedelaars werkhuizen:				
a. Wegens daggelden betaald door de Gemeenten voor de daar in geplaatste bedelaars	-	-	41,090	40
b. Wegens provinciale subsidien	-	-	871	49
3. Voor de Maatschappij van de Weldadigheid:				
a. Wegens contributien en vrywillige bydragen van particulieren	-	-	48,893	55
b. Wegens bedongen bestedings gelden	-	-	208,651	69
			6,014,818	32
Dan verkrygt men in alles eene som van - - - \$				

Waar door over een tydvak van 12 Jaren gemiddeld, is voorzien in alle de uitgaven der op de nevens gaande tabel vermelde instellingen, welke som van \$6,014,818 32 insgelyks omgeslagen over het gemiddeld getal der personen (241,514) welke elk Jaar, op de eene of andere wyze in den verleenden onderstand of werkverschaffing dier instellingen hebben gedeeld, voor elk derzelve oplevert \$ 24. 90.

De uitgaven voor het kosteloos onderwijs in 1831 aan 73,609 kinderen van behoeftigen gegeven, zyn, met uitzondering van \$ 56,400 39 $\frac{1}{2}$ door de armbesturen verleende subsidien, bestreden geworden door de navolgende ontvangsten, als :

1. Wegens inkomsten van eigendommen aan de armen scholen verbonden - - - - -	\$	10,694	08 $\frac{1}{2}$
2. Wegens collecten, inschryvingen en bydragen van partikulieren -		27,274	21 $\frac{1}{2}$
3. Wegens subsidien verleend door :			
a. De Gemeenten - - - - -	\$ 158,973	32	
b. De Provincie of den Staat - - - - -	3,120	-	
		162,093	32
En wanneer men by deze som van - - - - -	\$	200,061	62
voegt, die waar door over 12 Jaren gemiddeld jaarlyks is voorzien in de uitgaven voor den verleenden onderstand in werkverschaffing ter somma van - - - - -		6,014,818	32
Zoo verkrygt men eene som van - - - - -	\$	6,214,879	94
By een-gebragt,			
1. Door de inkomsten van de eigendommen der instellingen en eenige weinige aan dezelve toegekende regten ten bedrage van - - -		2,480,035	84 $\frac{1}{2}$
2. Door kollechten en andere vrywillige bydragen van particulieren ter somma van - - - - -		1,404,690	87 $\frac{1}{2}$
3. Door gelden bygedragen door de gemeenten Provincien en den Staat, ten beloope van - - - - -		2,330,153	22
Te zamen bedragende - - - - -	\$	6,214,879	94

Men ziet dus dat byna $\frac{2}{5}$ dezer som ontsproten is uit de inkomsten van de eigendommen der armen ; dat meer dan een ander $\frac{1}{5}$ is by eengebragt door vrywillige bydragen van particulieren, en dat het geen door de Plaatselyke besturen, de Provincien of den Staat is gefourneerd, en het welk men alleenlyk beschouwen kan, als op eene in directe wyze uit belastingen ontsproten te zyn nog geen $\frac{2}{5}$ der geheele som bedraagt ; en welke som van \$ 2,330,153 omgeslagen over de bevolking, na afrek der onderstand genoten hebbenden, slechts ruim ééne gulden per persoon bedraagt.

Wat nu de vraag betreft welke in de uitvoering, de werking en de resultaten van het tegenwoordig armenstelsel zyn, op de ondersteuning, op het karakter en op den toestand der inwoners, zoo mag men, over het algemeen genomen, het een en ander als voldoende beschouwen.

De verleening van den onderstand is meest overal vry goed geregeld, en ofschoon de bedeeeling van sommige armbesturen wel iets ruimer konde zyn, mag men echter met grond veronderstellen, dat niemand, wiens behoefte by dezelve als voldoende bewezen bekend staat, wezenlyk gebrek lydt, en men vermeent te mogen zeggen dat het in deze eeuw zoo merkbaar verbeterd onderwijs der lagere volksklasse, heilzame vruchten draagt.

Translation of Enclosure, No. 2.

NOTE in answer to the Questions asked by the British Chargé d'Affaires, in his Letter to his Excellency the Baron van Zuylen van Nyevelt, the 18th August last.

ACCORDING to the municipal law book, no overseers of the poor may accept of any inheritance, legacy or donation, without having first obtained the authority of the government.

At the time of the incorporation of this country with the French empire, the French laws relating to the formation of the office for charitable institutions, and the administrations of hospitals, were likewise ordered to operate in the Dutch departments ; but they were only put in practice in very few provinces ; and the organisation proceeding therefrom in these few provinces was replaced in 1814 by a Royal regulation and decree, coinciding more with that which formerly existed in this country, and continued to exist in most of the provinces, and which the following particulars will show the nature of :

The annexed copy of the law of the 28th November 1818, regulates the settlements and the relief of paupers ; their relief takes place, according to it, locally.

In North Holland, the principle which invariably has been acted on is, that this charge should in the first place rest on the overseers of the poor of the religious sects in each
P. L. (F.) 4 G 2 parish ;

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parish; but when the means of the administration of the poor are not sufficient, they can indiscriminately (without reference to the sect to which such poor belong) apply to the local administration for relief, which, after due investigation, generally grants it, according to the means of the municipal administration, which is regulated by its direction.

Paupers, however, who are not members of any congregation, or any religious sect, in the place where they live and receive relief, or where no ecclesiastical charity for the poor exists, are supported by the municipal administration of the place where they live and obtain their support; for which purpose, in several cities and parishes a separate administration for the poor is established, responsible to the municipal administration; whereas in the remaining cities and parishes such relief is granted either by the burgomaster, or by an overseer of the poor nominated by him.

The hospitals, which in many cities exist, are for the greater part government establishments, which are administered on account of the local magistracy, by a number of directors appointed thereto, in which hospitals all inmates, without any distinction as to religion, are taken in; some of these hospitals are however separate foundations, which exist wholly or in part on their own revenues.

Amongst the orphan houses and charities for children and old people, there are several establishments which exist wholly or in part on their own revenues; whereas the remainder are generally the property of particular church administrations of the poor, which in great cities is almost generally the case in orphan houses or charities for children.

Foundlings and abandoned children, at the charge of the place in which they are abandoned, are provided for in the establishment for children of the society for charitable purposes, by which institution the beggars are also provided for in the establishments appropriated for that purpose, and acknowledged by the government, at the charge of the place where they have a claim for relief.

There exist three local workhouses, one at Amsterdam, one at Middelburgh, and one in the commonalty Nieuwe Pekel A., in the province of Groningen, in which paupers, generally those who apply of their own accord, are taken in, upon condition that they contribute to their support as much as possible by labour: further, there are in several places twenty-one charitable houses of industry, which procure work for paupers who are in immediate want of work, either in the houses of industry, or at their own dwellings.

The table hereunto annexed states the number of persons to whom relief has been granted yearly, or work procured by the therein mentioned public municipal or ecclesiastical institutions of relief. It ought, however, to be observed, that sometimes amongst the number of those who have received relief, not only the heads of the family are reckoned, but also all the children living with them.

Besides the before-mentioned institutions, there are also various places, unions and societies, the intentions of which are to grant relief in some way or other; namely, some for the relief of very indigent poor; others for granting relief to poor lying-in women; and the commissions or societies which during the winter distribute provisions and fuel.

For affording useful instruction to the children of the poor, as well of those who receive relief, as of those who do not, but whose parents are poor, an opportunity in almost every place is given by means of charity schools, and where they do not exist, then in the common schools jointly with other children, free of expense, and paid for either by the local authority or overseers of the charity schools. The number of scholars increases yearly. In 1831 the number of them in the charity schools amounted to 36,378; and the number of scholars to whom instruction was given in the common schools jointly with other children, 37,231; therefore, in the whole, instruction is given to 73,609 children of paupers free of expense.

The local overseers of the poor, and those who being subsidized are under the control of the church, are responsible to the local authority for their receipts and disbursements; and moreover, in the same manner as those not under such control, bound annually to render the necessary statements in order to enable the government (in conformity with Article 228 of the municipal law) to present its annual report to the States General respecting the administration of the poor and the education of poor children.

The money intended for the support, procuring of work, and instruction of the poor free of expense, consists as follows:

- 1st. Of the revenues arising from the properties of the various institutions, and at some places from fines, and other rights granted them.
- 2d. From collections.
- 3d. From the administration of parishes; and also in some few instances from subsidies granted by the provinces or the State; whereas some of the houses of industry and charity schools are likewise assisted by administrations of the poor.
- 4th. From the produce of the work of the colonial establishment.
- 5th. From contributions and voluntary donations, and from the monies stipulated by contract by the society for charitable purposes, for the paupers hired out by them.

For the twelve years from 1820 to 1831, the receipts of the administration for the established charity houses, and those of the hospitals, taken on an average for each year, amount together;

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1. The revenues of properties and acknowledged rights	- * \$	2,461,883	26
2. Proceeds of collections	- - - - -	1,320,551	48
3. Subsidies granted by			
a. The parishes	- - - - - \$ 1,779,719	67	
b. The provinces of the State	- - - - - 38,642	78	
		1,818,362	45
Making	- - - \$	5,600,797	19

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By which all the disbursements of these institutions are covered.
And if to the above-mentioned sum are added, for the same period of twelve years, the following; viz.

1. For the local workhouses and charitable houses of industry :			
a. Revenues of properties	- - - - -	7,458	50
b. Collections	- - - - -	7,971	63
c. Subsidies of the parishes	- - - - -	99,083	87
2. For the new erected beggars' workhouses :			
a. Daily wages paid by the parish for the beggars placed therein	- - - - -	41,090	40
b. Provincial subsidies	- - - - -	871	49
3. For the society for charitable purposes :			
a. Contributions and voluntary donations by individuals	- - - - -	48,893	55
b. Monies for stipulated contracts	- - - - -	208,651	69
Consequently, the whole sum acquired is	- - - \$	6,014,818	32

By which for a period of twelve years the disbursements of the institutions mentioned in the annexed Table have been provided for; which said sum of \$6,014,818. 32. divided amongst the average number of persons (241,514) who, in some shape or other, have annually participated in the relief granted, or procuring of employ, make for each person \$ 24. 90.

The disbursements for instruction given in 1831 to 73,609 children of the poor (free of expense), are, with the exception of \$56,400 39 $\frac{1}{2}$, the amount of subsidies granted by the overseers of the poor, covered by the following receipts; viz.

1. By revenues of property attached to charity schools	- \$	10,694	08 $\frac{1}{2}$
2. By collections, subscriptions, and donations of individuals	-	27,274	21 $\frac{1}{2}$
3. By subsidies granted:			
a. By the parishes	- - - - - \$ 158,973	32	
b. By the province or the State	- - - - - 3,120	-	
		162,093	32
	\$	200,061	62

And if to this sum is added the one by which, during twelve years, the disbursements for relief granted, and procuring of work, has been provided for, amounting to

There is acquired the sum of - - - \$ 6,214,879 94

1. By the revenues of the properties belonging to the institutions, and a few of their acknowledged rights, amounting to	- - - \$	2,480,035	84 $\frac{1}{2}$
2. By collections and other voluntary contributions of individuals, to the sum of	- - - - -	1,404,690	87 $\frac{1}{2}$
3. By monies contributed by the parishes, provinces and the State, to the amount of	- - - - -	2,330,153	22
Making together	- - - \$	6,214,879	94

It ought therefore to be observed, that about two-fifths of this sum are produced from the revenues of the poor; that more than another one-fifth is gathered by voluntary contributions of individuals; and that therefore the sum furnished by the local administrations, the provinces or the State, and which can only be considered as originating from taxes in an indirect manner, doth not amount to two-fifths of the whole sum, and which sum of \$2,330,153 divided over the population, after deducting therefrom the number of poor who have received relief, amounts only to about one guilder each person.

With

* This mark apparently means guilders. A guilder is worth about 1 s. 8 d. sterling.

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With respect to the query as to what are the effects, working and results of the present poor law system upon the relief, the character, and the condition of the inhabitants, taking the whole together, it may be considered satisfactory.

The granting of relief is generally regulated pretty well every where; and although the distribution by some of the overseers of the poor could be rather more extended, yet it may however upon good grounds be supposed that no person, whose distress is known to them and satisfactorily proved, suffers absolute want; and with justice it may be said, that in this age, the instruction of the lower classes has so considerably improved, as to produce very salutary effects.

Annex No. 1.

STAATSBLAD van het Koninkryk der Nederlanden.

Wet van den 28 November 1818, houdende bepalingen tot aanwysing der plaats waar de behoeftigen in den algemeenen onderstand deelen kunnen.

Wy Willem, &c.

ALLEN die deze zullen zien of hooren lezen salut! doen te weten.

Alzoo wy in overweging hebben genomen dat het noodzakelyk is om door vaste en Algemeene bepalingen de plaats aan te wyzen waar de behoeftigen in den Algemeenen onderstand deelen kunnen.

Zoo is het dat wy den Raad van Staten gehoord, en met gemeen overleg der Staten Generaal hebben goedgevonden en verstaan, gelyk wy goedvinden en verstaan by dezen.

Art. 1. De Gemeente in welke een behoeftige in den Algemeenen onderstand deelen kan is die zyner geboorte.

Art. 2. De Gemeente waarin een kind toevallig geboren is, wordt daarom niet de plaats waarin hetzelve in den algemeenen onderstand deelen kan; deze blyft in de gemeente, waarin zyn vader woonde toen hetzelve geboren werd, en in die welke zyne moeder bewoonde, indien zy weduwe of het kind onecht is.

Art. 3. Indien iemand gedurende vier achter-één volgende Jaren, in ééne gemeente gewoond heeft, waarin hy niet is geboren, en aldaar gedurende denzelfden tyd al de hem opgelegden belastingen voldaan heeft; zal deze Gemeente wat den onderstand betreft, zyne geboorte plaats vervangen.

Art. 4. Dit nieuwe domicilie van onderstand wordt even zoo door elke andere gemeente vervangen, waarin dezelfde persoon naderhand, gedurende den tyd en op de wyze, by het voorgaand artikel bepaald, gewoond mogt hebben.

Art. 5. De behoeftigen, welke op het uitvaardigen dezer wet, in eene gemeente uit den Algemeenen onderstand bedeed worden, zullen gerekend worden tot die Gemeente te behooren, voor zoo ver dien onderstand betreft.

Art. 6. De Vreemdelingen welke mogten toe-gelaten zyn om in het Koninkryk hun verblyf te vestigen, en hetzelve volgens de wyze by Art. 3. bepaald, in eene Gemeente, gedurende zes jaren behouden hebben, kunnen in die gemeente in den Algemeenen onderstand deelen.

Art. 7. Het domicilie van onderstand voor getrouwde vrouwen en weduwen is dat harer mannen; voor minderjarigen dat van hunnen vader, voor onechte minderjarigen dat hunner moeder.

Eene weduw vrouw kan, zoo voor zich zelve als voor hare minderjarige kinderen een nieuw domicilie van onderstand, volgens de termen van Art. 3. verkrygen.

Art. 8. Het is aan Administrateurs van den algemeenen onderstand veroorloofd daar uit de genen te bedeele, aan wie zy die bedeeleing anderzins volgens de tegenwoordige wet, zouden kunnen weigeren, wanneer deze uit-zondering door regtvaardigheid en menschelykheid wordt gewettigd.

Art. 9. Door de bepalingen van deze wet wordt geenszins gederogeed aan de bestaande reglementen en verordening op het stuk van onderhoud, alimentatie en onderstand, door de Diakonien en alle andere administratien van Godsdienstige gemeenten aan derzelver behoeftige ledematen te verleenen.

Art. 10. Evenmin wordt door dezelve gederogeed aan plaatselyke Statuten, welke daarmede niet strydig zyn, noch aan de reglementen op het onderhoud der weduwen en kinderen van Militaire.

Art. 11. De verschillen over het onderstand domicilie van eenen behoeftigen, tusschen twee Gemeenten, zullen *de plano* door het kollegie van Gedeputeerde Staten worden beslist, indien de Gemeenten tot dezelfde Provincie behooren, en door Ons, indien dezelve in meer dan ééne provincie gelegen zyn.

Art. 12

Art. 12. Op dezelfde wyze zullen de verschillen van denzelfden aard worden afgedaan welke tusschen onderscheidene Diakonien of andere Soortgelyke Instellingen mogten ontstaan, gelyk mede die verschillen welke tusschen die Instellingen en de Gemeente besturen mogten ryzen.

Doch de geschillen tusschen onderscheidene Diakonien of andere soort gelyke Instellingen ontstaan in ééne en dezelfde gemeente, welker bevolking Vyf duizend zielen overtreft, zullen door het plaatselyk bestuur worden beslist.

Art. 13. Indien de billykheid sehynt te vorderen dat men in eene Gemeente eenen behoeftigen, uit den *Algemeenen onderstand* te hulp kome, zonder dat men het ééns zy, aan welke gemeente of aan welke Instelling die behoeftige zich kan aanmelden, zal in geval van noodzakelykheid, de gemeente waar hy zich bevindt billyke hulp verleenen, behoudens haar regt van verhaal tot restitutie op den genen op wien zulks haar toekomt.

Art. 14. De akten van Indemniteit, borg-togt, ontslag, readmissie en dergelyke na de uit-vaardiging dezer wet verleend, worden van onwaarde gehouden.

De zwarigheden, welke uit de bestaande akten van indemniteit enz, mogten ontstaan, zullen afgedaan worden in maniere als bepaald by Art. 11.

Lasten en bevelen dat dezer in het Staatsblad zal worden geinsereerd en dat alle Ministeriele Departementen en autoriteiten, kollegien en ambtenaren aan de naauwkeurige uitvoering de handen zullen houden.

Gegeven te Brussel den 28 Nov. des jaars 1818, het vyfde onzer regering.

(get) *Willem, Van wege den Koning.*

(get) *J. G. de Mey van Streefkerk.*

Translation of Annex No. 1.

STATE Paper of the Kingdom of the Netherlands.

Law of the 28th November 1818, containing particulars for reference to the place where Paupers can participate in the General Fund.

We William, &c.

To all to whom these presents shall come, salute, and make known. Whereas we have taken into consideration that it is necessary to point out in fixed and general terms where the poor can participate in the general fund.

Therefore we have heard the Council of State, and after a joint deliberation of the States General have approved and granted, and as by these presents we do approve and grant.

Art. 1. The parish in which a poor person can participate in the general relief fund, is that of his birth.

Art. 2. The parish in which a child is born by chance does not therefore become the place where it can participate in the general fund; this belongs to the district in which the father lived when the child was born, and in that in which the mother resided if she is a widow, or the child illegitimate.

Art. 3. If any person has resided in a parish in which he was not born for four consecutive years, and during that time paid all the taxes there imposed, such parish, as far as regards relief, shall relieve his place of birth.

Art. 4. This, his new domicile of relief, is in like manner relieved by every other parish in which such poor at any later period shall reside, during the time, and in the manner fixed in the preceding article.

Art. 5. The paupers who, at the emanating of this law, receive relief in a parish from the general fund, shall be considered to belong to such parish as far as regards such relief.

Art. 6. Foreigners who are permitted to settle in the kingdom, and having resided in a parish six years, according to the terms fixed in Article 3, can participate in the general relief fund in such a parish.

Art. 7. The domicile of relief for married women and widows, is that of their husbands; for minors, that of their fathers; for illegitimate minors, that of their mothers.

A widow can obtain for herself, as well as for her infant children, a new domicile of relief, by confirming to the regulations of Article 3.

Art. 8. The administrators of the general relief fund are allowed to give relief from it to those whom they, according to the present law, might otherwise refuse; when this exception arises from justice and humanity, it becomes lawful.

Art. 9. In consequence of the stipulations of this law, there shall be no deviation from the existing regulations and ordinances with regard to the relief, alimentation and support to be granted by the deacons, and all other administrations of religious bodies to their poor members.

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Art. 10. Neither is altered by them any local statutes which are not contrary thereto, nor the regulations for the support of widows and children of the military.

Art. 11. The disputes between two parishes regarding the settlement and relief of a pauper, shall be decided by the chamber of the deputed States, if such parishes belong to the same province, and by Us if they are situated in more than one province.

Art. 12. In like manner shall be decided any disputes of the same nature which may arise between different bodies of deacons, or other similar institutions, as well as those which may arise between the said institution and the local authorities.

But the differences which may arise between different bodies of deacons, or other similar institutions belonging to the same parish, whose population exceeds 5,000, shall be decided by the local authorities.

Art. 13. Should justice appear to require that a pauper should be relieved from the general relief fund, without first ascertaining to what parish, or to what institution, such pauper ought to apply, the parish in which he then is shall give him a reasonable relief, saving their right of claim for restitution against the parish or institution who ought to have relieved him.

Art. 14. All acts of indemnity and security, release, re-admission, and such like, granted after the emanating of this law, are to be null and void.

Any difficulties which may arise from the existing act of indemnity, &c., are to be settled in the manner set forth in Article 11.

We order and command that these presents be inserted in the State Gazette, and that all ministerial departments and authorities, colleges and officers, give their assistance to the execution of it.

Given at Brussels the 28th November 1818, the fifth of Our reign.

(signed) WILLIAM.

By command of H. M.

(signed)

J. G. de Mey van Streefkerk.

Annex No. 2.

OVERZIGT van het Getal der PERSONEN welke gedeeld hebben in den Onderstand, of in de Werkverschaffing verleend door Algemeene Burgerlyke, of Kerkelyke, Instellingen van Weldadigheid, in Noord Nederland, gedurende 12 Jaren van af 1820 tot en met 1831.

INSTELLINGEN TOT WERKVERSCHAFFING.															Verhouding tot de Bevolking van Noord-Nederland, over 100 Zielen.				
Aanwyzing der Dienstjaren.	Bevolking van Noord Nederland op 31 Dec.	Instellingen tot verleening van Onderstand.			Getal der Personen welke in of voor de Plaatselyke Werkhuizen en Werkplaatsen van Weldadigheid hebben gewerkt.			Bevolking der Bedelaars Werkhuizen.			Bevolking van de Kolonien en Gestichten der Maatschappij van Weldadigheid.					Totaal Generaal der Personen welke in den Onderstand of in de Werkverschaffing hebben gedeeld.	Van het Totaal der Personen bedeeft of Onderhouden door den Instelling tot verleening van Onderstand.	Van het Totaal der Personen Onderhouden door den Instelling tot Werkverschaffing.	Van het Totaal Generaal der Personen welke in den Onderstand of Werkverschaffing hebben gedeeld.
		Getal der Personen bedeeft door besturen voor Huiszittend Armen.	Bevolking der Gods-huizen.	Totaal der Personen.	In de Instellingen gehuisvest en Gevoed.	Alleen in dezelve of aan hunne woningen Werzaam Geweest.	Gezamenlyk.	Te Hoorn.	Te Veere.	Gezamenlyk.	Behoeftige huisgezinnen uit makende Personen.	Weezen Vondelingen of verlatene Kinderen.	Bedeelaars.	Personen veteranen huisgezinnen uit makende.	Gezamenlyk.				
1820 -	2,286,245	193,478	26,993	220,471	niet afzonderlyk opgegeven.	4,458	750	-	750	-	1,249	226	-	-	1,475	227,154	10,320	0,313	10,633
1821 -	2,165,730	171,014	22,202	193,216	id.	3,329	750	-	750	-	1,737	365	-	-	2,102	199,297	8,921	0,281	9,202
1822 -	2,190,971	174,802	20,501	195,303	id.	3,227	750	-	750	-	1,979	456	300	-	2,735	202,015	8,914	0,306	9,220
1823 -	2,219,982	193,633	17,430	211,063	id.	4,356	750	273 ^(a)	1,023	-	2,395	475	1,053	-	3,823	220,265	9,507	0,415	9,922
1824 -	2,253,794	196,786	19,955	216,741	id.	4,271	700	200	900	-	2,614	1,214	1,061	-	4,889	226,801	9,617	0,446	10,063
1825 -	2,281,789	204,400	17,943	222,343	862	2,982	323	136	459 ^(b)	-	3,227	2,174	1,377	-	6,778	233,424	9,744	0,486	10,230
1826 -	2,296,169	227,501	18,731	246,232	920	3,199	380	82 ^(c)	462	-	2,724	2,233	1,581	231	6,769	257,582	10,724	0,494	11,218
1827 -	2,307,661	232,426	19,775	252,201	670	4,001	378 ^(d)	-	378	-	2,560	2,059	1,763	401	6,783	264,033	10,929	0,513	11,442
1828 -	2,329,934	217,343	17,928	235,271	607	4,017	-	-	-	-	2,510	2,358	1,826	562	7,256	247,151	10,098	0,510	10,608
1829 -	2,427,206	235,771	17,884	253,655	672	4,077	-	-	-	-	2,626	2,340	1,942	543	7,451	265,855	10,450	0,503	10,953
1830 -	2,444,550	244,503	17,870	262,373	733	4,263	-	-	-	-	2,619	2,288	2,111	473	7,491	274,860	10,733	0,511	11,244
1831 -	2,454,176	248,380	17,887	266,267	973	4,637	-	-	-	-	2,694	2,297	2,406	456	7,853	279,730	10,849	0,549	11,398
Gemiddeld over 12 Jaren -	2,292,350 ^{1/2}	211,669 ^{1/2}	19,591 ^{1/2}	231,261 ^{1/2}	-	-	398 ^{1/2}	57 ^{1/2}	456	-	2,402 ^{1/2}	1,540 ^{1/2}	1,285	222 ^{1/2}	5,450 ^{1/2}	241,513 ^{1/2}	10,088	0,447	10,535

AANMERKINGEN.

Algemeene Aanmerkingen. — Of schoon de personen welke alleenlyk in of voor de werkplaatsen van Liefdadigheid werkzaam zijn geweest, en niet in dezelve gehuisvest of gevoed worden, waarschynlyk voor het grootste gedeelte reeds begrepen zijn onder het getal der genen welke door de besturen voor de huiszittende armen zyn bedeeft, heeft men echter gemeend dezelve van deze tabel niet te moeten uitsluiten, vermits de uitgaven voor werkverschaffing ook tot deze personen betrekking hebben.

^(a) Zynde dit het eerste jaar waarin het gesticht te Veere geopend is.

^(b) Deze vermindering is veroorzaakt door verplaatsing van Valide Bedelaars naar de Ommeerschans.

^(c) Dit gesticht is den 20 Junij opgeheven en zyn de Valide Bedelaars naar de Ommeerschans, en de Invalide naar Hoorn overgebracht.

^(d) Dit gesticht is den 15 October opgeheven; al de bedelaars zyn uit hetzelfde naar de Ommeerschans overgebracht.

Translation of Annex No. 2.

STATEMENT of the Number of Persons who have received Relief, or to whom Work has been given, by the Civil or Ecclesiastical Charitable Institutions in North Netherland, during 12 Years, from 1820 till 1831 inclusive.

INSTITUTIONS FOR GIVING OR PROCURING WORK.															Statement for the Population of North Netherland of 100 Persons.				
Reference of the Years of Service.	Population of North Netherland on the 31 Dec.	Institutions for Relief.			Number of Persons who have worked in and for the local Workhouses and Charitable Work-places.		Population of Paupers' Workhouses.			Population of the Colonies, and Establishments of the Society for Charitable Purposes.					General Total of Persons who have received Relief, or to whom Work has been given.	Of the Total number of Persons relieved or maintained by the Institution for granting Support.	Of the Total of Persons by the Institution for providing Work.	Of the general Total of Persons who have participated in the Relief, or to whom Work has been given.	
		Number of Persons received by the direction of the Poor-house.	Population of the Hospitals.	Number of Persons.	Fed and lodged in the Institutions.	Those only who have worked in the same, or at their own Houses.	Together.	At Hoorn.	At Veere.	Together, or in the whole.	Poor Families making the number of Persons.	Orphans, Foundlings or abandoned Children.	Beggars.	Persons, Veterans, families, making together.					Together, or in the whole.
1820 -	2,136,245	193,478	26,293	220,471			4,458	750	-	750	1,249	226	-	-	1,475	227,154	10,320	9,313	10,633
1821 -	2,165,730	171,014	22,202	193,216	id.	id.	3,229	750	-	750	1,737	365	-	-	2,102	199,297	8,921	9,281	9,202
1822 -	2,190,171	174,802	20,501	195,303	id.	id.	3,227	750	-	750	1,979	456	300	-	2,735	202,015	8,914	9,306	9,220
1823 -	2,219,982	196,633	17,430	211,063	id.	id.	4,358	750	273 ^(a)	1,023	2,295	475	1,053	-	3,823	220,265	9,507	9,415	9,922
1824 -	2,253,794	196,786	19,955	216,741	id.	id.	4,271	700	200	900	2,614	1,214	1,061	-	4,889	226,801	9,617	9,446	10,063
1825 -	2,281,789	240,400	17,943	222,343	862	2,982	3,844	323	136	459 ^(b)	3,227	2,174	1,377	-	6,778	233,424	9,744	9,486	10,230
1826 -	2,296,169	227,501	18,731	246,232	920	3,199	4,119	380	82 ^(c)	462	2,724	2,233	1,581	231	6,769	257,582	10,724	9,494	11,218
1827 -	2,307,661	232,426	19,775	252,201	670	4,001	4,671	378 ^(d)	-	378	2,560	2,059	1,763	401	6,783	264,033	10,929	9,513	11,442
1828 -	2,329,934	217,343	17,928	235,271	607	4,017	4,624	-	-	-	2,510	2,358	1,826	562	7,256	247,151	10,098	9,510	10,608
1829 -	2,427,206	235,771	17,884	253,655	672	4,077	4,749	-	-	-	2,626	2,340	1,942	548	7,451	265,855	10,450	9,503	10,953
1830 -	2,444,550	244,503	17,870	262,373	733	4,263	4,996	-	-	-	2,619	2,288	2,111	473	7,491	274,860	10,733	9,511	11,244
1831 -	2,454,176	248,380	17,887	266,267	973	4,637	5,610	-	-	-	2,694	2,297	2,406	456	7,853	279,730	10,849	9,549	11,398
		211,669 ^(e)	19,591 ^(e)	231,261 ^(e)	-	-	4,346 ^(e)	389 ^(e)	57 ^(e)	456	2,402 ^(e)	1,540 ^(e)	1,285	222 ^(e)	5,450 ^(e)	241,513 ^(e)	10,088	9,447	10,535
		2,292,350 ^(f)																	

OBSERVATIONS.

General Observations.—Although the persons who have only worked in or for the charitable work-places, and are not lodged or fed in them, are probably already included amongst the number of those who have been relieved by the direction of the Poor-house; it was however thought proper not to exclude them from this Table, because the expenses of procuring work belong likewise to these persons.

- (a) This being the first year in which the establishment at Veere was opened.
 (b) This decrease is occasioned by the removal of able paupers to the Ommerschans.
 (c) This establishment was done away with on the 20th June, and the able paupers were removed to the Ommerschans, and the invalid paupers to Hoorn.
 (d) This establishment was done away with on the 15th October; all the paupers in it were removed to the Ommerschans.

AMSTERDAM.

ANSWERS to the QUERIES circulated amongst His Majesty's Consuls.

VAGRANTS.

1. To what extent and under what form does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?—Mendicity being discountenanced by law, does not prevail to a great extent; and it is principally confined to the towns, where it shows itself in the form of public begging, and applications at the houses of the inhabitants.

2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country, seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded, and under what regulations?—There are no regulations for the relief of persons of this description; but they generally apply to the deacons or overseers of the poor of the church of which they are members, who on investigating their case, render them assistance if deserving of it.

DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are they, or any part of their families, billeted or quartered on householders?—They are never billeted or quartered on householders.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—They are never boarded with individuals, except it be by private agreement between the overseers of the poor and such individuals, for the support of some indigent or helpless person they may wish to provide for in this way.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there district houses of industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families, and supplying them with food, clothes, &c., and in which they are set to work?—At Amsterdam there is a work-house, in which, on application, the destitute are admitted for a limited time, and put to moderate labour in carpet making, &c., and are discharged from it whenever they find themselves in a situation to earn a subsistence; but in which persons found begging in the streets are forcibly confined by way of punishment: this, however, is not very strictly executed. They are clothed in dresses manufactured in the house, of a very inferior description. A few other towns have establishments something similar; but in the country they are not met with, the indigent there being generally relieved, in periods of distress, by a small assistance given them from the funds of the churches of which they are members, and from voluntary contributions of the inhabitants.

4. To what extent and under what regulations do any religious institutions give assistance to the destitute, by receiving them as inmates, or by giving them alms?—The main support of the poor is derived from religious communities and charitable institutions. Every denomination of Christians, as well as the Jews, relieve their own members; and for this purpose have, for the most part, orphan and poor-houses and schools connected with them, which are supported by property belonging to them, and by voluntary contributions at the church doors, and collections at the houses of the members; the Jews being permitted occasionally to make a general collection throughout the city for their own purposes. These establishments, among the Protestants (the most numerous community), are called Deaconries; and they provide not only for the support of their indigent members, but also for their relief in sickness. The deacons, who have the immediate superintendence of the poor, limit the assistance given according to the exigency of the case, which they investigate very narrowly; and by becoming particularly acquainted with the situation of the applicants, are enabled to detect any imposition. The pecuniary relief afforded is very small, and can only be considered as in aid of the exertions of the poor to earn their own support, being limited to a few pence in the week; a weekly donation of 2 f. (or 40 d.), being looked upon as one of the largest. In winter, provisions, fuel and clothing are given in preference to money. The aged and infirm are admitted into the poor-houses, where, and at the schools, the children are educated, and afterwards put out to different trades, till they are able to provide for themselves. The deacons act gratuitously; and being of the most respectable class of citizens, elected by the churches to that office, the conscientious discharge of it is ensured, and in consequence malversations seldom take place. The general poor (being inhabitants), including persons who are and are not members of religious communities (Jews excepted), are relieved at their own houses from the revenue of property since long appropriated to that use, administered by commissioners appointed by the magistrates, and acting without emolument (as is the case with most similar offices in this country), and in aid of which public charitable collections at private houses are permitted, while any eventual deficiency is supplied from the funds of the city; but the relief afforded by these means is very small, and is confined chiefly to bread, with the addition of fuel in winter. Without other resources, therefore, or the assistance of private charity, the claimants could hardly subsist upon what they obtain in this way. By a decree passed in the year 1818, it was enacted, that the domicile of a male pauper is the place of his birth, superseded by the place where he has resided four years and paid taxes; and that of a

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child, the residence of his father, or of his mother, if a widow. That the domicile of a stranger is the place where he has resided six years; of married women and widows, the place of their husbands' residence; of legitimate minors, that of their fathers', and of illegitimate, that of their mothers'. This decree, fixing the domicile of paupers for the purpose of obtaining relief, and a subsequent one, by which gratuitous legal advice is allowed them, if they apply for it, implies that they have a claim to support, which can be enforced at law; but as the funds from which this support must be obtained are uncertain, the amount of the relief that can be given depends upon their extent, and it is in fact left at the discretion of the overseers, who have the faculty of withholding it on the proof of bad conduct of the recipients, or when their children do not properly attend the school, or have been neglected to be vaccinated. Those not members of churches are, moreover, admonished to join some religious community, and must promise to do so the first opportunity. The decree above alluded to also regulates the proceedings of one town against another, and of religious and charitable institutions at the same place, in respect to paupers. There are at Amsterdam, besides, a variety of private establishments for the poor of different religious denominations, endowed by charitable persons, in which the poor are relieved in different ways, according to prescribed regulations. In general, the funds of all the public charitable institutions have greatly diminished, while the number of claimants have much increased, which causes frequent and urgent appeals to the public benevolence. In the country the same system prevails, and the deacons or office-bearers of the churches are often called upon during the winter to assist in the support of indigent labourers with families, till the return of spring enables them to find work; but there are few permanent poor there, except the old and infirm, who are generally boarded in poor-houses in the adjoining town.

5. To what extent and under what regulations is work provided at their own dwellings for those who have trades, but do not procure work for themselves?—This is never done.

6. To what extent and under what regulations is work provided for such persons in agriculture or on public works?—No work is provided for them in this way.

7. To what extent and under what regulations are fuel, clothing or money distributed to such persons or their families; at all times of the year, or during any particular seasons?—See Answer to No. 4.

8. To what extent and under what regulations are they relieved by their children being taken into schools and fed, clothed and educated, or apprenticed?—The children of members of churches are taught, clothed and apprenticed, as mentioned (No. 4.), but there are besides public schools, supported in a great measure by charitable contributions, in which the children of the indigent obtain instruction free of any expense; and also other public schools, the admission to which can be obtained at a small contribution monthly. Religious instruction is obtained free of charge by the clergyman of the different religious establishments, and by catechisers, at a small expense.

9. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are the relatives of the destitute compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking charge of part of their families?—Only those who are related to the destitute in the *direct* ascending or descending line, can be compelled to relieve them.

10. To what extent and under what regulations are they assisted by loans?—This, if done at all, must be quite a voluntary act.

IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there almshouses or other institutions for the reception of those who, through age, are incapable of earning their subsistence?—Members of churches, when old, impotent and destitute, are admitted into the poor-houses belonging to these establishments. The magistrates provide at their own houses for those coming under the denomination of the general poor.

2. To what extent and under what regulations is relief in food, fuel, clothing or money afforded at their homes?—The same is the case with respect to grants of fuel, &c.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—If boarded with individuals, it must be in consequence of some special agreement with the deacons.

4. To what extent and under what regulations are they quartered or billeted on the householders?—They are never quartered or billeted on householders.

5. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking part of their families?—Only those related to the destitute in the *direct* ascending or descending line, can be compelled to relieve them.

SICK.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there district institutions for the reception of the sick?—There are hospitals for the sick. At Amsterdam there are two; and the Jews have one of their own, in which every sick inhabitant finds admittance, as well as

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as lying-in women, and where they are provided, without expense, with medicinal and chirurgical attendance, food and medicines. Foreigners are also taken in, at a small charge, when there is room. In villages where such establishments are wanting, the sick are provided for as stated in the following reply.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are surgical and medical relief afforded to the poor at their own homes?—Physicians and surgeons are (in towns and villages) appointed at the public expense, to attend upon the destitute sick, and to lying-women at their own dwellings, if required, and have also the faculty of ordering medicines necessary for them (in towns at the city dispensary), gratis, where no remuneration can be afforded. The religious establishments have also generally a physician in their pay, to attend upon the sick belonging to their community. The inferior ranks of society in the towns generally subscribe to clubs for retaining a physician to attend upon any of the members who may require one, by which the expense does not fall too heavy on any individual.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick?—There are none of that description.

4. To what extent and under what regulations is assistance given to lying-in women at their homes, or in public establishments?—Answered in reply to Nos. 1 and 2.

5. To what extent and under what regulations are there any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick?—There are no other modes than the before mentioned.

CHILDREN :

Illegitimate.

1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall; wholly upon the mothers, or wholly upon the fathers; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations?—Upon the parent by whom the child is acknowledged.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards?—None can be compelled to it.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?—Illegitimate children whose fathers and mothers, or either of them, are known, when destitute, are supported in the same manner as the legitimate. See *Foundlings*, and answer to question No. 4, *Destitute Able-bodied*.

Orphans, Foundlings, or Deserted Children.

	Orphans.	Foundlings.	Deserted Children, whose Parents are known.
4. To what extent and under what regulations are they taken into establishments for their reception?—	See answer to Q. 4, under the head, <i>Destitute Able-bodied</i> .	Funds belonging to the Foundling Hospital, lately suppressed, aided, when required, by subsidies from the city and administered by commissaries, are applied to their relief. The children are nursed and boarded in the city, and when of sufficient age, are sent to the agricultural colonies in the interior, where they are trained to rural occupations and to trades, and maintained out of the same funds till they are 20 years of age, when, if able, they must provide for themselves. There are no hospitals specially destined for foundlings in the kingdom.	Parents cannot desert their children, but are bound to support them.
5. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?—	They never are billeted on householders.	} - - Answered in the preceding column.	
6. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—	They are only boarded in consequence of a private agreement.		
7. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relations compelled to support them?—	Only grandfathers and grandmothers, or such relations as are in a direct ascending line, can be compelled.		

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CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

	Cripples.	Deaf and Dumb.	Blind.
1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception?—	There are no separate establishments for their reception.	An establishment for deaf and dumb, supported by voluntary gifts, exists at Groningen.	An establishment for blind exists at Amsterdam, also supported by voluntary contributions. It is entirely of a private nature, and the admission to it is at the option
of the directors. The inmates are chiefly indigent persons, who receive board and instruction for nothing, but provide their own clothes.			
2. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?—	They are never billeted on householders.		
3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—	Nor boarded, except by private agreement.		
4. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—	Only those who are of the direct ascending or descending line can be compelled.		

IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

At one of the hospitals in this city, indigent idiots and lunatics are provided for, and have medical attendance. But there are several private establishments, where those whose relatives have the means of supporting them are taken care of. None, however, can be placed there but under the sanction of the law.

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

You are requested to state whether the receipt, or the expectation of relief, appears to produce any, and what effect,

1st. On the industry of the labourers?—Such a degree of degradation attaches to the idea of obtaining relief, as is sufficient to stimulate a labourer to the greatest exertion to avoid it.

2d. On their frugality?—His earnings being so small, and barely sufficient to exist upon, induces to frugality.

3d. On the age at which they marry? 4th. On the mutual dependence and affection of parent, children, and other relatives?—The same cause must operate in preventing premature marriages, and in promoting affection among the members of a family, and a desire of rendering each other mutual assistance, to prevent recurrence to public charity.

5th. What, on the whole, is the condition of the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, as compared with the condition of the person subsisting on alms or public charity. Is the condition of the latter, as to food and freedom from labour, more or less eligible? (See p. 261 & 335 of the Poor Law "Extracts.")—The condition of the able-bodied and self-supported labourer may be considered as superior to that of one receiving pecuniary aid, not only for the reasons mentioned in Answer No. 1, but because the degree of support afforded them is so very scanty, as barely, with his own exertions in addition to it, to place him on an equal footing with the former. This has reference only to able-bodied paupers; no degradation attaching to the children and orphans of members of religious institutions, on account of the relief they receive, many of these having at times attained to eminent situations in the community.

LABOURERS, &c.

1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month, or the year, with and without provisions in summer and winter?—See Annex, No. 1, p. 586.

2. Is piece-work general?—See Annex, No. 1, p. 586. It is not common with agricultural labourers, except with grass mowers, who arrive periodically from Westphalia. They are generally paid 3*fl.* 30 *c.* (5*s.* 6 *d.*) to 4*fl.* 40 *c.* (7*s.* 4 *d.*) the *bunder* (about 2 $\frac{1}{4}$ acres), according to the thickness of the grass, without board or lodging. A stout labourer is able to mow 1 to 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ acre per day.

3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living? 4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling

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schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?—He might net from 150 *fl.* to 200 *fl.* (12 *l.* 10 *s.* to 6 *l.* 13 *s.* 4 *d.*) after payment of house-rent, assessed and district taxes, and school-money for his children; and he would require the whole for his expenditure. Only the entirely destitute can obtain instruction for their children gratis; but religious instruction is given without fee by the clergyman of his church, or can be obtained from a catechiser at a small expense. Labourers in general think it beneath them to let their children go to school for nothing, and some even keep them at home when unable to pay, rather than to send them there on these terms.

5. Is there any, and what employment for women and children? 6. What can women, and children under 16, earn per week, in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed?—Married women can seldom earn anything, having occupation enough in looking after their families; and children in general but little. A clever boy may get about 1 *fl.* (20 *d.*) a week; and some few women, employed in weeding gardens, earn 1 *fl.* 50 *kr.* (2 *s.* 6 *d.*) to 3 *fl.* 51 *kr.* a week in summer. Girls are employed as maids by the farmers, for their board and lodging, and sometimes a very trifling emolument.

7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8, and 5 years, respectively (the eldest a boy), expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?—Perhaps 200 *fl.* (16 *l.* 13 *s.* 4 *d.*) or 250 *fl.* (20 *l.* 16 *s.* 8 *d.*), of which he would not be able to lay by anything. Excepting the husband, the others would hardly earn altogether 20 *fl.* (1 *l.* 13 *s.* 4 *d.*) or 30 *fl.* (2 *l.* 10 *s.*) a year, being only capable of performing light work in summer.

8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children, and if so, on what food?—They could subsist thereon, and live upon bread, (principally rye) cheese, potatoes, vegetables, beans and pork, buttermilk, with buckwheat meal, &c.

9. Could it lay by anything, and how much?—Could not lay by anything.

10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?—Only a little garden of 10 or 30 rods, (600 rods about 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ acres) and some have none.

11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations?—Generally the proprietors of the soil, but sometimes a labourer, who lets a part to others, and occupies the remainder himself.

12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale?—By the week 60, 90 to 100 cents (12 *d.*, 18 *d.* to 20 *d.*), according to the tenement. By the year for part of a house or room, 20 *fl.* to 25 *fl.* (1 *l.* 13 *s.* 4 *d.* to 2 *l.* 1 *s.* 8 *d.*), the whole of the premises being worth about 500 *fl.* to 600 *fl.* (41 *l.* 13 *s.* 11 *d.* to 50 *l.*).

13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—The quantity is uncertain, but generally very limited, consisting of a few rods for the purpose of cultivating potatoes for their own use, or for sale, and is let to them in sundry soils, at the rate of five cents (one penny) a rod; and in better lands, at two or three times that price; arable land at 50 *fl.* or 60 *fl.* (4 *l.* 3 *s.* 4 *d.* to 5 *l.*) the bunder (2 $\frac{1}{2}$ acres).

14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?—In the province of North Holland, there died in the year 1832,

In towns, Males	-	-	-	-	-	5,114	
— Females	-	-	-	-	-	4,790	
							9,904
Rural population, Males	-	-	-	-	-	1,967	
— Females	-	-	-	-	-	1,836	
							3,803
Total	-	-	-	-	-	13,707	

Being 936 females to every 1,000 males; and 1 for every 30 $\frac{6}{10}$ of the population. In this year 920 persons died of cholera in North Holland.

15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?—In said province were born in the year 1832,

In towns, Males	-	-	-	-	-	4,471	
— Females	-	-	-	-	-	4,160	
							8,631
Rural population, Males	-	-	-	-	-	2,632	
— Females	-	-	-	-	-	2,381	
							5,013
Total	-	-	-	-	-	13,644	

Being 921 females to every 1,000 males; and 1 for every 30 $\frac{7}{10}$ of the population. In 1833 the population of North Holland was 419,424 souls.

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16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?—The marriages in the province of North Holland, in the year 1832, were 2,660; and compared with the births, give $5\frac{1}{10}$ children to every marriage. In Amsterdam, in 1833, were 1,642 marriages and five divorces. The population in 1832 was 200,784 souls. Proportion of marriages, 1 to every $122\frac{2}{10}$ persons.

17. The average number of children to a marriage? 18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?—In Amsterdam were born in the

Year 1832, Legitimate Males	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3,118
— Females	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,881
— Illegitimate Males,	} of which 160 were legitimated {							233
— Females,								220
								6,452 children.

Year 1833, Legitimate Males	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3,184
— Females	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3,137
— Illegitimate Males,	} of which 273 were legitimated {							248
— Females,								225
								6,794 children

19. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year? 20. That die before the end of their 10th year? 21. That die before the end of their 18th year?—For Answers to these Questions, See Annex, No. 2, p. 588.

22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—Generally between 20 and 25 years.

23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—No particular cause can be assigned for marriages being delayed besides the inability of the parties to support a family.

24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried; 2d, the married, save?—No class of labourers earn sufficient to enable them to lay by anything. There are saving banks established in cities, but the monies lodged there are deposited by a different class of persons.

Annex, No. 1, referring to Question 1, *Labourers, &c.*

RATE of WAGES paid for LABOUR of various kinds within the District of the Consulate of *Amsterdam*.

There are no manufactories at Amsterdam, but the journeymen exercising different trades are paid at the under-mentioned rates by the day, providing board and lodging themselves:

	From 15 March to 20 September.			From 20 September to 1 November.			From 1 November to 1 February.			From 1 February to 15 March.		
	<i>gld.</i>	<i>ct.</i>	<i>d.</i>	<i>gld.</i>	<i>ct.</i>	<i>d.</i>	<i>gld.</i>	<i>ct.</i>	<i>d.</i>	<i>gld.</i>	<i>ct.</i>	<i>d.</i>
Carpenters:												
1st Class	1	35	27	1	15	23	1	—	20	1	15	23
2d —	1	—	20	—	87 $\frac{1}{2}$	17 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	75	15	—	87 $\frac{1}{2}$	17 $\frac{1}{2}$
Masons:												
1st Class	1	30	26	1	13 $\frac{3}{4}$	22 $\frac{3}{4}$	1	—	20	1	13 $\frac{3}{4}$	22 $\frac{3}{4}$
2d —	1	—	20	—	87 $\frac{1}{2}$	17 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	75	15	—	87 $\frac{1}{2}$	17 $\frac{1}{2}$
Painters:												
1st Class	1	20	24	1	05	21	—	90	18	1	05	21
2d —	1	—	20	—	87 $\frac{1}{2}$	17 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	75	15	—	87 $\frac{1}{2}$	17 $\frac{1}{2}$
Smiths:												
1st Class	1	60	32	1	60	32	1	60	32	1	60	32
2d —	—	90	18	—	90	18	—	90	18	—	90	18
Stone-cutters:												
1st Class	1	70	34	1	48 $\frac{3}{4}$	29 $\frac{3}{4}$	1	27 $\frac{1}{2}$	25 $\frac{1}{2}$	1	48 $\frac{3}{4}$	29 $\frac{3}{4}$
2d —	1	—	20	—	87 $\frac{1}{2}$	17 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	75	15	—	87 $\frac{1}{2}$	17 $\frac{1}{2}$

Shoemakers and tailors, from 5*fl.* to 12*fl.* by the week, 8*s.* 4*d.* to 20*s.*

Ship carpenters, by the day, they providing their own board and lodging, and also their tools:—First class, 1*fl.* 80*c.* or 36*d.* in summer; decreasing to 1*fl.* 50*c.* and 1*fl.* 20*c.*, 30*d.* and 24*d.* during autumn and winter.

The

The lower classes are paid according to their ability in the proportion.

At the king's dockyard, the rate of wages is lower: that of the 1st class being only 1*fl.* 50*c.*, or 2*s.* 6*d.* per diem.

At Haarlem, a few manufactories on a smaller scale are still in existence, the work performed in which is paid by the piece; but the artisans, who must provide their own board and lodging, cannot earn more wages by the week than the under-mentioned rates:

In twist, thread and linen manufactories, in summer:—

			<i>fl.</i>	<i>c.</i>	<i>fl.</i>	<i>c.</i>		<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>
Artisans of 1st class	-	-	6	-	to 6	50,	equal to	10	-	to 10	10
2d	-	-	4	80	to 5	-	—	8	-	to 8	4
3d	-	-	3	60	to 4	-	—	6	-	to 7	6
4th	-	and women,	60	to 3	-	-	—	4	4	to 5	-
Children, from 9 to 16 years	-	-	40	to 1	80	-	—	-	8	to 3	-

In winter, one-fourth less.

Tape:—Artisan, 1st class, 4*fl.* 50*c.*, equal to 7*s.* 6*d.* Children, winding thread, 40*c.* to 60*c.* equal to 8*d.* to 12*d.*

Weavers:—Paid according to work performed at their own houses, 6*fl.* to 8*fl.* per week, equal to 10*s.* to 13*s.* 4*d.*

North Holland.

	<i>fl.</i>	<i>fl.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>
Oil mills:—1st class labourer - -	8	to 9	-	-	13	4 to 15 -
2d — - - -	6	to 7	-	-	10	- to 11 8
3d — - - -	4	to 5	-	-	6	8 to 8 4
Paper mills:—1st class - - - -	6	to 8	-	-	10	- to 13 4
Saw mills:—1st class - - - -	7	to 8	-	-	11	8 to 13 4
2d - - - -	5	to 6	-	-	8	4 to 10 -
3d - - - -	2	to 3	-	-	3	4 to 5 -

By the week, providing their own board and lodging; fire-wood free.

	<i>fl.</i>	<i>fl.</i>	<i>£.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>	<i>£.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>
Agricultural labour:—1st class - -	80	to 100	-	-	6	13	4 to 8	6 8
2d - - - -	40	to 50	-	-	3	6	8 to 4	3 4

By the year, receiving board or lodgings.

Day labourers:—1st class, 1*fl.* or 20*d.* a day, without board or lodgings.

Provinces of Vriesland and Groningen.

Oil mills:—1st class labourer, 5*fl.* to 6*fl.*, 8*s.* to 10*s.* by the week; receiving lodging and fuel. In winter, one-third less.

	<i>fl.</i>	<i>c.</i>	<i>fl.</i>	<i>c.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>
Saw mills:—1st class labourer - -	7	-	to 8	-	-	11	8 to 13	4
2d — - - -	1	50	to 3	-	-	2	6 to 5	-

By the week, without board.

Tile and brick makers:—1st class can earn in summer 15*fl.*, equal to 25*s.*, and in winter, 5*fl.* or 8*s.* 4*d.* 2d class, 50*c.* to 1*fl.* 50*c.*, 10*d.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* a week, without board.

Salt pans:—1st class, 5*fl.* to 6*fl.*, or 8*s.* 4*d.* to 10*s.*, without board, by the week.

	<i>fl.</i>	<i>fl.</i>	<i>£.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>	<i>£.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>
Agricultural labour:—1st class - -	80	to 100	-	-	6	13	4 to 8	6 8
2d - - - -	40	to 50	-	-	3	6	8 to 4	3 4

By the year, receiving board and lodging.

	<i>fl.</i>	<i>c.</i>	<i>c.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>
Ditto - - 1st class, in summer - -	1	-	-	-	or 20	-	-
— in winter - - - -	60	to 80	or 1	-	to 1	4	-
2d class, in summer - - - -	50	to 60	or -	10	to 1	-	-
— in winter - - - -	40	to 50	or -	8	to -	10	-

By the day, providing their own board and lodging.

Appendix (F.)

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HOLLAND.

Amsterdam.

Annex, No. 2, containing ANSWERS to QUERIES Nos. 19, 20, 21.

DEATHS at Amsterdam in the Year 1833.

AGES.	Males.	Females.	TOTAL.	AGES.	Males.	Females.	TOTAL.
Stillborn - - -	221	163	384	From 50 to 53 years	87	98	185
Under 1 month -	204	163	367	53 56 -	96	82	178
From 1 to 2 months	87	78	165	56 59 -	84	83	167
2 3 -	52	58	110	59 62 -	79	103	182
3 4 -	113	119	232	62 65 -	110	127	237
4 5 -	12	10	22	65 67 -	68	81	149
5 6 -	48	32	80	67 69 -	66	71	137
6 8 -	119	61	180	69 71 -	72	81	153
8 10 -	80	72	152	71 73 -	53	76	129
10 12 -	40	37	77	73 75 -	69	76	145
12 15 -	97	96	193	75 77 -	46	67	113
15 18 -	66	68	134	77 79 -	37	76	113
18 21 -	29	20	49	79 81 -	39	57	96
21 24 -	26	11	37	81 83 -	27	39	66
2 to 3 years	179	172	351	83 85 -	21	30	51
3 4 -	85	113	198	85 87 -	10	21	31
4 5 -	56	53	109	87 89 -	7	11	18
5 6 -	46	51	97	89 90 -	2	9	11
6 8 -	52	55	107	90 91 -	4	5	9
8 10 -	34	42	76	91 92 -	-	2	2
10 12 -	30	33	63	92 93 -	-	2	2
12 14 -	20	18	43	93 94 -	1	3	4
14 16 -	15	24	39	94 95 -	1	-	1
16 20 -	37	43	80	95 96 -	1	-	1
20 25 -	131	107	238	96 97 -	-	-	-
25 30 -	105	108	213	97 98 -	1	-	1
30 35 -	144	142	286	98 99 -	1	1	2
35 40 -	156	122	278	99 100 -	-	1	1
40 45 -	160	141	301	100 & upwards	-	-	-
45 50 -	134	149	283				
Total Males - - -	-	-	-		3,555		
Females - - -	-	-	-		3,573		
				TOTAL - - -	7,128		

Population in the Year 1832, 200,784 souls.

Proportion of deaths, 1 in 28 $\frac{17}{100}$

Annex, No. 3. DIETARY of PRISONS in the Kingdom of the Netherlands.

THIS Dietary is in general use throughout the whole kingdom. In most gaols the prisoners are allowed to employ any money they may have, or can earn in the prison, towards the purchase of additional victuals, for which purpose a sort of shop, called Canteen, is established in the interior of the building.

Food.

Daily allowance to prisoners of every description:

	lb. oz. l.	lb. decimal.	
Rye-bread - - - (Netherlands)	0 5 0	equal to 1.1	English.
Potatoes with seasoning - - -	0 7 5	- 1.65	-
Soup - - - (kanns)	1 6 -	pints 2.81	-

The soup is of various sorts, and is distributed,

Once a week, made of meat.

Three or four times a week, made of jelly of bones.

Once or twice a week, made of peeled barley.

Once a week, of peas or lentils.

These

Foreign
Communications.

HOLLAND.

Amsterdam.

These soups are made of the under-mentioned ingredients for every 100 persons.

(A). Meat soup -	(Netherlands) lb. oz. l. w.	lb.
Meat -	3 0 0 0	equal to 6.6 English.
Fat of beef -	0 6 0 0	1.32
Vegetables -	6 9 1 0	15.20
Potatoes -	22 0 0 0	48.40
Bread -	7 0 0 0	15.40
Barley meal -	5 0 0 0	11.
Salt -	2 3 2 1 1/4	5.11
Pepper -	0 0 0 3	.066

And to every sort of soup is added, maatjes, 7 lb. 9 oz. 1 l. 6 w.; vinegar, 1.40 pint English.

(B). Soup made of jelly of bones (gelatine); 8 a' 10 Netherland lbs., or 17.6 a' 22 English lbs.), bones produce of jelly, 22.50 kanns, equal to 39.60 pints English.

To which are added, broth, 15. — equal to 26.40

	lb. oz. l. w.	lb.
Fat of beef - (Netherlands)	0 6 6 0	equal to 1.45 English.
Vegetables -	6 9 1 0	15.20
Potatoes -	22 0 0 0	48.40
Barley meal -	5 0 0 0	11.
Salt -	2 3 2 1 1/4	5.11
Pepper -	0 0 0 3	0.066

and the same quantity of vinegar as before.

(C). Peeled barley soup:

Peeled barley or millet -	37 5 5 0	82.50
Fat of beef -	3 9 0 0	8.58
Salt -	1 5 6 0	3.43

(D). Peas or lentil soup:

Peas (green or gray) or lentils -	37 5 5 0	82.50
Fat of beef -	3 9 9 0	8.58
Salt -	1 5 6 0	3.43

To these two last sorts of soup some wheaten bread is always added, but the quantity is not determined.

Clothing.

For Men:	Years.	For Women:	Years.
1 cloth jacket and pair of trowsers to serve for -	3	1 cloth jacket to serve -	3
1 linen ditto and ditto -	2	1 woollen petticoat -	3
3 linen shirts -	1 1/2	1 dimity jacket -	2
3 ditto waistcoats with sleeves -	2	2 common under-petticoats -	3
2 cravats -	2	2 neck handkerchiefs -	2
2 pair socks -	2	2 caps -	2
2 cotton night-caps -	2	3 shifts -	1 1/2
3 pair wooden shoes -	2	2 aprons -	1
1 felt cap -	3	3 pair wooden shoes -	2

Bedding.

1 straw bed to serve for -	4 years.
88 lbs. Netherland, or 176 lbs. English straw (delivered at different times) -	1
1 bolster -	4
3 pair sheets -	4
2 woollen blankets -	10
1 hammock -	20

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HOLLAND.

Amsterdam.

The clothing and bedding are washed at stated periods, according to regulations.

In every prison, rooms are set apart for sick prisoners, provided with beds; one for every 20 prisoners; viz.

One iron bedstead; one straw bed, filled; bolster, sheets and blankets, as already mentioned; and besides, with one blanket or counterpane extraordinary; two jackets and trousers for men; and two petticoats for women, two caps, two shirts or shifts.

THE Expense of the Maintenance of Prisoners is estimated to amount, each day, to the following Sums:

	fl.	cent.	d.
Food - - -	0	8,093	equal (a' 12 fl. per £.) to 1.618 $\frac{2}{3}$ sterling.
Clothing - - -	0	2,039	- - - 0.407 $\frac{1}{2}$ -
Bedding - - -	0	1,059	- - - 0.211 $\frac{1}{2}$ -
Lighting - - -	0	0,033	- - - 0.006 $\frac{1}{2}$ -
Heating - - -	0	0,039	- - - 0.007 $\frac{1}{2}$ -
Washing - - -	0	0,068	- - - 0.013 $\frac{3}{4}$ -
Medicines, &c. - - -	0	1,042	- - - 0.208 $\frac{2}{3}$ -
	0	12,373	- - - 2.474 $\frac{3}{4}$ -
Or per week - - -	0	86,611	- - - 17.322 $\frac{1}{2}$ -
Or per year - - -	45	17,201	- - - £. 3. 15. 4. -

To which must be added expense of instruction afforded the prisoners; repairs of the gaol; officers' salaries, &c.; other charges attending their custody, registers, &c.

From a respectable and intelligent inspector of gaols, I am assured that the health of the prisoners is nowise impaired by the diet afforded them; and that to his knowledge they have never complained of it.

BELGIUM.

LETTER from Sir R. Adair, to the Right Honourable Viscount Palmerston, G.C.B.,
&c. &c. &c.

My Lord,

Brussels, May 9th, 1834.

HAVING at length obtained from the Minister of Justice an answer to the questions concerning the Belgian Regulations for the Poor, which I addressed to him in obedience to your Lordship's instructions, I herewith enclose it to your Lordship, together with the printed documents by which it is accompanied.

I have, &c.

Robert Adair.

Enclosure.

LETTER from the Belgic Minister of Justice to Sir Robert Adair.

Monsieur le Chevalier,

Bruxelles, le 6 Mai 1834.

J'AI l'honneur de vous faire parvenir avec la présente des réponses aux questions que vous m'avez remises de la part du gouvernement Anglais, relativement aux établissemens de bienfaisance et au système de secours pour les indigens, en Belgique, en les accompagnant de divers ouvrages et documens qui concernent ces objets.

Je n'ai pas cru devoir attendre pour vous faire l'envoi de ces pièces, que je fusse à même d'y joindre les nouveaux renseignemens statistiques concernant l'exercice de 1833, et que je fais recueillir en ce moment; je me réserve, Monsieur le Chevalier, d'avoir l'honneur de vous les transmettre dès qu'ils seront prêts.

Quant aux questions relatives à l'état des agriculteurs et des artisans, au taux des salaires, au nombre des mariages, des naissances et des décès, &c. &c., comme il compète à mon collègue au Ministère de l'Intérieur d'y répondre, je lui ai communiqué la série de ces questions, et il se dispose sans doute à y satisfaire.

Veillez agréer, Monsieur le Chevalier, l'hommage de ma considération la plus distinguée.

A Sir R. Adair,
Ministre Plénipotentiaire du
Gouvernement Britannique.

Le Ministre de la Justice,
Lebeau.

ROYAUME DE BELGIQUE.

MINISTERE DE LA JUSTICE.

REPONSES aux Questions adressées par le Gouvernement Anglais sur l'état des Indigens en Belgique.

(Janvier 1834.)

I.—1. LE vagabondage et la mendicité habituelle deviennent chaque année plus rares en Belgique.

La mendicité accidentelle, occasionée par le manque temporaire d'ouvrage, par la rigueur de l'hiver, etc., est plus commune; mais comme elle cesse ordinairement avec les causes qui l'ont fait naître, on déploie rarement contre ceux qui s'y livrent, les rigueurs de la législation. On trouvera des renseignemens sur cette législation, ainsi que sur les institutions qui s'y rattachent, dans un Rapport de M. l'Inspecteur-général des Prisons, publié en 1832, sous le titre suivant: "Des Moyens de soulager l'Indigence et de prévenir la Mendicité." Le vagabondage habituel est limité à quelques districts.

2. L'autorité n'accorde de secours d'aucune espèce aux individus traversant le pays, cherchant de l'ouvrage, retournant au lieu de leur domicile, ou mendiant pour vivre. La charité particulière seule vient par fois à leur secours. Tout individu pour voyager en Belgique doit être muni d'un passeport, faute de quoi il s'expose d'être arrêté.

II.—1 & 2. Les indigens valides sont le plus ordinairement secourus à domicile par les bureaux de bienfaisance institués et dotés pour secourir les pauvres. Les secours dans ce cas sont limités au tems de la détresse, et cessent lorsque l'indigent valide se trouve de nouveau à même de pourvoir à sa subsistance par son travail.

A défaut ou en cas d'insuffisance des secours alloués par les bureaux de bienfaisance, les indigens valides peuvent se présenter pour être admis dans les dépôts de mendicité; ces dépôts sont au nombre de six; savoir,

Le Dépôt d'Hoogstraeten, pour la Province d'Anvers.

— de la Cambre	—	Brabant.
— de Bruges	—	Les deux Flandres.
— de Mons	—	Hainaut.
— de Namur	—	Namur et Luxembourg.
— Reckheim	—	Limbourg et Liège.

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Néanmoins, pour prévenir les abus qui pourraient résulter de la libre admission des indigens valides dans ces établissemens, l'arrêté Royal du 29 Août 1833, prescrit aux commissions chargées de leur administration de n'y admettre que provisoirement les individus qui viendront y chercher un asile, sans la demande préalable de l'autorité municipale de la commune de leur domicile de secours, et de donner immédiatement à celle-ci avis de l'admission provisoire. Si l'administration communale offre de les entretenir au lieu de leur domicile, ils y sont renvoyés; si non ils demeurent au dépôt, et la commune est obligée de payer leurs frais d'entretien.

Indépendamment de l'arrêté du 29 Août 1833, qui pose les bases de la réorganisation des dépôts, on pourra consulter, pour ce qui concerne le régime et la discipline de ces établissemens, les dispositions insérées dans le code administratif des établissemens de bienfaisance, et le Rapport de M. l'Inspecteur-général des Prisons, cité plus haut.

Outre les dépôts où l'on reçoit les indigens valides, ils peuvent également trouver un asile et du travail aux colonies agricoles: dans quelques localités, à Gand, par exemple, on les admet aussi temporairement dans des maisons de travail, où on leur fournit de l'occupation jusqu'à ce qu'ils puissent s'en procurer eux-mêmes.

3. Les abbayes et les autres établissemens religieux qui distribuaient des aumônes aux indigens, ont été supprimés en Belgique comme en France, à la suite de la Révolution Française; leurs biens ont été vendus comme propriétés nationales. Il y a en Belgique plusieurs communautés religieuses qui se vouent à l'éducation de la jeunesse, à l'instruction des pauvres, au soulagement des malades; il n'y en a plus qui fassent aux pauvres des aumônes et des distributions.

4. Les bureaux de bienfaisance se bornent ordinairement à procurer aux indigens des secours en vêtemens, en denrées, pain, pommes de terre, chauffage, en objets de couchage, en médicamens, et quelquefois en argent. Rarement ils procurent du travail à domicile aux indigens qui exercent un métier, mais qui sont hors d'état de trouver par eux-mêmes de l'occupation. Dans quelques localités, à Bruxelles, à Liège, à Verviers, etc., des associations particulières se sont formées pour combler cette lacune, et suppléer à l'insuffisance des ressources des bureaux de bienfaisance. Cependant, leurs efforts pour procurer du travail aux indigens valides n'ont pas toujours été couronnés de succès.

5. Les travaux publics offrent dans quelques localités une ressource aux indigens valides sans autre moyen d'occupation. C'est ainsi qu, pendant l'hiver de 1830 à 1831, on employa un grand nombre d'ouvriers de Bruxelles, momentanément sans travail, à l'achèvement des boulevards de la ville. Cet hiver encore la même ressource est offerte aux indigens valides. Alors que les circonstances ou la saison se montrent plus favorables, ces ouvriers rentrent dans leurs ateliers ou reprennent leurs travaux accoutumés.

Au dépôt de mendicité d'Hoogstraeten (province d'Anvers), et aux colonies agricoles, les indigens valides sont employés à l'agriculture; dans les autres dépôts ils sont exclusivement employés à des travaux d'atelier.

6. Les distributions de chauffage, d'habillemens ou d'argent, faites aux indigens valides ou à leurs familles, sont réglées par les réglemens locaux. Les bureaux de bienfaisance proportionnent ces distributions à leurs ressources; dans tous les cas les secours accordés aux indigens valides ne sont que temporaires; ils sont limités au strict nécessaire, et varient suivant que leurs familles sont plus ou moins nombreuses. Il n'y a point à cet égard de règle générale.

7. Dans la plupart des communes les enfans pauvres sont admis gratuitement dans les écoles communales; mais toutes les familles indigentes n'apprécient pas encore les avantages de cette faveur, de sorte qu'un assez grand nombre de pauvres enfans demeurent encore sans instruction. L'instruction dans les écoles communales se borne le plus souvent à la lecture, l'écriture, et les premiers élémens de l'arithmétique; dans les communes un peu considérables on y joint quelques notions de grammaire, d'histoire, de géographie, et parfois de dessin linéaire.

Les enfans pauvres dans les écoles communales ne reçoivent que l'instruction; ils ne sont ni nourris, ni vêtus; le soin de les mettre en apprentissage est généralement abandonné à leurs familles. Cependant, les jeunes filles apprennent assez souvent dans les écoles à tricoter et à coudre. Elles vont ensuite en apprentissage comme les garçons.

Indépendamment des écoles communales, il existe encore en Belgique, particulièrement dans les communes populeuses, des écoles particulières où l'on admet aussi gratuitement les enfans pauvres. Les frères des écoles Chrétiennes, expulsés de Belgique sous le gouvernement Hollandais, y ont érigé depuis la Révolution de 1830, plusieurs établissemens d'instruction que fréquentent un grand nombre de pauvres enfans. Il y a quelques années aussi qu'on a fondé à Bruxelles des écoles en salles d'asile pour la première enfance, à l'instar des *infant schools* d'Angleterre. Cet exemple commence à être imité dans quelques localités.

8. Aux termes des art. 203 à 211, 349, etc. du Code Civil, les parens au 1^{er} degré, ascendans et descendans, le mari et l'épouse, se doivent assistance mutuelle en cas d'indigence. Les secours qu'ils reçoivent dans ce cas, à titre d'alimens, sont proportionnés à la fortune de celui qui doit les allouer.

9. Des établissemens de prêts sur gages, nommés Monts-de-Piété ont été institués dans les principales villes, sous la surveillance des autorités locales. Les Monts-de-Piété ne prêtent jamais qu'une valeur moindre que celle de l'objet engagé; les intérêts qu'ils retirent de leurs avances dépassent généralement l'intérêt légal. Si les gages déposés ne sont pas retirés au bout d'un certain tems, ils sont vendus pour compte des dépositaires. Les bénéfices résultant de ces transactions servent à couvrir les frais d'administration des Monts-de-Piété.

Piété, et le surplus est versé dans les caisses des hospices. (Voir dans le Code Administratif des Etablissements de Bienfaisance les dispositions qui concernent l'organisation et la direction des Monts-de-Piété. Voir aussi la brochure de M. Arnould, sur les Monts-de-Piété.)

III.—1. Il y a en Belgique un grand nombre d'hospices et de maisons de refuge, où l'on reçoit les indigens qui, à cause de leur grand âge, sont incapables de gagner leur subsistance. Les réglemens de ces établissemens varient suivant les localités. Les uns sont communaux, c'est le plus grand nombre ; les autres particuliers.

La statistique des établissemens de bienfaisance, publiée sous l'ancien gouvernement, indique le nombre des hospices, leurs revenus, leurs dépenses, leur population, etc., pendant une série de plusieurs années.

2. Les bureaux de bienfaisance accordent également aux indigens invalides par suite de vieillesse, des secours à domicile en nourriture, chauffage, habillemens et argent.

Ces secours, accordés à titre provisoire aux indigens valides, sont ordinairement accordés sans interrogation aux invalides.

3. Lorsque l'indigent invalide n'a pas de famille où il puisse être reçu, à défaut de pouvoir le faire admettre dans un hospice, il arrive parfois qu'on le met en pension chez un particulier ou un cultivateur, moyennant une somme modique qu'on paye annuellement à ce dernier. On a particulièrement recours à cet expédient dans les communes rurales qui n'ont pas d'hospices où l'on recueille les pauvres vieillards.

4. Nous avons répondu plus haut à cette demande. (II. R. 8.)

IV.—1. Des hôpitaux, de même que les hospices, sont établis dans la plupart des villes ; généralement on y reçoit tous les malades indigens qui s'y présentent, et on les traite gratuitement.

La statistique des établissemens de bienfaisance indique le nombre des hôpitaux en Belgique, leurs revenus, leurs dépenses, leur population, leurs décès : les réglemens de ces établissemens diffèrent suivant les localités, de même que ceux des hospices.

Nous joignons aussi quelques-uns de ces réglemens à nos réponses, ils suppléeront à ce que celles-ci peuvent avoir d'incomplet.

2. Les secours alloués par les bureaux de bienfaisance sont distribués par l'intermédiaire des maîtres des pauvres ; ces maîtres des pauvres, repartis par quartiers, visitent aussi les indigens malades à domicile ; ils sont secondés par des médecins des pauvres, également nommés et rétribués par les administrations des bureaux de bienfaisance pour donner gratuitement leurs soins aux pauvres malades. Ceux-ci reçoivent, sans rien payer, les médicamens prescrits par les ordonnances des médecins des pauvres.

3. Indépendamment des secours médicaux donnés aux malades indigens dans les hôpitaux et par l'intermédiaire des bureaux de bienfaisance, il existe encore dans quelques localités des sociétés d'assistance mutuelle entre les ouvriers exerçant une même profession ; les sociétés ont pour but principal, de donner des secours aux ouvriers malades ; elles sont établies d'après le même plan que les sociétés d'assistance mutuelle de Paris.

4. Dans quelques hôpitaux on reçoit les femmes en couche quelles qu'elles soient ; dans d'autres on ne reçoit que les femmes mariées munies de certificats favorables ; dans plusieurs localités on n'admet pas même celles-ci dans les hôpitaux. Cette exclusion a donné naissance aux sociétés dites De Charité Maternelle ; ces sociétés fournissent des secours aux femmes et aux filles en couche, soit à domicile, soit en les admettant pendant un certain tems dans des lieux appropriés à cet effet. Il existe en Belgique trois sociétés de charité maternelle, à Liège, Verviers et Gand.

5. Il n'existe point à notre connaissance, d'autre mode de secours public pour les malades indigens que ceux que nous venons d'énumérer.

V.—1. Tout ce qui concerne l'entretien et l'alimentation des enfans illégitimes, est réglé en Belgique par le Code Civil Français, qui y est encore en rigueur. La charge de cet entretien incombe aux pères ou aux mères qui les ont reconnus. On sait que la recherche de la paternité est interdite par le Code Français.

2. A défaut de tel père et mère, nul autre parent en ligne ascendante ne peut être tenu de fournir des alimens à l'enfant illégitime.

3. Les enfans illégitimes ne peuvent être entretenus aux frais des communes, des provinces, ou de l'état, qu'en cas d'indigence dûment constatée ; ils sont dans ce cas rangés dans la catégorie des enfans trouvés et abandonnés, et admis dans les établissemens qui sont destinés à ces derniers.

VI.—1. Il existe en Belgique plusieurs établissemens destinés à recevoir les orphelins ; ces établissemens sont, avec les établissemens pour les vieillards, les infirmes, les incurables, les hôpitaux, etc., administrés par les commissions locales, appelée Commissions Administratives des Hospices. Ce sont pour la plupart des fondations particulières successivement dotées par des legs et des donations de particuliers. Les établissemens ou maisons d'enfans trouvés sont distincts des établissemens pour les orphelins. Jusqu'ici la charge des premiers a incombé aux communes ; un projet de loi récemment présenté à la législature, a pour but de déplacer cette charge en la répartissant entre les communes, les provinces, et l'état.

2. Les orphelins sont ordinairement entretenus et élevés dans les établissemens qui leur sont destinés. Les enfans trouvés et abandonnés sont presque toujours mis en nourrice, puis, à l'âge de six ans, autant que faire se peut, mis en pension chez des cultivateurs ou des artisans. (Voir des Dispositions relatives aux Enfans trouvés dans le Code Administratif des Etablissements de Bienfaisance.)

VII.—1. Les hospices pour les estropiés et les incurables manquent encore dans plusieurs communes populeuses, où se trouvent d'ailleurs des hôpitaux et des hospices pour les vieillards.

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
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vieillards. Faute d'hospices de ce genre, beaucoup d'estropiés et d'incurables indigens sont obligés de chercher au refuge dans les dépôts de mendicité.

Il n'existe en Belgique aucun établissement spécial pour les aveugles, mais il y en a deux pour les sourds-muets, à Grand et à Liège ; il est question aussi d'en ériger un à Bruxelles, où l'on recevrait également les jeunes aveugles indigens. Les sourds-muets et les aveugles indigens sont d'ailleurs assimilés aux autres indigens, et trouvent asile dans les hospices ordinaires et les dépôts de mendicité. Ce qui manque ce sont de bons établissemens d'instruction, où ils puissent recevoir une éducation qui les mette à même de connaître un métier, et de s'en faire un moyen d'existence.

L'état des aliénés en Belgique est à peu près le même qu'en France, en Angleterre, et en Allemagne. Pour l'apprécier on pourra consulter un rapport publié en 1832 par M. l'Instituteur des Prisons, sur L'Etat des Aliénés en Belgique, et sur les Moyens d'améliorer leur Sort.

2. Les aliénés sont dans certaines localités enfermés dans des établissemens appropriés à cet effet ; dans d'autres on les met en pension chez des cultivateurs. Les aliénés du Brabant et d'une partie de la province d'Anvers sont envoyés dans la Campine, dans la commune de Gheel, où, de tems immémorial, les habitans font de l'entretien des aliénés une branche de spéculation.

3. Les pauvres ne sont tenus de subvenir à l'entretien de leurs parens, estropiés, incurables, sourds-muets, aveugles et aliénés, que pour autant que le degré de parenté de ceux-ci soit de nature à leur imposer cette obligation. Nous avons déjà indiqué la règle suivie à cet égard, à propos de l'entretien des indigens valides.

VIII. Les établissemens de bienfaisance en Belgique, quoique n'étant pas tous également irréprochables, procurent aux pauvres un soulagement réel, sans avoir les inconvéniens des institutions charitables de l'Angleterre. En effet, chez nous nul ne peut exiger de secours en vertu d'un droit ; généralement bornées d'ailleurs, les ressources des bureaux de bienfaisance, pour les distributions des secours à domicile, ne sont pas de nature à provoquer, à exagérer les espérances du pauvre : il sait qu'il est de son intérêt d'épuiser tous les moyens de se tirer d'embarras par lui-même, avant de réclamer l'assistance des maîtres des pauvres. Cependant les fonds des bureaux de bienfaisance ne sont pas partout également bien administrés, et de l'administration vicieuse de ces fonds dans quelques localités, résultent des abus qui se rapprochent à quelques égards des abus qui naissent du système Anglais, ainsi, p. e., on fait parfois aux indigens des distributions sans avoir convenablement constaté au préalable leur défaut absolu de moyens d'existence. On encourage ainsi la paresse et l'imprévoyance ; et il n'est pas sans exemple, que tel ouvrier s'abstient de travailler uniquement parcequ'il croit pouvoir compter sur la charité facile et aveugle du maître des pauvres chargé de la distribution des secours dans son quartier.

Mais ces abus ne sont pas très fréquens, et forment l'exception : il s'en suit qu'ils n'ont qu'une influence très faible, très indirecte sur l'industrie et sur l'activité des journaliers et des ouvriers, sur leur manière de voir, leur frugalité, sur l'âge auquel il se marient, etc. ; on pourrait peut-être cependant reprocher aux hospices pour les vieillards et aux maisons d'enfans trouvés, d'avoir pour tendance de diminuer la dépendance, et d'affaiblir l'affection mutuelle des parens, des enfans, et des autres membres des familles ; mais d'autres avantages recommandent ces établissemens et balancent ces inconvéniens.

En somme, en Belgique, la condition des ouvriers valides qui subviennent par eux-mêmes à leur subsistance est sous tous les rapports préférable à la condition des individus entretenus par la charité publique, ou vivant d'aumônes ; ces derniers d'ailleurs deviennent moins nombreux de jour en jour, et leur métier est inséparable du danger des poursuites judiciaires et de la séquestration pour un terme plus ou moins long dans un dépôt de mendicité. Nous avons dit que les établissemens charitables de la Belgique n'étaient pas tous également irréprochables ; aussi le gouvernement prépare-t-il la révision successive des lois et des dispositions réglementaires qui les régissent. La loi du 13 Août 1833,* relative à l'entretien des indigens et mendiens dans les dépôts de mendicité ; l'arrêté du 29 Août 1833,† qui jette les bases de la réorganisation de ces derniers établissemens, sont destinés à préparer la réforme devenue indispensable de toute la législation relative à l'extinction de la mendicité. La législature ne tardera pas, non plus à s'occuper d'une loi relative à l'entretien des enfans trouvés d'une autre loi concernant la séquestration des aliénés, à la suite des quelles on s'occupera probablement de remédier aux vices et aux abus qui existent dans les établissemens destinés aux enfans trouvés et aux insensés. La prochaine discussion des lois provinciales et communales, indiquera probablement aussi les bases d'après lesquelles il y aura lieu à procéder à la révision et à la modification des dispositions concernant les hospices et les bureaux de bienfaisance. L'établissement des colonies agricoles est également l'objet dans ce moment d'un examen qui conduira probablement à leur réorganisation. L'amélioration du sort des aveugles et des sourds-muets, l'extension de l'instruction dans les classes laborieuses, et de l'institution des caisses d'épargne et d'assistance mutuelle compléteront cette série de mesures bienfaisantes qui sont déjà mises en discussion, préparées ou seulement projetées, et dont l'accomplissement ne sera probablement pas très éloigné.

* Post, p. 604.

† Post, p. 605.

REGLEMENT pour la tenue des Ecoles de Pauvres de la ville de Louvain.

La Section des Secours, faisant les Fonctions de Curateurs des Ecoles des Pauvres,

Vu l'arrêté du Conseil-général d'administration des hopices et des secours du 12 Juin 1819, portant institution de cinq écoles pour l'instruction gratuite des enfans indigens, ledit arrêté approuvé par le collège des bourgmestre et échevins de la ville, le 2 Juillet suivant.

Considérant, qu'aux termes de l'Art. 8 dudit arrêté, elle doit proposer, à la sanction du même collège, un règlement, sur le mode de l'enseignement, l'admission des enfans, la police des écoles, etc., et qu'il importe de s'acquitter de ces devoirs, vu la prochaine ouverture des écoles dont il s'agit ;

Arrête le Règlement suivant :

MODE DE L'INSTRUCTION.

Ecole des Garçons.

Art. 1. L'enseignement simultané sera suivi dans l'école des garçons pauvres, d'après le mode établi dans celle du dépôt de mendicité à la Cambre, en y apprenant à lire, à écrire, et les règles de l'arithmétique.

Ecoles des Filles.

Art. 2. Le même mode sera suivi, autant que possible, par chacune des directrices des 4 écoles des filles, pour ce qui regarde la lecture, l'écriture et les règles de l'arithmétique ; à cet effet, le directeur de l'école des garçons se rendra fréquemment aux écoles des filles, et au moins trois fois par semaine, pour instruire les directrices dans l'enseignement simultané, et les familiariser promptement avec ce mode d'instruction ; il fera rapport, au moins tous les trois mois, des progrès de l'instruction au conseil-général, qui, d'après ce rapport, décidera l'époque à laquelle l'enseignement simultané pourra être introduit dans chaque école. Le conseil se réserve d'accorder une gratification au directeur de l'école des garçons, d'après la promptitude et le zèle qu'il aura employés pour l'introduction de l'enseignement simultané dans toutes les écoles des filles. Le conseil-général se réserve aussi d'accorder une gratification à la directrice de l'école des filles qui, la première, se sera rendue apte à instruire par l'enseignement simultané, et l'aura pratiqué avec succès.

Livres à l'Usage des Ecoles.

Art. 3. Indépendamment des livres, dont on se sert dans l'école du dépôt de mendicité, qui sont joints au présent, sous les Nos. 1, 2 et 3, le directeur et les directrices employeront le catéchisme de l'Archevêché de Malines, au moyen duquel, les garçons et les filles s'exerceront la mémoire.

TRAVAIL.

Garçons.

Art. 4. Les enfans qui fréquentent l'école des garçons, et qui n'auront pas encore choisi un métier, apprendront à éplucher les laines, à l'atelier de charité, jusqu'à ce que leurs parens y pourvoient.

Art. 5. Les enfans qui apprennent un métier hors de l'établissement, devront rapporter un certificat de leur maître, avec lequel, le directeur se concertera pour fixer, d'un commun accord, les heures pendant lesquelles ils pourront se rendre à l'école.

Filles.

Art. 6. Les filles recevront l'instruction pendant une heure le matin, et une heure l'après dîner ; le reste du tems sera employé, à la couture de préférence, au tricotage, et à la fabrication de la dentelle, suivant les dispositions particulières de chaque enfant.

Ouverture et Cloture des Ecoles.

Art. 7. Les écoles, tant celles des garçons, que les 4 écoles des filles, s'ouvriront depuis le 21 Septembre jusqu'au 1^{er} Avril, à 8 heures moins un quart du matin, et du 1^{er} Avril au 31 Août, à 7 heures moins un quart. L'ouverture sera suivie immédiatement de l'appel nominal, après lequel les enfans se rendront à l'église, comme il sera dit ci-après.

Art. 8. De retour de la messe, les enfans auront récréation pendant un quart d'heure, pour prendre la nourriture, et aussitôt après commenceront les écoles.

Art. 9. L'heure de l'instruction écoulée, les filles travailleront pendant le reste de la matinée, jusqu'à midi.

Art. 10. L'école des garçons finira le matin à 10 heures.

Art. 11. Les écoles, tant des filles que des garçons, se rouvriront l'après dîner à 2 heures précises.

Les filles recommenceront par une heure d'instruction, et seront, pour le reste du tems, employées au travail, savoir, pendant les 6 mois d'hiver, jusqu'à 5 heures, et pendant les 6 mois d'été, jusqu'à 6 heures du soir.

Art. 12. L'école des garçons finira l'après dîner, pendant toute l'année, à 4 heures du soir.

Devoirs Religieux.

Art. 13. Le matin, immédiatement après que l'appel nominal aura été fait, les enfans de

Louvain.

La paroisse de N. D. St. Dominique	-	-	-	-	-	-	8
Celle de St. Pierre	-	-	-	-	-	-	8
Et celle de Ste. Gertrude	-	-	-	-	-	-	14
					Total	- - -	30

Art. 24. Messieurs les maîtres des pauvres délivrent à chaque enfant, qu'ils admettront aux écoles de leurs paroisses respectives, un bon d'admission, suivant le modèle joint au présent, sous le No. 4.

Art. 25. Ils tiendront un registre particulier pour les garçons, et un autre pour les filles, sur lesquels ils inscriront, par ordre des dates, les bons d'admission, qu'ils délivreront aux enfans.

Le modèle de ce registre est joint au présent, sous le No. 5.

Art. 26. Les directeur et directrices tiendront de leur côté pareil registre, sur lequel ils inscriront les bons d'admission, délivrés par les maîtres des pauvres, au moment que les enfans le présenteront à leurs écoles respectives : ils placeront ces bons dans un carton, par ordre de No. d'admission, et y joindront la déclaration du médecin et chirurgien de la paroisse, concernant leur état sanitaire, dont l'examen préalable est prescrit par l'Art. 20 du présent.

Art. 27. Les directeur et directrices n'admettront aucun enfant dans leurs écoles respectives, sans le bon d'admission, la déclaration du médecin et chirurgien, concernant leurs état sanitaire, et le bulletin de leur naissance.

Art. 28. Ceux-ci retourneront à Messieurs les maîtres des pauvres les bons d'admission des enfans, aussitôt qu'ils quitteront leurs écoles, soit après avoir fait leur première communion, soit par renvoi, soit en quittant l'école librement.

Art. 29. Le retour de ces bons chez les maîtres des pauvres, leur servira d'avis qu'il y a une place vacante, qu'ils conféreront aussitôt, en observant aussi, qu'ils ne pourront jamais outre-passer le nombre fixé par l'Art. 23.

POLICE.

Art. 30. Messieurs les maîtres des pauvres, et particulièrement Messieurs les Curés, sont priés de surveiller les écoles de leurs paroisses respectives, ainsi que d'informer la section des secours par écrit, toutes les fois qu'ils y découvriraient des abus, afin qu'elle puisse prendre de suite les mesures nécessaires pour les faire cesser.

Art. 31. La section des secours nomme les membres chargés de la surveillance spéciale de chaque école.

La section y fera annuellement une visite, et toutes les fois qu'elle le trouvera convenir.

Art. 32. La police intérieure de l'école s'exerce immédiatement, par le directeur ou la directrice respective de chaque école.

Art. 33. Ils veilleront à ce que les enfans soient journellement lavés, qu'ils aient la tête propre, et qu'ils conservent leurs habillemens.

Art. 34. Lorsque les élèves commettent des fautes graves, les directeur ou directrices en font part au membre de la section spécialement chargé de la surveillance de l'école.

Celui-ci autorise d'infliger les peines prescrites, ou en réfère à la section des secours, suivant la gravité des cas.

La section seule prononce le renvoi des enfans.

Art. 35. Les peines que le directeur ou les directrices peuvent eux-mêmes infliger aux enfans, sont :

De les faire mettre à genoux au milieu de la classe, pendant un quart d'heure, une demie heure, et une heure au plus, de leur attacher au dos, ou placer sur la tête une marque humiliante, et ce suivant la gravité des fautes.

Art. 36. Il est expressement défendu au directeur ou directrices, de battre ou de maltraiter les enfans : ils doivent se borner aux peines ci-dessus.

Le directeur ou les directrices éviteront, autant que possible, la punition des enfans ; ils employeront toujours de préférence les moyens de douceur, les menaces, et seulement les peines de rigueur, lorsque le cas l'exigera.

Art. 37. Les peines à infliger par le membre surveillant, sont, la retenue d'une partie du gain des filles, et la prison pour les garçons.

Art. 38. La section des secours prononce le renvoi des enfans qui commettent des fautes graves et qui, soit à cause de méchanceté, soit à cause d'indocilité ou défaut d'application, donnent de mauvais exemples aux autres enfans.

Le renvoi pourra être limité pour un, deux, trois mois, même pour un an.

Il sera définitif, si les fautes sont extrêmement graves et pour récidive.

Art. 39. Lorsque le directeur ou les directrices s'apercevront qu'un élève est atteint de la galle, de la teigne, ou de toute autre maladie contagieuse, ils feront venir aussitôt le médecin ou chirurgien de la paroisse, et sur la déclaration affirmative, en font rapport au membre surveillant, qui ordonne le renvoi de l'enfant jusqu'à guérison parfaite.

Art. 40. L'enfant ainsi renvoyé ne rentrera de nouveau en classe, que muni d'une déclaration par écrit, portant qu'il est parfaitement guéri.

RECOMPENSES.

Art. 41. Les récompenses pour les garçons consisteront :

1°. En des places distinguées dans l'intérieur de l'école et en allant à l'église.

2°. En des habillemens, que Messieurs les maîtres des pauvres délivreront, conformément à l'invitation de la section des secours, et sur le rapport favorable du directeur ou des directrices des écoles. Et

3°. Dans une marque distinguée, que les plus sages porteront sur la poitrine, après avoir mérité les habillemens complets.

Appendix (F.)

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Art. 42. Les récompenses pour les filles consisteront :

- 1°. En des places distinguées dans l'intérieur des écoles et en allant à l'église.
- 2°. En le payement de ce qu'elles gagneront, déduction faite des retenues, dont il sera parlé ci-après.
- 3°. En des habillemens, que Messieurs les maîtres des pauvres délivreront de la même manière qu'il a été dit à l'article précédent.
- 4°. Et finalement, dans la marque distinctive qu'elles porteront au col, après avoir mérité les habillemens.

DU TRAVAIL ET SON PRODUIT.

Art. 43. Les vêtemens, chemises, bas, etc., qui seront mis à l'avenir à la disposition de Messieurs les maîtres des pauvres, seront confectionnés ; savoir, les étoffes à l'atelier de charité, où les garçons éplucheront les laines, et par les filles, dans leurs écoles respectives.

Art. 44. La section des secours prendra, à l'égard de l'exécution de l'article précédent, les dispositions nécessaires, pour en assurer le prompt succès.

Art. 45. Les directrices tiendront un registre, dans lequel chaque enfant aura son compte, et où sera annoté le produit de son travail.

Le modèle de ce registre se trouve joint au présent, sous le No. 6.

Art. 46. Tous les trois mois, il en sera fait un décompte.

La directrice prélèvera sur ce produit 40 p. 0.

La moitié de ce prélèvement est destiné à l'achat des fils à coudre et à dentelle, et à l'entretien des métiers, chaises, etc.

L'autre moitié appartiendra à la directrice, pour prix d'encouragement.

Le reste du compte de chaque enfant lui sera remis en récompence, si elle l'a méritée ; sinon, ce produit appartiendra à la masse, et sera destiné à une réjouissance annuelle.

REJOUISSANCES ANNUELLES.

Art. 47. Le directeur et les directrices se rendront tous les ans, un après-dîner, hors d'une des portes de la ville, et y procureront une récréation à leurs élèves.

Les écoles ne peuvent jamais se réunir à cet effet.

Le directeur pourra disposer pour la récréation annuelle d'une somme de f. 15-0-0 et chaque directrice de f. 8-0-0.

Le directeur portera cette somme dans son compte mensuel, et les directrices la prélèveront sur la masse, dont il est question à l'article précédent, et à défaut de masse, elles la porteront en compte comme le directeur.

DISPOSITIONS GENERALES.

Art. 48. Le présent règlement sera affiché dans chaque école, et il en sera fait lecture tous les ans, par le secrétaire de l'administration, le jour de l'ouverture solennelle des écoles, qui aura lieu en présence du Conseil-général d'administration des hospices et des secours, et de Messieurs les curés et maîtres des pauvres de toutes les paroisses de la ville.

Art. 49. A cet effet, le premier Lundi, qui suivra le 21 Septembre de chaque année, les directrices des écoles des filles se rendront, à 10 heures du matin, à l'école des garçons, où ceux-ci seront présens.

Le secrétaire y donnera lecture du présent règlement.

Le président du conseil fera connaître le membre de la section des secours, qui sera chargé de la surveillance immédiate de chaque école, pendant l'année.

On proclamera le nom des élèves de chaque école qui, par leur application et leur progrès, auront été reconnus avoir le plus de mérite. Ces élèves seront décorés d'une marque distinctive, qu'ils porteront dans l'intérieur de la classe, pendant toute l'année : le président prononcera ensuite l'ouverture du cours.

Art. 50. La cérémonie terminée, toutes les écoles, accompagnées de leur directeur et directrices respectives, se rendront à l'église de St. Pierre, et y assisteront à la messe d'onze heures, de la manière qu'il est prescrit à l'Art. 13 du présent règlement.

Fait et Arrêté en séance de la Section des Secours, du Conseil-général d'Administration des Hospices et des Secours, de l'Arrondissement de Louvain, le 30 Mai 1820.

(signés) *De l'Escaille de Liez*, pour le Président, et
Georges Nazet, Secrétaire.

Approuvé par le Collège des Bourgmestre et Echevins de la ville de Louvain, en séance du 5 Juin 1820.

Pour copie conforme : Le Bourgmestre,
Le Secrétaire archiviste, (signé) *D'Onyn de Chastre*.

Par le Collège :
Le Secrétaire de la Ville,
Th. Stas.

REGENCE DE TOURNAY.

ORDONNANCE portant Règlement sur la Distribution des Secours à Domicile aux Indigens.

NOUS, Bourgmestre et Echevins de la Ville de Tournay,
Vu l'Ordonnance du Conseil de Régence dont la teneur suit :

Le Conseil de Régence de la Ville de Tournay,

Vu la loi du 7 Frimaire, an 5, portant création des bureaux de bienfaisance, et réglant une partie de leurs attributions ;

Vu l'arrêté de Sa Majesté du 27 Février 1818, qui autorise les diaconies, bureaux de bienfaisance et autres institutions de même nature, à se faire aider par des commissions, pour connaître exactement l'état des pauvres et améliorer leur sort ;

Vu les propositions adressées par le bureau de bienfaisance de cette ville au collège des bourgmestre et échevins, tendantes, en exécution de l'arrêté précité, à apporter, dans le mode actuellement suivi pour la distribution des secours à domicile, des changemens que l'expérience a fait juger nécessaires ;

Considérant que, si la centralisation en matière d'administration des biens des pauvres a produit les plus heureux résultats, il n'en n'est pas de même de celle des secours, dont les inconvéniens se font sentir sous le rapport essentiel du défaut de règle certaine dans leur répartition ;

Considérant que ce défaut résulte évidemment d'une difficulté inhérente à l'institution d'un bureau de bienfaisance composé de cinq membres seulement, pour une ville dont la population indigente s'élève au nombre considérable de douze mille individus ; qu'il est impossible à chacun de ces membres, quels que soient son activité et ses soins, de bien connaître par lui-même la position et les besoins des nombreuses familles qu'il est chargé de secourir ;

A ordonné et ordonne ce qui suit, pour la réorganisation des secours à domicile :

Titre I.—Comités de Charité.

Art. 1. Il y aura dans chaque paroisse un comité de charité, dont les membres porteront le titre de maîtres des pauvres.

Il sera composé de sept membres dans les paroisses de St. Brice, de St. Piat et de Ste. Marguerite ; de cinq membres dans les paroisses de Notre-Dame, St. Jean et St. Jacques, et de trois membres dans les paroisses de la Madeleine, de St. Quentin et l'annexe de St. Nicolas.

Si l'expérience démontre que le nombre des maîtres des pauvres est insuffisant dans un ou plusieurs comités de charité, il pourra être augmenté sur la proposition des comités, adressée au bureau de bienfaisance, ce qui néanmoins ne devra pas avoir lieu avant 1827.

Il est en outre facultatif dès à présent aux comités, de charger des personnes zélées, même du sexe, bien que ces personnes n'aient pas la qualité de maîtres des pauvres, de visiter les indigens et leur donner des secours au nom du comité ; le tout en se conformant aux dispositions du présent règlement, et bien entendu que les comités seuls auront la gestion directe des secours, chacun dans son ressort.

Art. 2. MM. les curés seront de droit membres des comités ; ils pourront se faire remplacer dans leurs fonctions par un de leurs vicaires.

Les autres membres seront nommés par le bureau de bienfaisance, parmi les habitans notables de chaque paroisse.

Art. 3. Après la première nomination, il sera pourvu aux places vacantes, sur la présentation, par chaque comité, d'une liste triple de candidats formée suivant l'ordre alphabétique des noms.

Art. 4. Les membres éligibles seront renouvelés chaque année, par tiers, dans les comités composés de sept membres ; par quart, dans ceux composés de cinq, et tous les deux ans, par moitié, dans les autres comités.

La première sortie aura lieu en 1828, le second Lundi après Pâques. Elle sera déterminée par le sort.

Art. 5. Le sort désignera également, pour les comités des deux premières classes, les membres qui devront être renouvelés dans les sorties subséquentes. A cet effet, il sera, à chaque révolution d'élection partielle, procédé à un tirage entre ceux qui auront fait partie de la première nomination.

Après le renouvellement complet, l'ancienneté réglera l'ordre de sortie.

Art. 6. Les membres sortans seront rééligibles. S'il survenait, dans l'intervalle des sorties ordinaires, des places vacantes, les vacances compteront pour sorties.

Art. 7. Les membres des comités devront avoir leur domicile dans la paroisse pour laquelle ils seront nommés.

Ils cesseront de droit d'en faire partie, s'ils vont demeurer dans une autre paroisse.

Titre II.—Attributions.

Art. 8. La taxation, la distribution des secours à domicile et leur meilleure direction possible, sont confiées aux soins des comités.

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Leurs membres feront de fréquentes visites chez les pauvres, veilleront sur leur éducation morale et religieuse, s'assureront de la décence et de la salubrité de leurs maisons, leur inculqueront l'amour du travail, obligeront les enfans de fréquenter les écoles, et leur faciliteront les moyens d'apprendre des métiers. Ils s'attacheront aussi à prévenir l'abandonnement ou l'exposition des enfans.

Art. 9. Les comités sont autorisés, par subrogation dans les droits du bureau de bienfaisance, de quêter dans les temples, et même d'en confier le soin à toutes personnes sans distinction de sexe, qui voudront bien seconder leur dévouement.

Ils sont également autorisés de faire placer, dans tous les lieux où l'on peut être excité à faire la charité, des troncs destinés à recevoir les aumônes que la bienfaisance individuelle voudrait y déposer.

Ils auront la libre et entière disposition des produits de ces quêtes, troncs et aumônes.

Ils s'entendront avec Messieurs les curés et marguilliers pour la distribution des pains qui se donnent les jours de funérailles et d'obits, ainsi que pour celles en argent à la suite des baptêmes et des mariages.

Art. 10. Sans devoir recourir à des autorisations spéciales, selon que le prescrit l'arrêté Royal du 22 Septembre 1823, les comités de charité sont investis, dès à présent, du pouvoir de faire des collectes pour les pauvres dans leurs paroisses respectives.

L'observation du dit arrêté est plus que jamais recommandée à toute autre institution, à tout individu quelconque.

Art. 11. Chaque comité nommera dans son sein un président, un vice-président et un receveur; il donnera à ce dernier ses instructions par écrit.

Le receveur ne sera responsable qu'envers le comité; et celui-ci rendra compte de la manière qui sera indiquée à l'article 14 ci-après.

Art. 12. Les fonctions des membres des comités, même celles de receveur, seront purement honorifiques.

Titre III.—*Conseil de Charité.*

Art. 13. Deux fois au moins par an, le bureau de bienfaisance se formera, sous la présidence de son président ordinaire, et avec les délégués des comités, en conseil de charité.

Chaque comité nommera, à cet effet, un de ses membres pour l'y représenter pendant une année.

Art. 14. Les comités, par leurs délégués, apporteront au conseil leurs observations, vues et projets d'amélioration, et en général tous les renseignemens propres à éclairer les délibérations du bureau sur la division ou répartition des revenus disponibles entre les divers comités, sur les besoins généraux, sur les abus et le remède à y appliquer, etc. etc.

Ils y apporteront aussi, dans la première session ordinaire de chaque année, un compte moral de leur gestion de l'année précédente, et les comptes sommaires de leurs receveurs.

Art. 15. Les deux assemblées ordinaires du conseil de charité se feront dans la seconde semaine qui suivra la fête de Pâques, et dans la première semaine d'Octobre. La première session aura lieu en Octobre 1826.

Titre IV.—*Bureau de Bienfaisance.*

Art. 16. Le bureau de bienfaisance conservera dans ses attributions toute la partie administrative, la délivrance de toutes espèces de certificats et déclarations, et tout ce qui pourrait compliquer ou surcharger les fonctions des comités.

Il continuera en conséquence de délivrer les certificats d'indigence, de se charger de l'exécution des lois et réglemens sur la vaccine, de placer en nourrice les enfans des indigens, lorsque la mère est reconnue hors d'état d'allaiter, et de faire admettre aux écoles gratuites ceux qui auront atteint l'âge requis.

Finalement, il continuera de passer les marchés et adjudications pour la fourniture des médicamens et des secours en nature, tels que bouillons, pains, combustibles, lits et vêtemens, et de faire fournir les objets nécessaires aux inhumations.

Art. 17. Il informera les comités de charité des mutations de domicile, de celles d'état civil, des admissions dans les établissemens de la commission des hospices, et de tous autres renseignemens de cette nature, qu'il aura pu recueillir des administrations de fondations particulières.

Art. 18. Nulle pétition de personnes portées sur la liste des pauvres, ayant pour objet une demande de place dans une fondation ou un hospice quelconque, ne sera plus admise par l'administration des hospices, si elle n'est appuyée d'un certificat délivré par le comité de la paroisse, constatant la moralité, les besoins, ou les droits du pétitionnaire.

Il en sera de même à l'égard des bourses de métier ou autres fondations quelconques qui sont à la collation du bureau de bienfaisance.

Titre V.—*Livre ou Table des Pauvres.*

Art. 19. Le livre actuel des pauvres sera divisé en autant de cahiers qu'il y a de paroisses: ces cahiers, qui contiendront l'indication de l'espèce et de la quotité des secours que reçoit chaque famille, seront remis aux comités, lors de leur entrée en fonctions.

Art. 20. Le premier soin des maîtres des pauvres sera de s'enquérir, d'après les errements du bureau de bienfaisance, de tous les indigens qui se trouvent dans leurs paroisses respectives, et d'en former une liste générale, conforme au modèle imprimé qui leur sera remis.

Art. 21. Leurs recherches et examens porteront sur l'âge, les infirmités, le nombre d'enfans, les causes de la misère, les ressources personnelles, et la conduite de chaque individu.

Art. 22. Leur liste générale, dont un double devra être remis au bureau de bienfaisance, sera divisée en trois parties :

La première, pour les indigens admis seulement aux visites gratuites des officiers de santé et à l'obtention des médicamens : elle comprendra les indigens valides exerçant, par eux-mêmes, leurs femmes ou leurs enfans, un état ou profession qui suffit aux besoins ordinaires ;

La deuxième, pour les indigens temporairement secourus : y seront compris les blessés, les malades, les femmes en couches et autres individus qui se trouvent dans des cas extraordinaires ;

Et la troisième, pour les indigens secourus habituellement : y seront portés les aveugles, les paralytiques, les infirmes, les vieillards et les chefs de famille surchargés d'enfans en bas âge.

Pour la formation de ce travail, le bureau de bienfaisance mettra des copistes à la disposition des comités qui le désireront.

Art. 23. Vu l'impossibilité de secourir tous les pauvres de la ville, et attendu que les plus nécessiteux ne peuvent souvent l'être que dans une proportion inférieure à leurs besoins, les maîtres des pauvres apporteront, dans la formation de ces listes, une indispensable sévérité ; et, lorsqu'il y aura un choix à faire, il le sera selon les règles de la justice et de l'humanité, en faveur des plus malheureux.

Indépendamment des renseignemens voulus par l'article 21, il sera tenu note des enfans qui ont été vaccinés, de ceux qui apprennent des métiers, et de ceux qui fréquentent les écoles.

Art. 24. Les listes seront renouvelées chaque année et envoyées au bureau de bienfaisance, pour qu'il les contrôle avec le tableau de population, et s'assure si l'indigent inscrit pour être secouru a le domicile de secours voulu par la loi du 28 Novembre 1818, et s'il est porté, en vertu du règlement du 31 Juillet 1824, au tableau des habitans domiciliés.

Art. 25. C'est d'après ces listes ainsi vérifiées, que les comités feront la taxation des secours ; et nul ne pourra en obtenir provenant de la dotation des pauvres, s'il n'y est inscrit, sauf le cas prévu par l'article 8 de la loi du 28 Novembre 1818.

Cependant, conformément à la disposition contenue dans le 3^e paragraphe de l'article 9 ci-dessus, il est loisible aux comités de secourir qui bon leur semble, sur le produit des quêtes, des tronc, des collectes, des dons et aumônes de la bienfaisance individuelle.

Art. 26. Les motifs qui auront fait admettre un indigent aux secours publics seront consignés sur le livre des pauvres de chaque comité. Ces motifs n'existant plus, les secours cesseront. Ils cesseront également, s'ils sont plus nécessaires à d'autres.

Titre VI.—Secours.

Art. 27. Les secours seront distribués au domicile des pauvres.

Autant que possible et aussitôt que faire se pourra, ils seront donnés en nature aux pauvres valides, et consisteront en pains, vêtemens, lits, et combustibles, ainsi qu'en dispositions de propreté et de salubrité dans leur demeure.

Les secours de cette espèce, vu la comptabilité qu'ils exigent, seront délivrés aux comités par le bureau de bienfaisance, sur des propositions particulières signées en assemblée par tous les membres de chaque comité.

Art. 28. La dotation des pauvres figurera dans le budget annuel du bureau de bienfaisance en divers chapitres. Il y en aura nécessairement un pour les secours en nature ; un second pour les secours en argent ; un troisième pour un fonds de réserve destiné aux événemens extraordinaires, aux temps calamiteux, et à la création de nouveaux établissemens de charité, si les moyens le permettent et que l'utilité publique le réclame.

Art. 29. Les allocations des secours en nature et en argent seront portées chaque année à la connaissance des comités, et répartis entre eux en raison de la population et des besoins des pauvres de leurs paroisses respectives.

Titre VII.—Audiences et Séances des Comités.

Art. 30. Les comités fixeront eux-mêmes les jours et heures de leurs séances.

Ils tiendront séance publique au moins une fois chaque quinzaine, afin d'entendre les pauvres dans leurs demandes et réclamations.

Ils prendront les mesures convenables pour que ceux-ci puissent en outre s'adresser à eux dans les cas urgens.

Ils feront connaître aux habitans de leurs paroisses, les lieux, jours et heures des séances publiques.

Art. 31. L'administration de la ville, après s'être concertée avec le bureau de bienfaisance et la commission des hospices, mettra à la disposition de chaque comité qui le désirera, un emplacement convenable et situé dans sa paroisse, ou à proximité, pour ses assemblées.

Titre VIII.—Dispositions générales.

Art. 32. Le présent règlement ne sera pas applicable au cas où des donateurs auraient réglé, par leurs dispositions en faveur des pauvres, un mode particulier pour l'administration ou la distribution des biens donnés.

Art. 33. Le bureau de bienfaisance est chargé de l'exécution du présent règlement, qui devra être mis en vigueur à compter du 1^{er} Janvier 1826.

Fait et arrêté en Séance du Conseil de Régence, le 7 Octobre 1825.

Le Bourgmestre Président, (signé) Le Comte B. de Béthune.
Le Secrétaire, (signé) R. Drogart.

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Avons arrêté et arrêtons :

L'ORDONNANCE susdite sera imprimée, publiée et affichée dans tous les lieux accoutumés de cette ville et de son territoire; elle sera de plus insérée dans la feuille de Tournay.

Il en sera adressé au bureau de bienfaisance un nombre suffisant d'exemplaires, pour être remis par lui tant aux différens comités de charité, qu'à chacun de leurs membres.

Fait en Séance du Collège des Bourgmestre et Echevins, le 31 Octobre 1825.

Le Bourgmestre, *Le Comte B. de Béthune.*
 Le Secrétaire, *R. Drogart.*

REGLEMENT concernant la Réorganisation du Service des Officiers-de-Santé, chargés du Traitement des Indigens de la Ville de Tournay.

NOUS, Président et Membres de la Commission-Administrative des Hospices-Civils et du Bureau de Bienfaisance de la Ville de Tournay, réunis expressement pour la formation du Règlement ci-après, dont l'objet concerne les deux Administrations,

Vu la nécessité de régler le service des Médecins et Chirurgiens de Section, de manière à ce qu'il soit en harmonie avec l'Ordonnance du Conseil de Régence, en date du 7 Octobre 1825, sur les secours à domicile.

Après nous être concertés sur les dispositions les plus convenables pour atteindre le but indiqué ci-dessus ;

Avons arrêté et arrêtons :

Art. 1. A partir d'une époque qui sera déterminée ultérieurement, le service des médecins et chirurgiens de section, sera devisé par arrondissemens de paroisses, ainsi qu'il suit :

Le premier arrondissement comprendra la paroisse de Saint Piat.

Le deuxième, celles de Sainte Marguerite, de Saint Quentin et de Notre-Dame.

Le troisième, les paroisses de Saint Jacques et de la Magdelaine.

Le quatrième, celle de Saint Brice et sa succursale Saint Nicolas.

Finalement, le cinquième arrondissement comprendra la paroisse de Saint Jean et le hameau d'Halain.

Art. 2. Il y aura pour chaque arrondissement un médecin et un chirurgien ; celui-ci sera aussi chargé de la partie des accouchemens.

Leur nomination et la fixation de leur traitement seront l'objet de dispositions spéciales prises par le bureau de bienfaisance.

Art. 3. Les médecins et chirurgiens d'arrondissemens sont placés sous l'autorité du bureau de bienfaisance, dont la surveillance est secondée par les comités de charité des paroisses, et appuyée par l'administration des hospices, qui, d'après la nature de leurs fonctions, peuvent contribuer respectivement à l'amélioration du service sanitaire en général.

Art. 4. Ils seront tenus de donner tous leurs soins aux individus ou familles, à la charge de l'administration de bienfaisance, munis d'une déclaration conforme au modèle (A), signée du président et contre-signée par le secrétaire.

Ces déclarations ne seront délivrées qu'aux individus ayant leur domicile de secours à Tournay, aux termes de la loi du 28 Novembre 1818 ; elles contiendront autant que possible, des indications telles, que les officiers de santé pourront reconnaître l'identité des individus qui se présenteront à eux pour réclamer leurs soins.

Art. 5. Les officiers de santé d'arrondissemens et le pharmacien de l'Hôpital, exigeront la représentation de la déclaration prescrite par l'article 4.

Ils prendront alors toutes les précautions possibles pour éviter que des individus, porteurs de déclarations qui ne leur seroient pas personnelles, n'obtiennent des secours et des médicamens auxquels ils n'auroient point de droit.

Art. 6. Aucun officier de santé ne pourra, au cas d'absence ou de maladie, se faire remplacer dans le service de son arrondissement, que par un de ses collègues chargé du même service dans un autre arrondissement.

Art. 7. Les chirurgiens qui auront des élèves en chirurgie, ou dans l'art des accouchemens, ne pourront en aucune circonstance se faire aider par eux, qu'après s'être conformés aux dispositions prescrites par les instructions pour les chirurgiens et les accoucheurs, approuvées par Sa Majesté, le 31 Mai 1818.

Ils devront transmettre au bureau de bienfaisance, des copies certifiées des attestations obtenues par leurs élèves, en conformité de l'article 13 desdites instructions.

Art. 8. Les médicamens seront délivrés à la pharmacie centrale de l'Hôpital Civil, sur la remise d'ordonnances signées des officiers de santé traitant, et la représentation du bulletin (A.)

Ces ordonnances seront écrites sur papier uniforme, semblable au modèle (B) ; elles seront remplies avec exactitude, et contiendront les nom, prénoms et domicile des malades qu'elles concernent ainsi que leur genre de maladie.

Art. 9. Les médecins et chirurgiens se refermeront pour leurs prescriptions, dans l'espèce des remèdes indiqués par le formulaire actuel, modifié d'après les circonstances ; en attendant le formulaire à l'usage des administrations de charité, dont le gouvernement s'occupe.

Ce formulaire sera imprimé et remis aux médecins et chirurgiens d'arrondissemens, et au pharmacien de l'hôpital, chacun pour leur direction respective.

Art. 10. Nul

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Art. 10. Nul autre que les médecins et chirurgiens d'arrondissemens ne pourra prescrire aux indigens des médicamens à fournir par le pharmacien de l'hôpital.

Art. 11. Pour faciliter mutuellement aux indigens et aux officiers de santé les rapports qui doivent exister entre les uns et les autres, il y aura tous les jours, de midi à une heure, un bureau de consultations gratuites, composé d'un médecin et d'un chirurgien, qui seront désignés à tour de rôle, pour donner leurs soins aux indigens qui voudront les consulter, sans distinction d'arrondissement.

Ce bureau de consultations se tiendra à l'hôpital civil.

Cette nouvelle mesure ne dispense pas les officiers de santé de donner journellement les secours de leur art aux pauvres qui iront les consulter chez eux, ni du soin de les traiter à domicile.

Chaque médecin et chirurgien fixera lui-même pour tout le courant de l'année, une heure de la matinée à laquelle les pauvres de son arrondissement pourront se présenter et il en informera le bureau de bienfaisance.

Art. 12. Le tour de rôle sera fixé par semaine et déterminé par le bureau de bienfaisance, qui fera afficher dans le salon de ses séances et dans celui du bureau de consultations, un tableau indicatif des médecins et chirurgiens, et de leur semaine de service.

Ceux-ci, au cas d'absence, de maladie ou d'empêchement, devront pourvoir à leur remplacement, en se conformant à l'article 7 du présent, sans cependant que ce remplacement puisse intervertir le tour de rôle établi par le bureau de bienfaisance.

Art. 13. Afin d'éviter les inconvéniens qui pourraient résulter du traitement ordonné à un malade par le bureau de consultations, qui ne serait plus composé, d'une semaine à une autre, des mêmes officiers de santé, ceux-ci tiendront un registre sur lequel seront inscrites les prescriptions délivrées par le bureau, avec l'indication des individus qu'elles concernent.

Ce registre restera déposé dans le salon de consultations, pour que les médecins et chirurgiens puissent y avoir recours au besoin.

Art. 14. Les indigens malades ou blessés qui ne pourront être traités à domicile à cause de la gravité de leur maladie, ou de leurs accidens, seront reçus à l'hôpital civil, à l'exception toute-fois de ceux atteints de la gâle, de cancer, de dartres, de la petite vérole et de la maladie vénérienne; ceux-là ne pourront être traités qu'à domicile, à moins que la commission des hospices par dispositions nouvelles n'autorise leur admission dans un hospice spécial.

Art. 15. Dès qu'un médecin ou un chirurgien jugera qu'un malade ou blessé de son arrondissement doit être transporté à l'hôpital, il lui délivrera une déclaration conforme au modèle (C.) dont il remplira avec soin toutes les indications.

Cette déclaration sera remise à l'économe de l'hôpital, qui recevra immédiatement le malade, à moins qu'il n'y ait point de lit vacant, auquel cas, il devra sur-le-champ en informer l'officier de santé qui aura délivré ladite déclaration.

Art. 16. Les individus envoyés à l'hôpital par les médecins et chirurgiens d'arrondissemens, ne seront considérés reçus définitivement, qu'après la déclaration des médecins et chirurgiens de l'établissement, qui les auront vus et visités; auquel effet, l'économe de l'hôpital fera placer ces individus dans une salle de dépôt, jusqu'à la première visite des officiers de santé de la maison, qui décideront en consultation, le cas échéant, si tel ou tel malade est admissible ou non, soit à raison de la nature de sa maladie, ou de son accident, soit à raison de sa gravité.

L'économe pourra cependant placer de suite au nombre des individus définitivement reçus, ceux blessés, ou dans un état tel que leur admission ne pourrait présenter aucun doute.

Art. 17. S'il arrivait que des médecins ou chirurgiens d'arrondissemens aient envoyé à l'hôpital des individus qui ne devraient point y être reçus, soit à cause du genre de leur maladie, soit à cause de son peu de gravité, les médecins et chirurgiens de l'établissement renverraient ces individus à leur domicile.

Avis en serait donné au médecin ou au chirurgien chargé de les traiter, par l'économe de l'hôpital, qui en outre serait tenu d'en faire part au bureau de bienfaisance.

Art. 18. Les médecins et chirurgiens d'arrondissemens ne pourront délivrer de billets d'entrée à l'hôpital, que pour les indigens qui auront obtenu de l'administration de bienfaisance, des déclarations ou certificats dans la forme déterminée par l'article 4, sauf le cas d'accidens graves, conformément à l'article 8, de la loi du 28 Novembre 1818.

Art. 19. Les fonctions de médecin et de chirurgien de l'hôpital sont déclarées incompatibles avec celles de médecin et chirurgien d'arrondissement.

Art. 20. Le présent arrêté sera mis à exécution à une époque ultérieure; des expéditions en seront adressées, savoir, par l'administration de bienfaisance à Messieurs les médecins et chirurgiens d'arrondissemens, et par l'administration des hospices, à Messieurs les médecins, chirurgiens, pharmacien et économe de l'hôpital, pour leur information et direction respective.

Fait, arrêté et signé en double par les Président et Membres des Administrations réunies de la Commission des Hospices-civils et du Bureau de Bienfaisance, à Tournay, le 14 de Juin 1826.

Etaient signés: *Le Comte B. de Béthune, F. Cuvelier, J. B. Bonnier, Aug. Lefebvre, F. Du Bus, aîné, Rutteau-Camarte, Du Hamel, A. Goblet, De Rasse, Boucher, Thieffry-Vinchent, Secrétaire de l'Administration des Hospices, et Bajard-Lefebvre, Secrétaire de l'Administration de Bienfaisance.*

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Nous, Président et Membres de l'Administration de Bienfaisance de la Ville de Tournay, Vu le règlement organique du service médical et chirurgical pour le soulagement des pauvres de la ville, arrêté le 14 Juin dernier par les deux administrations des hospices et de bienfaisance expressément réunies à cet effet.

Vu notre résolution du 5 de ce mois qui fixe le traitement annuel attaché à l'exercice des fonctions de médecin et de chirurgien-accoucheur dans chaque arrondissement, suivant son étendue et sa population indigente.

Revu le premier paragraphe de la dite résolution, portant qu'il sera procédé le plutôt possible à la nomination des officiers de santé chargés du soin des pauvres dans les cinq arrondissemens, actuellement formés par paroisses, laquelle nomination ne sera valable, pour cette fois, que jusqu'au 31 Décembre 1827.

Considérant qu'il importe en effet de réorganiser promptement le personnel des médecins et chirurgiens des pauvres, afin que le service soit en harmonie avec l'ordonnance du Conseil de Régence du 7 Octobre 1825, ainsi qu'avec le règlement du 14 Juin ci-dessus rappelé ;

Considérant en même temps, que les médecins et chirurgiens de section actuellement en exercice ont généralement justifié la confiance de l'administration, et qu'il n'y a lieu à remplacer que ceux qui à cause de l'incomptabilité prononcée par l'article 19 du règlement organique, ont opté pour le service de l'hôpital-civil ;

Avons arrêté et arrêtons ;

Sont nommés médecins et chirurgiens-accoucheurs des pauvres dans les arrondissemens de paroisses ci-après indiqués ; savoir,

Premier Arrondissement, (Paroisse de Saint Piat.)

Médecin, - - M. Casterman.

Chirurgien-accoucheur, M. Garin.

Deuxième Arrondissement, (Paroisses de Notre-Dame, de Sainte Marguerite et de Saint Quentin.)

Médecin, - - M. Doignon.

Chirurgien-accoucheur, M. Roty.

Troisième Arrondissement, (Paroisses de Saint Jacques et de la Magdelaine.)

Médecin, - - M. Tonnelier.

Chirurgien-accoucheur, M. Hebbelinck.

Quatrième Arrondissement, (Paroisses de Saint Brice et de Saint Nicolas.)

Médecin, - - M. Vanclèer.

Chirurgien-accoucheur, M. Leclercq.

Cinquième Arrondissement, (Paroisse de Saint Jean et le Hameau d'Halain.)

Médecin, - - M. Bougnelle.

Chirurgien-accoucheur, M. Smolders.

Les officiers de santé compris dans la nomination qui précède, entreront en fonctions le premier Septembre prochain ; ils se conformeront en tous points aux dispositions du règlement du 14 Juin dernier.

La stricte exécution de l'article 7 du dit règlement concernant les chirurgiens qui ont des élèves, leur est particulièrement recommandée sous peine de révocation.

La présente délibération sera imprimée à la suite du règlement organique sur le service sanitaire, et un exemplaire sera adressé à chacun de Messieurs les médecins et chirurgiens-accoucheurs y dénommés, ainsi qu'au comité de charité de chaque paroisse, pour leur information et direction respective.

Fait et arrêté en séance les jour, mois et an que dessus.

Etaient signés : Le Comte B. de Béthune, Président ; F. Cuvelier, J. B. Bonnier, Aug. Lefebvre, F. Du Bus, aîné, et Rutteau-Camarte, Membres ; Bajard Lefebvre, Secrétaire.

BULLETIN Officiel des Lois et Arrêtés Royaux de la Belgique.

STAETSBLAD.

(Extrait.)

Loi relative à l'Entretien des Indigens dans les Dépôts de Mendicité.

LEOPOLD, Roi des Belges,

A tous présens et à venir, Salut.

Nous avons, de commun accord avec les chambres, décrété et nous ordonnons ce qui suit :

Art. 1. En attendant la révision des lois sur la mendicité, les frais d'entretien dans les dépôts de mendicité des mendiants et vagabonds, envoyés dans ces établissemens en vertu des articles 271, 274 et 282 du code pénal, et les indigens qui y seront reçus sur leurs demandes, continueront d'être à la charge des communes du domicile de secours, et à la charge de l'état lorsque le domicile ne pourra être établi.

2. Le prix de la journée d'entretien à payer par les communes sera fixé annuellement pour chaque dépôt, par le gouvernement, après avoir pris l'avis des députations des états provinciaux.

3. Les provinces sont tenues d'accorder des subsides aux communes qui seraient dans l'impossibilité de subvenir à tout ou partie de cette dépense; en cas de contestation, le Roi décidera.

4. Les communes sont tenues au paiement des pensions arriérées qu'elles doivent aux dépôts de mendicité.

Dans les deux mois, à compter du jour où la présente loi sera obligatoire, les communes proposeront les moyens de faire face à cette dépense; à leur défaut, il y sera pourvu par la députation des états provinciaux, et à défaut de la députation, par le Roi.

5. Dans le cas où les communes chercheraient à se soustraire au paiement des dépenses mentionnées aux articles 2 et 4, l'allocation sera portée d'office au budget communal par la députation des états provinciaux, et à son refus, par le Roi.

6. Si une administration municipale refusait ou différerait d'ordonnancer le paiement des dépenses dont il s'agit, la députation des états l'ordonnera d'office sur la caisse communale.

Dans ce cas, le mandat délivré par la députation sera transmis au receveur de l'établissement intéressé, chargé d'en opérer le recouvrement, lequel aura lieu par la voie de contrainte contre le receveur de la commune.

Mandons et ordonnons que les présentes, revêtues du sceau de l'état, insérées au bulletin officiel, soient adressées aux cours, tribunaux et aux autorités administratives, pour qu'ils les observent et fassent observer comme loi du royaume.

Donné à Bruxelles, le 13 Août 1833.

Par le Roi : *Léopold.*

Le Ministre de la Justice,
Lebeau.

Scellé du sceau de l'état :

Le Ministre de la Justice,
(signé) *Lebeau.*

ARRETE concernant l'Entretien des Indigens dans les Dépôts de Mendicité.

LEOPOLD, Roi des Belges,

A tous présens et à venir, Salut.

Vu la loi du 13 Août 1833, relative au recouvrement des frais d'entretien des indigens reclus dans les dépôts de mendicité;

Nous avons arrêté et arrêtons :

Art. 1. Les députations des états des différentes provinces veilleront à ce que le montant des journées d'entretien mises à la charge des communes, soit acquitté régulièrement par trimestre. Le paiement devra avoir lieu dans les deux mois à compter de l'envoi de l'avertissement, qui sera transmis à cet effet à l'administration municipale; si elle n'y satisfait, elle y sera contrainte conformément à la loi.

2. Les propositions qu'il y aurait lieu de nous adresser, dans les cas prévus par les articles 3, 4 et 5 de ladite loi, nous seront faites de commun accord par nos Ministres de la Justice et de l'Intérieur.

3. Les députations des états des six provinces où les dépôts de mendicité sont situés, signaleront, dans le plus bref délai, à notre Ministre de la Justice, les améliorations dont le régime de ces établissements est susceptible.

Dans l'enquête qui aura lieu à cet égard, ces collèges se feront assister par le conseil d'inspection de chaque établissement.

4. A l'avenir et immédiatement les conseils d'inspection des dépôts de mendicité seront présidés, autant que possible, soit par le gouverneur de la province où le dépôt est établi, soit par un membre de la députation des états, à ce délégué.

Ils ne pourront être composés de moins de sept ni de plus de onze membres.

Le commissaire du district et un membre de l'administration locale de la commune voisine, qui a ordinairement le plus d'indigens réclus au dépôt, seront appelés à faire partie du conseil d'inspection.

Les autres membres seront choisis parmi les citoyens connus par leur zèle et leurs lumières.

A l'exception du président et du commissaire du district, les membres des conseils d'inspection seront renouvelés par tiers tous les deux ans, et seront nommés par nous sur une liste triple, présentée par les députations des états à notre Ministre de la Justice.

Les membres sortans pourront être réélus.

5. La recomposition des conseils d'inspection des dépôts de mendicité aura immédiatement lieu de la manière indiquée à l'article précédent.

Un secrétaire sera attaché à chaque conseil d'inspection. Il sera proposé par le conseil et nommé par la députation des états. Il figurera au nombre des employés du dépôt.

6. Ces commissions s'occuperont, dès leur installation, des moyens d'organiser les dépôts de mendicité de manière à y classer, autant que possible séparément; 1° les indigens infirmes ou invalides; 2° les indigens valides entrés volontairement; 3° les individus condamnés

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Dépôts
de
Mendicité.

damnés comme mendiants ou vagabonds ; et elles subordonneront à cette classification la division des sexes et des âges.

7. Elles proposeront en même temps, relativement à l'admission des indigens qui se présentent volontairement, les mesures les plus propres à prévenir les abus qui pourraient résulter de la faculté accordée par l'art. 1^{er} de la loi.

Toutefois elles prendront pour règle que, lorsque des indigens qui seront obligés de chercher un asile dans les dépôts de mendicité s'y présenteront volontairement, et sans la demande préalable de l'autorité municipale de la commune du domicile de secours, ils pourront y être reçus ; mais dans ce cas, leur admission ne sera que provisoire. L'administration communale intéressée en sera aussitôt informée ; si elle offre de les entretenir au lieu de leur domicile, ils y seront renvoyés, sinon ils demeureront au dépôt et à la charge de la commune.

8. Les directeurs des dépôts de mendicité seront nommés par nous sur la proposition des députations des états des provinces où ces établissemens sont situés.

Les officiers de santé et les instituteurs seront présentés par lesdits collèges et nommés par notre Ministre de la Justice.

Il sera pourvu à la nomination des autres employés par les députations des états, sur la proposition des conseils d'inspection.

9. L'administration de chaque établissement ne négligera aucun moyen de fournir du travail à tous les reclus que l'âge ou les infirmités ne mettent pas dans l'impossibilité absolue de s'occuper.

A l'exception de ces derniers, tous les reclus seront astreints à un travail quelconque, et ceux qui s'y refuseront, encourront les peines déterminées par les réglemens particuliers.

10. Les députations des états aviseront au moyen de créer un crédit permanent, qui sera spécialement destiné à alimenter le travail dans les dépôts de mendicité.

11. Tous les vêtemens et objets de casernement des reclus devront, autant que possible, être confectionnés dans ces établissemens.

Les administrations qui les dirigent dans les différentes provinces se mettront en correspondance à cet égard, afin de se seconder mutuellement, de manière que tel effet qui ne pourra être confectionné dans un établissement, le soit dans un autre, ainsi que cela a lieu dans les prisons.

L'administration centrale des établissemens de bienfaisance et des prisons servira d'intermédiaire à cet effet.

12. Si le travail des reclus produisait en outre des marchandises fabriquées susceptibles d'être vendues dans le commerce, le prix de vente sera destiné à alimenter le crédit mentionné à l'art. 10.

Le produit des cantines, ventes de hardes, déchets, etc. recevront la même destination.

13. Au profit du fonds à créer en vertu de l'article 10, pourra également être reçu, conformément aux articles 910 et 937 du code civil, toute libéralité que des personnes charitables feraient, par acte entre-vifs ou de dernière volonté, dans le but de coopérer à l'extinction de la mendicité.

14. Les dispositions qui précèdent serviront de bases aux réglemens particuliers de chaque dépôt de mendicité.

Une nouvelle rédaction de ces réglemens sera en conséquence soumise, le plutôt possible, à notre Ministre de la Justice.

15. En transmettant la loi du 13 Août 1833 aux administrations des villes et communes, les députations des états auront soin de leur rappeler qu'il dépend des autorités locales d'alléger la charge qui résulte pour elles de l'entretien des indigens dans les dépôts de mendicité, et dans ce but, les moyens suivans leur seront indiqués comme les plus efficaces ; savoir,

La distribution bien entendue des secours à domicile ;

L'organisation de comités chargé de surveiller les indigens et de rechercher les causes de leur misère ;

La création d'hospices spéciaux pour les incurables, les insensés, les sourds-muets et les aveugles ;

L'établissement d'ateliers libres de travail pendant les mois d'hiver, et de salles d'asile pour les jeunes enfans.

Les communes dont les ressources financières sont individuellement insuffisantes, seront invités à se cotiser pour contribuer à l'établissement d'institutions de ce genre, par arrondissement ou par canton.

16. Les arrêtés, instructions et réglemens antérieurement existans, relatifs à l'administration des dépôts de mendicité, sont maintenus, pour autant qu'ils ne sont pas contraires aux dispositions qui précèdent et à la loi du 13 du courant.

17. Notre Ministre de la Justice est chargé de l'exécution du présent arrêté, qui sera inséré au bulletin des lois.

Donné à Bruxelles, ce 29 Août 1833.

Par le Roi : *Léopold.*

Le Ministre de la Justice,
Lebeau.

MINISTÈRE DE LA JUSTICE.

STATISTIQUE des Etablissements de Bienfaisance.—(MONTs-DE-PIÉTÉ.)

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Monts-de-Piété.

Moyenne des Opérations de 1822 à 1830 inclusivement.			Opérations de 1831.		
Lieu de Situation.	Nombre des Gages.	Capitaux Prêtés.	Lieu de Situation.	Nombre des Gages.	Valeur des Capitaux Prêtés.
Anvers - -	159,740	605,726	Anvers - -	134,367	483,929
Malines - -	51,392	119,534	Malines - -	59,965	125,045
Liège - -	73,923	233,365	Liège - -	118,054	283,812
Huy - -	15,783	27,078	Huy - -	15,182	21,898
Verviers - -	35,302	129,156	Verviers - -	22,038	86,745
Venloo - -	14,835	27,179	Venloo - -	11,477	18,602
St. Trond - -	3,216	6,763	St. Trond - -	5,358	9,006
Bruges - -	115,914	448,221	Bruges - -	108,883	383,975
Ostende - -	—	—	Ostende - -	23,453	58,004
Ypres - -	50,103	124,393	Ypres - -	47,615	113,421
Courtray - -	44,196	129,996	Courtray - -	42,700	99,723
Namur - -	48,831	154,879	Namur - -	46,532	102,013
Dinant - -	8,735	14,341	Dinant - -	5,623	16,065
Gand - -	119,914	352,255	Gand - -	94,149	275,978
Termonde - -	25,739	60,734	Termonde - -	17,591	40,446
St. Nicolas - -	21,371	54,651	St. Nicolas - -	22,436	41,524
Bruxelles - -	238,700	774,070	Bruxelles - -	228,353	680,919
Louvain - -	47,959	118,222	Louvain - -	38,716	75,921
Nivelles - -	12,521	29,436	Nivelles - -	10,639	26,431
Tirlemont - -	3,585	6,046	Tirlemont - -	5,540	8,746
Diest - -	4,865	23,252	Diest - -	7,428	11,293
Mons - -	41,211	105,053	Mons - -	40,634	99,593
Tournay - -	133,287	232,936	Tournay - -	79,102	205,015
	1,271,122	3,778,286		1,185,834	3,268,104

Opérations de 1832.

PROVINCE.	Lieu de Situation.	Nombre des Gages Reçus ou Renouvelés.	Montant des Capitaux Prêtés.	Nombre des Gages Retirés.	Montant de ces Dégagemens.
Anvers - -	Anvers - -	130,346	462,622	128,927	461,880
	Malines - -	54,190	114,129 50	53,503	117,440 25
Brabant - -	Bruxelles - -	205,243	820,991 68	209,270	655,661 50
	Louvain - -	38,505	387,111 65	37,712	74,981 50
	Nivelles - -	10,565	333,186 38	10,205	25,483 65
	Tirlemont - -	5,982	6,200	5,673	13,201 50
	Diest - -	6,560	7,167 40	6,978	10,223 20
Flandre Occidentale	Bruges - -	106,371	369,015	108,278	375,804 99
	Courtray - -	39,712	92,991 64	40,705	92,834 08
	Ypres - -	46,846	106,657 12	37,982	80,058 51
	Ostende - -	20,157	49,429 74	21,219	52,210 27
Flandre Orientale -	Gand - -	78,146	220,115 75	86,731	243,766 25
	St.-Nicolas - -	22,363	38,835 94	22,147	39,306
	Termonde - -	20,239	46,217	20,243	45,689
Hainaut - -	Mons - -	39,133	91,900	36,969	88,784 75
	Tournay - -	73,622	186,273 50	71,309	184,648
Liège - -	Liège - -	114,980	275,372	112,561	272,724 50
	Huy - -	33,814	171,557	32,651	168,954 50
	Verviers - -	14,506	19,825	14,846	20,668 75
Limbourg - -	St. Trond - -	4,939	9,450 56	5,099	9,889 46
	Venloo - -	11,664	18,022 75	11,379	18,411 75
Namur - -	Namur - -	45,828	96,818 50	44,137	94,132 25
	Dinant - -	5,562	15,329	5,597	15,644 91
		1,129,373	3,939,219 61	1,124,115	3,162,399 57

Observations.—Nota. Il n'existe pas de Monts-de-piété dans la province de Luxembourg.

Les relevés qui précèdent constatent la diminution progressive du nombre des gages déposés aux Monts-de-piété. Le nombre des gages déposés en 1831 est inférieur de 85,288 à la moyenne des dix années antérieures. Le nombre des dépôts faits en 1832 présente également une différence en moins de 56,461 sur le chiffre de 1831. Si ces résultats sont principalement dus à l'abolition des loteries Génoises et Hollandaises dans notre pays, ils ne sont pas moins en même temps un indice certain que l'aisance du peuple augmente, loin de diminuer. Il est surtout digne de remarque que le nombre des gages retirés dans le courant de 1832 est à peu près équivalent à celui des gages déposés pendant cet exercice.

P. L. (F.)

EXERCICE DE 1832.

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BELGIUM.

Monts-de-Piété.

EVALUATION approximative des Revenus des

PROVINCES.	Administrations des Secours à Domicile.	HOSPICES.
Anvers - - - -	336,124	322,114 27
Brabant - - - -	320,056	425,472 21
Flandre Occidentale - -	599,416	295,923 40
Flandre Orientale - -	473,383	315,053 13
Hainaut - - - -	369,995	266,475 53
Liège - - - -	176,531	188,465 44
Limbourg - - - -	169,162	64,623 08
Luxembourg - - - -	12,193	9,613 94
Namur - - - -	51,224	71,185 62
Fl.	2,508,084	1,958,926 62
Fr.	5,308,114 26	4,145,876 42
Ensemble, francs -	-	5,308,114 26 4,145,876 42 9,453,990 68

RELEVÉ Approximatif des DONS et LEGS faits aux Etablissements de Bienfaisance.

		Fr. C ^s .			Fr. C ^s .
Anvers - - -	1830 - -	-	Liège - - -	1830 - -	-
	1831 - -	56,719 54		1831 - -	27,529 66
	1832 - -	71,405 41		1832 - -	30,198 80
	1833 - -	32,352 14		1833 - -	36,339 36
		160,477 09			94,067 82
Brabant - - -	1830 - -	-	Limbourg - -	1830 - -	-
	1831 - -	13,380 67		1831 - -	1,069 30
	1832 - -	26,633 86		1832 - -	13,762 82
	1833 - -	17,212 06		1833 - -	14,929 18
		57,226 59			29,761 30
Flandre Occidentale	1830 - -	-	Luxembourg -	1830 - -	-
	1831 - -	146,444 78		1831 - -	2,000
	1832 - -	250,050 81		1832 - -	22,024 65
	1833 - -	91,489 09		1833 - -	13,574 13
		487,984 68			37,598 78
Flandre Orientale	1830 - -	54,421 16	Namur - - -	1830 - -	6,000
	1831 - -	59,450 10		1831 - -	24,015 75
	1832 - -	148,076 69		1832 - -	22,224 30
	1833 - -	114,288 37		1833 - -	8,536
		376,236 32			60,776 05
Hainaut - - -	1830 - -	-			
	1831 - -	27,575 57			
	1832 - -	110,248 36			
	1833 - -	119,215 96			
		257,039 89			
Fr.		257,039 89			
RECAPITULATION.					
Anvers - - -	- - -	-	160,477 09		
Brabant - - -	- - -	-	57,226 59		
Flandre Occidentale - -	- - -	-	487,984 68		
Flandre Orientale - -	- - -	-	376,236 32		
Hainaut - - -	- - -	-	257,039 89		
Liège - - -	- - -	-	94,067 82		
Limbourg - - -	- - -	-	29,761 30		
Luxembourg - - -	- - -	-	37,598 78		
Namur - - -	- - -	-	60,776 05		
Fr.			1,561,168 52		

EXTRAIT du *Moniteur Belge*, Journal Officiel, 1^{er} Mai 1834.

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BELGIUM.

Enfants Trouvés.

LORS des premiers débats qui ont eu lieu au commencement de Mars dernier, à l'occasion du projet de loi sur les enfans trouvés, l'on a fait remarquer que quelques erreurs assez graves existaient dans les états statistiques présentés à l'appui de ce projet. L'administration, ayant constaté que les renseignemens qui leur servaient de base offraient effectivement plusieurs contradictions, a renvoyé ces états aux autorités provinciales pour rectification. Les nouveaux états imprimés ci-dessous doivent être considérés comme très exacts, puisqu'ils sont le résumé fidèle des documens transmis par les autorités provinciales et communales, scrupuleusement examinés et vérifiés.

ETAT de la Population des Enfants trouvés et abandonnés pendant l'Exercice 1833.

PROVINCES.	Nombre des Enfants		Total.	Dépenses pour les Enfants				TOTAL des DEPENSES.		Prix de la Journée d'Entretien.	
	Trouvés.	Aban- donnés.		Trouvés.		Abandonnés.					
Anvers - -	886	578	1,464	37,107	65	26,927	61	64,035	26	48	81
Brabant - -	2,648	318	2,966	182,321	69	23,081	84	205,403	53	75	32
Fl. Occidentale	39	460	499	3,258	67	31,841	89	35,100	56	69	23
Fl. Orientale -	752	242	994	49,874	81	14,902	67	64,717	48	63	71
Hainaut - -	1,969	382	2,351	123,368	71	23,533	18	146,901	89	64	12
Liège - -	38	162	200	2,899	-	12,857	04	15,756	04	74	-
Limbourg - -	14	157	171	1,913	96	11,054	44	12,968	40	75	83
Luxembourg -	7	31	38	880	94	3,212	80	4,093	74	104	94
Namur - -	615	7	622	41,082	-	467	60	41,549	60	66	80
	6,968	2,337	9,305	442,647	43	147,879	07	590,526	60		

MOUVEMENT Annuel de la Population des Enfants trouvés et abandonnés, et montant des Frais de leurs Entretien pendant une Série de 10 à 12 Ans.

PROVINCES.	Années.	Nombre des Enfants.	Montant de la Dépense.	Observations.	PROVINCES.	Années.	Nombre des Enfants.	Montant de la Dépense.	Observations.
Anvers	1822	2,625	174,813 81	Il est existé un tour à Anvers et à Malines.	Fland.Orient.	1828	746	53,301 57	Il existe un tour à Gand.
-	1823	2,673	163,004 56		-	1829	751	53,045 04	
-	1824	2,588	136,995 71		-	1830	775	55,430 68	
-	1825	2,378	121,556 18		-	1831	858	71,170 22	
-	1826	2,255	112,205 96		-	1832	907	64,479 -	
-	1827	2,278	111,274 07		Hainaut	1823	1,632	133,856 45	Il existe un tour à Mons et un à Tournay.
-	1828	2,186	99,384 52		-	1824	1,632	122,591 49	
-	1829	2,046	96,300 74		-	1825	1,672	124,259 14	
-	1830	1,828	87,099 42		-	1826	1,730	129,821 03	
-	1831	1,784	80,572 46		-	1827	1,886	134,900 46	
Brabant	1822	2,318	213,201 30	Il existe un tour à Bruxelles et à Louvain.	-	1828	1,966	143,384 29	Il n'y existe point de tour.
-	1823	2,247	187,148 76		-	1829	1,911	148,764 06	
-	1824	2,187	206,121 31		-	1830	1,844	138,230 15	
-	1825	2,176	178,074 45		-	1831	1,949	142,432 84	
-	1826	2,189	183,268 34		-	1832	2,080	149,902 57	
-	1827	2,356	193,535 18		Liège	1824	241	16,763 -	(1) (2)
-	1828	2,354	189,416 30		-	1825	209	15,478 -	
-	1829	2,413	196,357 13		-	1826	210	14,946 -	
-	1830	2,402	198,134 05		-	1827	210	15,009 -	
-	1831	2,300	190,476 19		-	1828	211	14,428 -	
Fland. Occid.	1822	554	54,610 -	Il n'y existe point de tour.	-	1829	229	17,100 -	Il n'y existe point de tour.
-	1823	529	52,869 -		-	1830	222	15,852 -	
-	1824	513	51,313 -		-	1831	181	14,716 -	
-	1825	493	50,700 -		-	1832	197	14,458 -	
-	1826	502	50,819 -		Limbourg	-	102	10,095 24	
-	1827	502	52,003 -		Luxembourg	-	17	1,058 20	
-	1828	530	54,109 -		Namur	1821	958	70,098 40	Il n'y existe point de tour.
-	1829	513	52,000 -		-	1822	1,013	89,842 84	
-	1830	434	30,822 16		-	1823	1,051	75,045 49	
-	1831	496	34,126 18		-	1824	982	69,593 64	
Fland. Orient.	1821	960	71,547 19	Il existe un tour à Gand.	-	1825	925	66,214 17	
-	1822	917	70,176 70		-	1826	877	60,177 33	
-	1823	893	63,329 08		-	1827	769	56,004 22	
-	1824	848	61,024 32		-	1828	715	53,556 55	
-	1825	818	39,693 11		-	1829	725	52,520 72	
-	1826	749	54,761 89		-	1830	669	48,722 62	
-	1827	722	53,341 07		-	1831	659	44,691 -	
					-	1832	660	44,540 -	

(1) Ces chiffres représentent le nombre moyen. — Les indications spéciales pour chaque année manquent, à défaut d'archives.

(2) Il n'existe point de tour dans ces deux provinces.

P. L. (F)

EXERCICE de 1832.

PROVINCES.	Nombre moyen des Enfants		NOMBRE TOTAL.	TOTAL des Frais qu'ils occasionnent.	Répartition de ces Frais entre			OBSERVATIONS.
	Trouvés ou Exposés dont les Parens sont inconnus.	Abandonnés et Orphelins délaissés, nés de Père ou de Mère connus.			Les Hospices, Bureau de Bienfaisance ou Fonda- tions.	Les Villes ou Com- munes.	La Province.	
Anvers - - -	886	566	1,452	71,300	- -	31,300	40,000	Un tour à Anvers et à Malines.
Brabant - - -	2,244	286	2,530	197,550	- -	147,050	50,500	Un tour à Bruxelles et à Louvain.
Flandre Occidentale	35	461	496	34,123	15,600	18,523	—	N'y existe point de tour.
Flandre Orientale -	688	219	907	64,479	- -	-	64,479	Un tour à Gand.
Hainaut - - -	1,870	333	2,203	172,792	- -	25,072	147,720	Il y a un tour à Mons et à Tournay.
Liège - - -	41	153	194	15,550	9,665	4,694	1,191	N'y existe point de tour.
Limbourg - - -	11	123	134	12,056	10,658	1,398	—	Id.
Luxembourg - - -	13	12	25	1,841	232	1,609	—	Id.
Namur - - -	653	9	662	44,533	- -	25,533	19,000	Un seul hospice et point de tour.
TOTAL -	6,441	2,162	8,603	614,224	36,155	255,179	322,890	N.B. Il n'existe donc des tours qu'à Anvers, Malines, Bruxelles, Louvain, Gand, Mons et Tournay ; sept en tout.

EXPOSE de la Situation des Institutions de Bienfaisance pour les Pauvres, dans le Royaume des Pays-Bas, pendant l'Année 1829. Par M. le Comte J. Arrivabene.

POOR COLONIES
in the
NETHERLANDS.

PENDANT plusieurs siècles, les hommes d'une charité vulgaire satisfaisaient aux besoins des pauvres qui leur adressaient des prières et leur tendaient la main, en distribuant des aumônes. Mais ces aumônes, faites sans discernement, assurant aux oisifs et aux fainéants un moyen tel quel d'existence, étaient cause que le nombre de ceux qui les sollicitaient, fut toujours très-grand. La voix de quelques philosophes s'éleva de temps en temps contre cet état de choses. Quelques lois d'une sévérité barbare furent portées contre les mendiants. Mais la voix des premiers ne fut point écoutée, ni les dispositions de ces lois observées ; et les mendiants continuèrent à être nombreux, et furent même considérés dans les mœurs presque comme sacrés. Toutefois on s'est tant élevé, et dans le siècle passé, et dans le siècle actuel, contre les maux engendrés par les aumônes ; l'on a si souvent répété que la mendicité devait être défendue et punie, et que les mendiants devaient être renfermés, contraints au travail, et rendus industriels, que nous sommes aujourd'hui témoins, dans presque toute l'Europe, d'une espèce de croisade contre eux.

Le pays cependant qui a poursuivi les mendiants avec le plus de persévérance, est sans contredit le royaume des Pays-Bas. Là, au lieu de les renfermer dans des maisons au sein des villes, et de donner à ces maisons le nom de refuges ou ateliers, ainsi qu'on l'a fait ailleurs, les mendiants ont été transportés sur des terres incultes, forcés à les cultiver ; et ces terres ont été appelées Colonies. C'est ce qui attira l'attention de plusieurs philanthropes sur ce royaume, et ce qui en porta quelques-uns, frappés peut-être de cette nouveauté, à déclarer que ces colonies étaient le meilleur moyen possible de réprimer et d'extirper la mendicité.

Nous aussi, accoutumés, depuis long-temps, à prendre à cœur tout ce qui concerne et touche de près les classes indigentes de la société, nous avons constamment fixé nos regards sur ces colonies, lu en grande partie ce que l'on a publié à cet égard, interrogé des personnes qui les avaient visitées, et enfin, cette année, nous les avons visitées nous-mêmes. Et tout ce que nous avons lu, entendu et vu, nous le résumons ici brièvement, et après cette espèce de compte rendu, nous portons sur ces colonies le jugement qui nous paraît le plus juste et le plus convenable.

La disette des années 1816 et 1817, et la misère qui s'ensuivit, furent les causes qui, pendant l'année 1818, donnèrent naissance, dans les Provinces Septentrionales du royaume des Pays-Bas, à une société de bienfaisance, dont le but était de mettre à exécution de nouveaux projets philanthropiques. Les membres de cette société s'obligèrent à payer chacun par semaine un sou, et cela pendant tout le temps qu'il leur conviendrait de faire partie de la société. Le nombre des souscripteurs s'éleva bientôt à vingt mille ; et la société, au moyen d'administrateurs choisis dans son sein, conçut le projet de fonder des colonies destinées à servir d'asile à différentes espèces de pauvres, dans les bruyères dont le pays abonde : Colonies pour réprimer la mendicité, colonies d'indigents et de vétérans, colonies ordinaires ou libres, colonies de surveillants aux travaux de l'agriculture, colonies d'orphelins et d'enfants-trouvés, et enfin colonies d'industrie agricole.

Dans l'année même où la société prit naissance, elle établit avant tout une colonie ordinaire

naire ou libre, sur les bruyères situées entre les provinces de Drenthe, de Frise et d'Over-Yssel: cette colonie fut nommée Frederiks-Oord. Elle se composait de cinquante-deux petites fermes, exploitées en partie auparavant par la société, d'un magasin pour les objets nécessaires aux colons, de plusieurs fabriques, d'une école, etc. Elle fut peuplée au moyen de familles indigentes, mais qui ne vivaient pas tout-à-fait d'aumônes. La dépense pour la fondation de cette colonie s'éleva à 68,000 flor., produit des souscriptions annuelles et des donations des membres, qui, pour assurer aux colons du travail pendant cette époque de l'année où la campagne n'en offre point les ressources, s'engagèrent à leur acheter vingt-six mille aunes de toile.

En 1819, la société offrit aux directeurs des institutions d'orphelins de tout le royaume, de se charger, moyennant une rétribution annuelle, d'un nombre d'orphelins de l'âge de 6 ans qu'ils voudraient bien lui confier, en leur laissant le droit d'exercer une juste surveillance. La société, pour faire face à cette nouvelle dépense, fit un emprunt de 280,000 flor. Elle plaça d'abord les orphelins dans de petites maisons séparées, à raison de six dans chacune, et deux personnes âgées pour leur servir de parents. Mais ensuite elle les réunit presque tous dans de grands édifices. Dans cette même année, le nombre des membres s'éleva à 22,500 et leurs souscriptions à 82,500 fl., ce qui permit à la société d'établir deux autres colonies ordinaires ou libres, et d'y placer cent cinquante familles.

En 1820, elle emprunta de nouveau 100,000 flor. qui, réunis à 78,000 fl. qui lui furent donnés, lui offrirent les moyens d'établir pendant cette année un même nombre de familles.

En 1821, elle réunit une somme de 421,000 flor., produit d'un emprunt de 300,000 flor., et de 121,000 fl. provenant des souscriptions; et elle possédait sept colonies ordinaires ou libres, composées de 500 petites fermes, et autres établissements dont nous avons parlé.

En 1822, elle fonda la première colonie pour réprimer la mendicité; et dans le mois de Novembre de la même année, elle s'engagea envers le gouvernement à recevoir et placer dans d'autres colonies 4,000 orphelins, 2,500 indigents, et 1,500 mendiants. Le gouvernement aurait à payer 45 flor. par an pour chaque orphelin, pendant 16 années, et rien pour les autres pauvres, ce qui faisait 22 fl. 50 cents pour chaque individu du nombre total. Mais jusqu'à présent la société n'a pu remplir qu'une partie de ses engagements. Elle établit néanmoins toutes les espèces de colonies que nous avons énumérées.

C'est dans le courant du mois d'Août de l'année 1829, que nous avons visité toutes les colonies de la société. Partis d'Amsterdam le premier jour, nous arrivâmes à Zwol, chef-lieu de la province d'Over-Yssel: la distance qui sépare les deux villes est de trente lieues, et nous la parcourûmes en diligence en moins de 15 heures, sur une de ces belles et bonnes routes Hollandaises, construites en briques au milieu, et bordées de gazon. Le deuxième jour, nous prîmes une voiture de louage, qui nous conduisit en cinq heures, par un chemin détestable, à travers un pays triste et marécageux, à Frederiks-Oord. Nous descendîmes à une belle auberge au milieu des champs. Nous présentâmes nos lettres d'introduction au directeur; et, après en avoir obtenu un guide, nous commençâmes à parcourir les colonies. Elles s'étendent sur un espace de deux lieues, et les petites fermes sont placées le long de chemins bordés d'arbres, et le long de canaux qui coupent les colonies en différentes sections. Chaque maison est composée d'une grande chambre, dans les murailles de laquelle sont pratiquées des espèces de larges tiroirs où couche la famille, selon l'usage des paysans Hollandais; une étable, une grange, et tout ce qui est nécessaire à une famille d'agriculteurs, se trouve annexé à la ferme. Près de la maison, est situé le jardin, puis les terres cultivables. Toutes les fermes ont trois bonniers et demi.

Tout chef de famille, dès son entrée à la colonie, fait une déclaration par laquelle il s'oblige à en observer les réglemens, en ce qui concerne l'obéissance aux supérieurs, sa conduite religieuse ou morale, celle de sa famille, la manière dont les travaux doivent s'exécuter, l'habillement uniforme des colons, etc.

Lorsqu'une famille de huit individus s'établit dans une ferme (et c'est de ce nombre que l'on compose ordinairement les familles), la société lui ouvre un compte de 1,700, flor., répartis de la manière suivante:

Pour l'acquisition des 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ bonniers* de terre	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	fl.	100
Pour les exploiter	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	400
Pour deux vaches et quelques moutons	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	150
Pour la maison	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	500
Pour les dépenses communes	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	50
Pour meubles et habillemens	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	250
Pour un fonds de réserve destiné à entreprendre des travaux extraordinaires	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	250
										fl. 1,700†

La somme donnée par anticipation pour les meubles et les habillemens est retenue dans la suite au colon sur ses propres gages; et aussitôt que la ferme est entièrement exploitée, le chef de la famille est débité de 60 flor. pour intérêts du restant du capital, et pour loyer de la ferme même.

Pendant trois ans au moins, les colons cultivent les terres en commun; leur travail est rétribué par des gages; et ils ne disposent nullement du produit de la ferme, mais de celui du jardin et des vaches. Les produits des fermes (et ils nous ont paru bien médiocres), qui consistent principalement en seigle, pommes de terre, sarrazin, etc., sont transportés dans les

* Not quite seven English acres and a half. A bonnier is equal to 2 $\frac{45}{100}$ English acres, or one hectare.

† About 141 l. 13 s., a florin being worth about 1 s. 8 d.

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.POOR COLONIES
in the
NETHERLANDS.

Frederiks-Oord.

les magasins de la société, où on les conserve pour les distribuer ensuite aux colons en à compte du prix de leur travail, partie en comestibles préparés, partie en simple nature.

Aussi long-temps qu'une famille ne parvient pas à se procurer par son travail tous les produits nécessaires à son entretien, elle reçoit journellement sa subsistance de la société ; mais, lorsqu'elle gagne quatre florins par semaine, elle peut préparer sa subsistance dans l'intérieur de sa maison ; et quant aux ustensiles qui lui sont nécessaires, le colon peut les acheter à la société ou ailleurs.

La société distribue trois sortes de médailles, les unes en cuivre, les autres en argent, les troisièmes en or. Les premières servent de récompense à ceux que distinguent un travail régulier et une bonne conduite ; elles donnent, à ceux qui les ont obtenues, le droit de sortir de la colonie les Dimanches et jours de fête, sans en obtenir la permission des supérieurs. Les secondes récompensent ceux qui, par leur industrie active, gagnent par eux-mêmes tous les moyens de subsistance ; elles donnent le droit de sortir de la colonie sans permission, non-seulement les Dimanches et jours de fêtes, mais tous les autres jours de la semaine, aux heures qui ne sont point consacrées au travail. Enfin les médailles d'or sont distribuées à ceux qui ont déjà obtenu celles en argent, dès que leurs fermes produisent annuellement pour une valeur de 250 fl., et, en les obtenant, le colon n'est plus soumis au régime colonial, et il ne diffère d'un fermier ordinaire que par certaines conditions qui lui sont imposées. De même que le colon obtient une médaille par sa bonne conduite, de même il la perd, pour un certain temps ou à jamais, et avec tous les privilèges qui y sont attachés, par sa mauvaise conduite. Les médailles sont solennellement distribuées et retirées tous les quinze jours.

Après un séjour de trois ans dans la colonie, les colons sont distribués en trois classes : 1^o. Celle des hommes laborieux qui ont reçu la médaille d'argent ; ils peuvent, ou cultiver la ferme pour leur propre compte, en en payant le loyer à la société, et en acquittant les dettes qu'ils ont contractées à leur entrée ; ou la cultiver en commun comme auparavant. 2^o. Celle des colons qui ont reçu la médaille de cuivre, et peuvent en conséquence, en cultivant leur ferme à part, disposer d'une partie des produits ; mais l'autre partie doit être rapportée aux magasins de la société, en compensation du loyer de la ferme, des avances qui leur ont été faites, et pour créer un fonds commun. Cependant une partie de ce rapport leur est distribuée en pain. Si les colons, pendant l'année, ne recueillent pas sur leurs champs une quantité déterminée de pommes de terre, ou s'ils demandent à la société des secours extraordinaires, ils doivent restituer la médaille, et passer à la troisième classe. Cette dernière est composée de ceux qui n'ont obtenu aucune médaille, et qui en conséquence doivent verser dans les magasins de la société une plus grande quantité de produits, de sorte qu'ils en ont moins à administrer par eux-mêmes, tout en ayant à remplir les mêmes obligations que les autres.

Les colons cultivent en commun une certaine étendue de terrain, dont le produit est destiné à suppléer au déficit de récolte spéciale de chaque ferme, et à pourvoir aux dépenses occasionnées par l'école, l'hôpital, et l'administration. Chaque chef de famille est obligé d'y travailler trois jours par année, pour lesquels il reçoit un salaire. Les salaires en général sont payés au moyen d'un papier-monnaie, qui n'a cours que dans la colonie, et avec lequel les colons peuvent acheter tout ce que bon leur semble, à l'exception des boissons spiritueuses, dont l'usage et la vente sont prohibés. Il y a dans les colonies diverses boutiques, et le prix des objets est fixé par l'administration de la colonie.

Pendant l'été, les colons envoient leurs bestiaux dans des pâturages communs.

Quelle que soit la durée du temps pendant lequel un colon ait résidé dans la colonie, il ne peut jamais devenir propriétaire de sa ferme. Il peut cependant acquérir la propriété des meubles, dont il dispose comme chose à lui, soit en les vendant, soit en les emportant, lorsqu'il quitte définitivement la colonie.

Il n'est pas permis au colon de se marier, à moins qu'il ne soit veuf, ou fils d'un veuf, et en possession d'une ferme ; et lorsque ses enfants sont parvenus à l'âge de 16 ou 18 ans, ils choisissent un état, avec le consentement de leurs parents et des supérieurs, état qu'ils peuvent exercer soit dans le sein de la colonie, soit ailleurs.

Il y a, par vingt-cinq fermes, un surveillant, qui les visite tous les jours, qui dirige les travaux, et les distribue entre les divers colons. Dans ce partage des 25 fermes et la distribution des familles qui les occupent, la société a soin de faire entrer des individus exerçant des métiers différents. En raison de la bonne conduite de chaque famille, la surveillance diminue de jour en jour, et elle cesse presque entièrement, lorsque le colon a restitué la valeur des avances qui lui ont été faites. Pour cent fermes, il y a un sous-directeur, qui donne ses instructions au surveillant, tient les registres, et dirige les manufactures.

Les colons paresseux et d'une conduite irrégulière sont traduits devant un conseil de surveillance, dont quelques colons font partie ; ce conseil les renvoie devant un autre, dit de Discipline, qui peut les faire transférer à Ommerschans (colonie pour réprimer la mendicité, dont nous parlerons ensuite), dans un endroit qui leur est particulièrement destiné. Ils y séjournent pendant un temps déterminé, soumis à un travail plus rigoureux que de coutume. Les colons laborieux et honnêtes sont commis à la surveillance des travaux dans les colonies pour réprimer la mendicité, et dans celles d'orphelins et d'indigents.

Dans ces colonies de Frederiks-Oord, la plupart des familles sont Protestantes ; il y en a cependant plusieurs Catholiques, et deux Juives.

Wateren.

La matinée du troisième jour, nous nous sommes rendus à Wateren, qui est à deux lieues de Frederiks-Oord. Wateren est la colonie d'industrie agricole, où sont envoyés les orphelins qui se distinguent le plus dans leurs colonies. Les orphelins, au nombre de soixante, y apprennent la théorie de l'agriculture, au moyen d'un maître, et la pratique, en cultivant une ferme de quarante-deux bonniers, partagés en champs cultivés, en pépinières,

et

et en pâturages. Le même maître leur enseigne en outre l'arpentage, l'histoire naturelle, la botanique, les mathématiques, la chimie, l'histoire de la Hollande, leur explique la Bible, et leur fait faire des exercices gymnastiques. Ces orphelins sont destinés à devenir surveillants dans les colonies ordinaires ou libres. Ils sont mieux habillés que les autres, et portent un chapeau orné d'un ruban sur lequel est écrit le nom de la colonie privilégiée à laquelle ils appartiennent. Cette colonie gagne à la société à-peu-près 900 fl. par an.

Le même jour, après une course de trois lieues, nous arrivâmes à Veenhuisen, où il y a une colonie pour réprimer la mendicité, deux d'orphelins, une d'indigents et de vétérans, et une de surveillants aux travaux d'agriculture. Deux grands édifices quarrés, à la distance d'un demi-mille l'un de l'autre, contiennent dans la partie qui donne sur les cours, le premier, des mendiants; le second, des orphelins; et tous deux, dans des chambres qui donnent à l'extérieur, des indigents et des vétérans. Un autre édifice pareil, à deux milles de distance, contient également ces trois classes d'individus; et, entre ces trois édifices, sont situées deux églises, l'une Catholique et l'autre Protestante, vingt-quatre maisons formant une colonie de surveillants aux travaux d'agriculture, et un même nombre de maisons habitées par les employés de ces colonies.

Les enfants ont ainsi été placés dans le voisinage des hommes, afin que les travaux de l'agriculture et ceux des arts et métiers pussent être distribués plus convenablement. Ces colonies sont aussi entrecoupées par des grands chemins, bordés d'arbres, et par des canaux, qui les mettent en communication avec la ville d'Amsterdam.

L'intérieur des trois grands édifices est partagé en deux; d'un côté demeurent les hommes, de l'autre, les femmes: il se compose de grandes salles au rez-de-chaussée qui contiennent de 40 à 50 individus, et qui sont séparées l'une de l'autre par une cuisine.

Au-dessus du rez-de-chaussée, il n'y a que des greniers, qui servent de magasins. Ces salles sont éclairées au moyen de quinquets suspendus au plafond, chauffées par des poêles, et l'air y est constamment renouvelé par des ventilateurs. Hommes et enfants dorment dans des hamacs, suspendus, le jour, au plafond, et descendus, le soir, presque au niveau du plancher, de manière que les mêmes salles servent tout à la fois de dortoir, de réfectoire, et d'atelier. Des bancs, fixés à la muraille, servent de siège et d'armoire.

Les individus de la colonie pour réprimer la mendicité reçoivent, à leur entrée, un habillement neuf, complet et uniforme, et, pendant quelque temps, sont entretenus en toutes choses, sans que l'on exige que, par leur travail, ils gagnent au prorata de ce qu'on leur a donné. Ils travaillent, ou à l'extérieur, à la culture des champs, à la fabrication des briques, à l'exploitation des tourbières, ou à l'intérieur, dans les manufactures, et plus souvent à la tâche qu'à la journée. Le prix du travail est fixé par l'administration de la société.

Les terres de ces colonies sont partagées en fermes, de trente-deux bonniers chacune, moitié champs cultivés, moitié pâturages. A chacune de ces fermes sont attachés quarante ou cinquante colons, qui travaillent sous la direction d'un surveillant, instruit auparavant par le sous-directeur quant à la manière de les cultiver. Les dépenses annuelles pour l'exploitation de chacune de ces fermes sont fixées à 1,680 flor.

La comptabilité entre la société et les colons est tenue suivant le système militaire. Chaque colon est porteur d'un livret sur lequel sont inscrits la somme des travaux qu'il a exécutés chaque jour, celle des fournitures qui lui ont été faites, des dépenses générales auxquelles il doit prendre part, et tout ce qu'il a reçu en papier-monnaie.

Si les gains du colon excèdent les dépenses qui ont été faites pour lui, ce qui arrive, dit-on, communément, un tiers de cet excédant lui est donné en papier-monnaie, un second tiers est versé dans une caisse d'épargne, pour lui être rendu à sa sortie de la colonie, et le dernier tiers est retenu par la société pour faire face à des dépenses imprévues.

Des gardes à cheval, et qui circulent autour de la colonie, des primes accordées à ceux qui reconduisent les colons qui ont tenté de s'échapper, un habillement uniforme, tels sont les moyens employés pour empêcher que la colonie ne soit désertée. Les colons y sont retenus pendant six ans, à moins que, dans un plus court espace de temps, ils n'aient épargné 12½ flor.: ils sortent alors immédiatement.

Les orphelins sont conduits dans les colonies qui ont été fondées pour eux, dès qu'ils ont atteint l'âge de six ans. S'ils sont atteints de maladies contagieuses, ils sont logés séparément, jusqu'à ce qu'ils soient guéris. Une partie de la journée est employée par eux au travail dans les champs ou à l'intérieur; l'autre partie est consacrée à l'instruction élémentaire, au dessin et au chant. Le directeur eut la complaisance d'en faire chanter quelques-uns devant nous, ce qui nous fut très-agréable. Les orphelins sortent des colonies à l'âge de dix-huit ans, et la plupart prennent du service soit dans la marine, soit dans l'armée.

Les colonies d'indigents et de vétérans servent de lieux préparatoires avant de passer aux colonies ordinaires ou libres. Les vétérans et les indigents demeurent avec leurs familles dans les appartements extérieurs des grands édifices habités par les mendiants et les orphelins. De même que ceux-ci, ils sont considérés comme des journaliers, et sont payés en raison de leur travail.

Dans toutes ces colonies, les fournitures aussi bien que les gages varient en raison de la différence d'âge, de force, de sexe des individus. Les hommes sont divisés en cinq classes, et les femmes en sept. La première classe d'hommes doit gagner un florin 70 c. par semaine; la seconde 1-35; la troisième 1-06; la quatrième, composée d'enfants, de 8 à 16 ans, 1-01; la cinquième, composée d'enfants au-dessous de cet âge, 67½ c. La première classe de femmes doit gagner par semaine 1 flor. 51; la seconde 1-26; la troisième 98 c.; les quatrième et cinquième, composées d'enfants, 95 c. et 75 c.; les sixième et septième, composées également d'enfants, mais plus jeunes, 63 c. et 55 c.

Le même jour (c'est-à-dire le troisième de notre départ d'Amsterdam) nous quittâmes

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Veenhuisen, et, après trois lieues de chemin, nous nous arrêtàmes à une petite auberge située sur la grande route entre Zwol et Groningue, et nous y passâmes la nuit. La matinée du quatrième jour, nous nous rendîmes à Ommerschans, qui est à sept lieues de Veenhuisen. On y trouve, comme dans toutes les colonies et le reste de la Hollande, de bonnes auberges.

A Ommerschans il y a une colonie pour réprimer la mendicité et une d'indigents et de vétérans. La première est composée d'hommes et d'enfants; et, dans un lieu séparé, sont placés les colons ordinaires ou libres, envoyés en expiation de quelque faute commise dans leurs propres colonies. L'édifice, qui peut contenir mille individus, ressemble sous plusieurs rapports à celui de Veenhuisen, si ce n'est que l'eau qui l'environne, et les barreaux de fer aux fenêtres, lui donnent une bien plus grande apparence de prison que l'autre, et qu'au lieu d'un seul rez-de-chaussée, il est surmonté d'un étage. Sont également semblables les dispositions des salles, les occupations des colons, la discipline, etc. Au milieu de la cour, il y a des boutiques de serruriers, de menuisiers, et d'autres métiers, et des fabriques de fil et de toile. En dehors, se trouvent l'église qui sert aux cultes Catholique et Protestant, et d'école en même temps; la maison du sous-directeur, l'hôpital, et d'autres locaux à l'usage des colonies; et vingt maisons, éparses dans les terres, forment une colonie de surveillants aux travaux d'agriculture. Il y avait peu de malades à cette époque dans l'hôpital; mais, en 1826, le nombre en fut très-grand; et l'épidémie qui, pendant l'année 1827 à 1828, désola la ville et la province de Groningue et des pays environnants, étendit ses ravages sur ces mêmes colonies. Pour prévenir les maladies contagieuses, et empêcher de feindre celles qu'on n'a point, les colons qui tombent malades sont obligés de se transporter dans les 24 heures à l'hôpital.

De cette colonie pour réprimer la mendicité, sortent tous les ans 150 individus à-peu-pres.

Les vétérans et les indigents sont également logés à la partie extérieure de l'édifice.

Les pommes de terre nous parurent le produit le plus beau des champs de la colonie.

De tout ce qui se fait dans ces deux colonies, et dans toutes celles dont nous avons parlé, compte exact est rendu par la société à tous ses membres et au public, dans un journal mensuel, intitulé, *De Vriend des Vaderland* (L'ami de la Patrie.) La première année, ce journal lui rapporta 33,000 florins.

A Ommerschans se termina notre visite aux colonies de la Société de Bienfaisance des provinces septentrionales; et la soirée du quatrième jour, nous revînmes à Zwol, qui est à quatre lieues d'Ommerschans.

Les travaux de cette société stimulèrent l'émulation des habitants du midi du royaume; et, dans l'année 1822, ils formèrent aussi une Société de Bienfaisance pour les provinces méridionales.

Elle compta bientôt seize mille membres, et ne se proposa que d'établir des colonies ordinaires ou libres, et des colonies pour réprimer la mendicité, qui devaient contenir aussi des orphelins.

En 1823, elle en fonda deux ordinaires ou libres dans la province d'Anvers.

Près de celle-ci, elle établit, en 1825, une colonie pour réprimer la mendicité, et elle s'obligea envers le gouvernement à y recevoir mille mendiants, envoyés par lui, sous la condition de payer à la société pendant 16 ans, 35 flor. par an et par chaque mendiant valide, 28 flor. par invalide, et flor. 17 $\frac{1}{2}$ par chaque enfant au-dessous de treize ans. Les seize années écoulées, la société s'engage à recevoir un égal nombre de mendiants, sans que le gouvernement ait à lui payer une autre indemnité que 12 flor. par individu, et une fois payés, pour subvenir à la dépense de l'habillement.

Un décret du roi du 16 Novembre 1822 fixe les conditions selon lesquelles les pauvres peuvent être placés dans ces colonies, soit par les institutions de bienfaisance déjà existantes, soit par des communes. Les conditions sont de payer 35 fl. par an pour chaque personne adulte; 45 fl. pour un enfant au-dessus de six ans; mais si on en envoie huit à la fois, la société est tenue de recevoir trios adultes gratuitement; 40 flor. pour un enfant au-dessous de six ans, et 22 $\frac{1}{2}$ pour chaque membre d'une famille composée de huit individus. Des particuliers peuvent, soit seuls, soit conjointement, placer des familles dans les colonies ordinaires ou libres, à charge de payer ou la somme de 1,600 flor. à la fois pour chaque famille, ou 15 flor. par an pour chaque individu pendant seize ans.

Pour nous rendre à ces colonies, nous partîmes d'Anvers par la diligence à sept heures du matin, et nous arrivâmes à Turnhout à midi. Nous louâmes une voiture, et après une route de deux heures, à travers les sables, les bruyères et les bois, nous arrivâmes à la colonie pour réprimer la mendicité, dans les communes de Merxplas et de Ryckevorsel. L'édifice ressemble à ceux d'Ommerschans et de Veenhuisen; il n'a qu'un rez-de-chaussée, et il peut aussi contenir mille individus; mais il est beaucoup plus beau que les autres, et, au centre, il y a un grand et vaste logement pour le directeur.

Après que les mendiants sont arrêtés par la gendarmerie, on leur laisse le choix ou d'être traduits devant les tribunaux comme vagabonds, ou bien d'être transférés dans cette colonie, où ils doivent rester au moins un an. Le gouvernement cependant, ou spontanément, ou à la suite d'une demande de la société, laisse d'ordinaire sortir avant ce temps ceux des mendiants qui semblent disposés à ne plus vivre d'aumônes.

Ici les colons valides ne sont partagés qu'en trois classes, sans distinction de sexe, et doivent gagner par leur travail une somme équivalente aux objets qu'ils reçoivent. La valeur des objets pour la première classe est de 1 fl. 55 c. par semaine; pour la seconde, 1 fl. 40 c., et pour la troisième 1 fl. 18 c. Les colons n'y travaillent qu'à la journée, et le salaire est de 1 fl. 80 c. par semaine pour la première classe: 1 fl. 50 c. pour la seconde; 1 fl. 20 c. pour la troisième. On dispose de l'excédant du bénéfice sur les dépenses de la même manière que dans les provinces septentrionales. C'est une récompense pour ceux qui travaillent

avec

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avec activité pendant une semaine que de passer d'une classe inférieure à une supérieure, et une punition que de descendre à une classe inférieure.

Cette colonie est sise sur 500 bonniers de terre; elle est composée de quatre maisons, situées à une égale distance de l'édifice. Dans ces maisons demeurent les chefs des travaux d'agriculture; et les étables et autres bâtiments d'exploitation y sont annexés. Plusieurs autres maisons sont éparses sur ces mêmes terres. Les premières sont bâties en briques, couvertes d'ardoises, et coûtèrent chacune 2,000 fl. de construction. Les secondes ont été bâties avec des matériaux moins coûteux; elles sont préférées aux premières, et servent maintenant de modèles à celles que l'on bâtit de nouveau. Une pareille distribution des maisons facilite le transport des fumiers, qui se doit faire ici à mains d'hommes, à cause du nombre de personnes qu'on doit nécessairement employer. Le seigle, le blé sarrazin, les pommes de terres, les trèfles, tout y était d'une végétation aussi belle et aussi vigoureuse, dans ces terres pauvres et à peine livrées à la culture de l'homme, qu'elles eussent pu l'être dans des champs fertiles et depuis longtemps entretenus avec soin et diligence. Les champs sont entourés de haies et de fossés; les chemins bien entretenus et bordés d'arbres; tout nous sembla respirer ici un air d'aisance et de prospérité.

Après avoir consacré trois heures à visiter cette colonie, nous nous mîmes de nouveau en voiture, et après un trajet de deux milles, nous nous trouvâmes sur une grande place, qui est le centre des colonies ordinaires ou libres, situées dans la commune de Wortel. De là nous renvoyâmes la voiture à Turnhout. Sur différents points de la place, sont situés l'église, l'école, le logement du sous-directeur, une filature et un magasin. De cette même place, divergent différents chemins, le long desquels sont bâties toutes les fermes, comme à Frederiks-Oord. Dans ces colonies, on assigne à chaque famille de huit personnes un capital de 1,600 fl., réparti de la manière suivante :

Pour l'achat du terrain	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	50	-	„
Pour bâtir la maison	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	550	-	„
Pour meubles	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	250	-	„
Pour dépenses communes	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	50	-	„
Pour exploiter une ferme de 3 ½ bonniers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	350	-	„
Pour la construction des maisons centrales d'agriculture	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	50	-	„
Pour deux vaches	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100	-	„
Pour fournitures en vivres et en argent	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	50	-	„
Pour lin et laine	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	150	-	„
								1,600	-	„*

Nous sommes entres dans plusieurs maisons, et les avons trouvées propres et bien fournies.

Cependant, ces colons jouissent dans leurs actions d'une liberté moins grande que ceux de Frederiks-Oord. Les familles ne cultivent jamais les terres des fermes qu'elles habitent, et ne disposent d'autres produits que de ceux du jardin. On les traite tous comme des hommes travaillant à la journée, et on les envoie cultiver tantôt les terres d'une ferme, tantôt celles d'une autre. Les produits de ces terres étaient on ne peut plus mauvais; et comme la plupart des colons ignoraient à leur arrivée les occupations champêtres, et négligeaient leurs vaches, elles leur furent retirées.

Dans ces colonies, au lieu de papier-monnaie, on a créé une monnaie de plomb de 5 et 10 cents; mais, en cas de maladie, ou de circonstances extraordinaires, on donne de l'argent aux colons, afin qu'ils puissent se procurer hors de la colonie ce dont ils ont besoin. Non-obstant le contrat fait avec le gouvernement, et l'arrêté du Roi ci-dessus rappelé, ces colonies sont peu peuplées, et il y a plus de trente fermes qui ne sont point occupées.

Les maisons et les édifices, construits par la société, sont exempts d'impositions pendant l'espace de quinze ans.

La société des provinces méridionales publie, comme celle du nord, un journal sous le titre de Philanthrope.

Le soir de cette même journée, en nous promenant sur les chemins de la colonie, nous nous trouvâmes près d'Hoogstraate, où nous passâmes la nuit, et d'où nous nous rendîmes à Bréda.

Suivant un rapport, présenté aux Etats-Généraux par le Ministre de l'Intérieur, sur la situation des Sociétés de Bienfaisance pendant l'année 1827, il résulte que :

1° La société pour les provinces septentrionales comptait à cette époque	-	-	-	-	-	-	12,900	23,200 membres.
2° Celle des provinces méridionales	-	-	-	-	-	-	10,300	
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La première avait dans ses colonies une population de - - 6,783 ind.
Non compris les employés et leurs familles.

Cette population est répartie comme suit :

Individus vivant en famille	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,961
Orphelins	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,095
Mendiants	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,763

La seconde avait une population de - - - - 1,357 —

Répartis de la manière suivante :

Individus vivant en famille	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	524
Orphelins	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	17
Mendiants	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	816

Total de la population dans les colonies des deux sociétés 8,140 ind.

La première possédait en animaux :

Chevaux	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	97
Vaches	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	881
Genisses	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	116
Veaux	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	56
Moutons	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4,430

5,580

La seconde possédait en animaux :

Chevaux	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	15
Vaches	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	130
Taureaux	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3
Bœufs	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6
Genisses et veaux	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	116
Moutons	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	907
Chèvres	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	71

1,248

Total des bestiaux possédés par les deux sociétés - 6,828

La première avait exploité bonniers - - - 2,700

La seconde - - - - - 899 $\frac{71}{100}$

Total des bonniers mis en culture - 3,599 $\frac{71}{100}$

La première possédait en bâtiments :

Maisons pour les colons ordinaires ou libres	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	416
Etablissements pour mendiants	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Pour orphelins	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Lieux de punition	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Maisons succursales	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	45
Grandes fermes	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	41
Maison de la colonie agricole	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1

508

La seconde possédait :

Maisons pour les colons	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	125
Maisons pour les commissaires de quartier	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
Etablissement pour les mendiants	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Grandes fermes	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8

138

Total général des bâtiments - 646

La première jouit de - - - - fl. 1,363,656. 89

La seconde - - - - - 212,870. 52 $\frac{1}{2}$

Total - - - 1,576,527. 41 $\frac{1}{2}$

La première dépense - - - - 1,296,043. 75 $\frac{1}{4}$

La seconde - - - - - 222,372. 09 $\frac{1}{2}$

Total - - - fl. 1,516,415. 84 $\frac{3}{4}$

Dans les colonies pour réprimer la mendicité, sont nés - - 28 enfants.

Morts - - - - - 301 —

Il en était entré de différentes institutions de bienfaisance - - 606 —

Il en était sorti - - - - - 727 —

Jamais peut-être aucune Société de Bienfaisance n'entreprit et n'exécuta autant de choses en aussi peu de temps que celles dont nous venons de tracer le tableau. Mais tout ce qu'elles ont fait est-il bien ? Nous ne le pensons pas.

Et d'abord, nous voudrions que toute institution humaine, avant d'être mise à l'épreuve de l'utile, le fût à celle du juste. Or, dans ce cas-ci, nous nous sommes demandé : est-il juste que l'on poursuive des hommes qui ne font d'autre mal que d'implorer le secours de leurs semblables ? est-il juste que, pour prémunir la société humaine contre un dommage résultant d'une action innocente par elle-même, et pour éloigner de ses yeux des objets désagréables, l'on prive ces hommes bon gré mal gré du bien le plus précieux, et du seul peut-être dont ils jouissent, de leur liberté ? qu'on les enlève à leur pays natal, à leurs affections ; qu'on les sépare de leurs parents ; que l'on en dispose enfin comme autant d'êtres sans volonté et sans sentiments ? Nous ne le pensons pas.

Dans les colonies pour réprimer la mendicité, les pauvres sont sans doute mieux logés, nourris, vêtus, qu'ils ne le sont d'ordinaire, traités avec humanité ; et en conséquence nombre de personnes veulent et croient qu'ils doivent être contents. Mais le contentement, chacun l'entend à sa guise ; et les pauvres de ces colonies manifestent assez leur mécontentement, par le désir qu'ils ont d'en sortir et par leurs efforts pour reconquérir leur liberté.

Nous voudrions qu'à cette époque où les aumônes étaient faites sans discernement, en eût succédé une autre où elles fussent distribuées avec choix et jugement ; une époque où la mendicité eût été réglée (et nous croyons une semblable mesure indispensable, surtout dans les grandes villes) ; mais où des invocations à la charité faites par celui qui est malheureux sans sa faute, ne fussent pas confondues avec celles de l'imposteur, et enveloppées dans un même arrêt de proscription. Cette manière de secourir les pauvres nous paraît plus convenable, plus digne d'hommes civilisés, plus juste que les autres, et propre en même temps à empêcher leur multiplication. Mais puisque nous en sommes encore à espérer et à prédire la naissance de cette époque, au lieu de la pouvoir considérer comme existante, que les lois actuelles contre la mendicité soient exécutées autant que possible, mais par les administrations publiques, et non par des Sociétés de Bienfaisance. Le bienfait, pour être tel, doit être offert et accepté librement : soutenu et accompagné de la force, il est justice, il est utilité peut-être, mais il cesse d'être bienfait.

Ceux qui se proposent d'extirper la mendicité, ne réfléchissent point à l'étendue de cette entreprise. S'ils y pensaient bien, ils verraient qu'elle est gigantesque, au-dessus des forces de toute société, du pouvoir de toute législation. En disant aux pauvres : " Vous ne demanderez pas l'aumône sous peine d'emprisonnement," il faut que l'on soit prêt à secourir tous les invalides, et en même temps que l'on dise aux valides : " Voilà de l'ouvrage, pour tous tant que vous êtes, pour toujours, et dans toutes les circonstances !" Mais les sociétés humaines, dans leur état ordinaire, et surtout celles où la civilisation est ancienne, ont déjà un nombre de pauvres tel qu'il leur est bien difficile de tenir de pareilles promesses. Une mauvaise récolte, une crise commerciale, en augmentent le nombre, au point qu'il est même absolument impossible de remplir ces engagements. Et puis, comme chacun sait, les lois ne peuvent pas à leur fantaisie ériger en crimes les actions des hommes. Les lois, pour être exécutées facilement, et respectées, doivent, avant tout, commander le possible, et ensuite punir les actions vraiment contraires à la conscience humaine. Mais les hommes, au contraire, satisfont aisément, à l'aide de quelques aumônes, à ce besoin que presque tous éprouvent et sentent parfois de faire un peu de bien ; et la voix du malheureux, vraie ou fausse, pénètre d'ordinaire et résonne trop profondément dans leur cœur, pour qu'ils n'en soient pas touchés.

Afin d'étayer cette opinion, prenons pour exemple le royaume même des Pays-Bas. Suivant le rapport cité ci-dessus, il y avait, dans ce royaume, en 1827, 11,440 institutions de bienfaisance, qui, au moyen d'une dépense de 12,821,359 florins, 04 c., avaient secouru 1,214,55 d'individus, tandis que la population totale du royaume n'était que de 6,166,854 âmes. Parmi ces secours, à la vérité, étaient compris les dépenses pour l'instruction de 172,761 individus ; les prêts du mont-de-piété faits à 217,133 personnes ; le travail procuré à 20,457 ; mais 803,704 pauvres avaient reçu des secours en argent. Le premier Janvier de la même année, il y avait, dans les dépôts de mendicité et dans les colonies pour réprimer la mendicité, 5,324 pauvres ; et dans le cours de l'année, on en avait arrêté 2,528. La cinquième partie à peu près de la population de ce royaume reçoit donc des secours d'une manière quelconque. Des lois sévères, et exécutées autant que possible, y répriment et punissent la mendicité. Et cependant, l'on y rencontre un grand nombre de gens qui demandent l'aumône, plus, il est vrai, dans les provinces méridionales que dans les septentrionales, plus dans les campagnes que dans les villes.

Selon nous donc, les Sociétés de Bienfaisance du royaume des Pays-Bas, en établissant les colonies pour réprimer la mendicité, se sont écartées des principes de toute institution de bienfaisance, et ont pris une marche diamétralement opposée à leur nature : elles ont substitué au bienfait les rigueurs de la législation. Mieux eût valu laisser traiter cette matière scabreuse de la mendicité par les administrations publiques ; et si ces administrations, forcées, par la nécessité actuelle des choses, de faire exécuter les lois existantes contre la mendicité, avaient placé les mendiants dans des dépôts situés à la campagne, et non dans les villes, et leur avaient fait pratiquer les travaux de l'agriculture aussi bien que ceux des arts et métiers, si elles avaient enfin fait pour ces malheureux cette espèce de bien que les sociétés sont parvenues à faire, elles eussent rendu, selon nous, un grand service à l'humanité.

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Quant aux colonies d'indigents et de vétérans et aux colonies ordinaires ou libres, si ceux qui y sont admis s'y rendent spontanément, et se soumettent volontairement à la discipline intérieure, nous n'avons dans ces cas qu'une seule objection à leur faire du côté moral, c'est l'empêchement apporté au mariage des colons. Nous pensons, à la vérité, que les mariages précoces et irréfléchis sont nuisibles aux classes inférieures de la société; mais nous voudrions que la prévoyance leur fût inculquée, et non commandée. Ensuite, la discipline nous paraît trop rigide et trop vexatoire; et il nous semble qu'il eût été plus convenable de bâtir les maisons sur diverses échelles, et de partager le terrain en lots d'une étendue variée. Il est impossible que les familles puissent toutes être composées d'un nombre d'individus proportionné à l'uniformité de dimension des maisons; et soit qu'on les réduise à ce nombre, en les augmentant ou en les diminuant, soit qu'on les laisse dans l'état où elles arrivent, la chose est également mauvaise. Et puis, quelques familles égales ou inférieures en nombre à d'autres, pourraient ou par une plus grande aptitude aux travaux des champs, ou par plus de connaissances et de bonne volonté, être plus capables d'exploiter une grande ferme que les autres. La possibilité et l'espoir de passer d'une ferme plus petite à une plus grande, eût été un stimulant et une récompense pour toutes les familles. Enfin, nous croyons mal entendue cette espèce de vanité à laquelle il nous a paru que les administrations se livraient, et qui consiste à se glorifier de produire, dans les colonies, la plus grande quantité des objets que l'on y consomme, comme si elles étaient placées hors du monde commercial; comme s'il n'était pas possible et plus utile de n'y produire que les objets qui offrent le plus d'avantages, et de les échanger avec ceux dont la production est plus avantageuse ailleurs!

En considérant ces colonies sous le point de vue économique, nous les estimons une mauvaise spéculation. Il nous semble impossible, si c'était chose profitable que d'exploiter les bruyères du royaume des Pays-Bas, qu'il ne se trouvât point des individus ou des compagnies qui l'entreprissent (et sans doute ils le pourraient faire avec plus d'économie et d'avantages que les Sociétés de Bienfaisance), dans un pays où l'on emploie les capitaux à moins de 2 % d'intérêt, et dans un siècle aussi entreprenant et aussi adonné aux spéculations que le nôtre. Les administrations des sociétés soutiennent le contraire; et nous n'avons que des inductions à leur opposer. Nous pourrions toutefois nous étayer ici d'une autorité de grand poids, si un sentiment de délicatesse ne nous imposait le devoir de garder le silence à cet égard. Mais ces administrations se font peut-être illusion sur le présent, et n'apercevront leur erreur que plus tard.

Quelques-uns pensent qu'il est nécessaire d'exploiter les bruyères, afin de mettre de niveau les produits de la terre et l'accroissement de la population. Mais l'opinion qui nous fait juger qu'il n'est pas profitable de cultiver les bruyères, conduit naturellement à croire que cette exploitation n'est pas nécessaire. Que la population augmente dans le royaume des Pays-Bas, c'est ce qui est indubitable; mais il faut cependant que les progrès lents que fait l'agriculture dans un état progressif de civilisation, et que ces petites exploitations partielles de bruyères entreprise par les propriétaires qui les avoisinent, suffisent pour subvenir aux besoins de la population croissante. Si l'on sentait le besoin d'une nouvelle masse considérable de produits agricoles, ce besoin serait proclamé d'une tout autre manière que par la voix des écrivains et des faiseurs de phrases: le prix de ces produits augmenterait continuellement. Les prix élevés sont le plus grand stimulant et la meilleure récompense que puisse recevoir la création de tous les produits, bien supérieure à celle que peuvent donner les gouvernements et les Sociétés de Bienfaisance. Or les nouveaux besoins des hommes se manifestent par l'élévation des prix, et tous, même les plus frivoles, sont aussitôt satisfaits, s'il est possible; et le plus pressant de tous, le besoin de la subsistance, ne le serait pas! Mais chacun, pour peu qu'il ait vécu, a été témoin des effets que produit la moindre pénurie des grains; leur prix augmente hors de mesure, et la culture des terres reçoit une telle impulsion, que deux ou trois années après, à la pénurie succède la surabondance, et les cris de détresse des cultivateurs se font entendre, jusqu'à ce que survienne une seconde pénurie qui les console. C'est par ces alternatives que passe le commerce des grains. Tant donc qu'il sera possible de produire des grains, cette production aura lieu de préférence à toute autre; et une semblable possibilité, disons-le pour tranquilliser les craintifs, durera aussi long-temps que toutes les terres cultivables du globe n'auront pas été exploitées, et aussi long-temps qu'on n'aura pas exécuté toutes les améliorations dont l'agriculture est susceptible.

Si nous ne craignons point que l'établissement des colonies d'orphelins, avec leurs formes grandioses, et revêtues pour ainsi-dire d'un caractère public, ne fût naître parmi les hommes l'idée que tous les orphelins, de quelque nature qu'ils soient, y seront accueillis et traités avec soin, et ne contribuât ainsi à relâcher de plus en plus les liens moraux que les institutions d'orphelins ont déjà une tendance à affaiblir, nous y donnerions bien volontiers notre assentiment. Cependant, nous ne pouvons nous empêcher de payer notre tribut d'éloges à la Société de Bienfaisance des provinces septentrionales, pour le soin qu'elle prend de ses orphelins, et l'instruction qu'elle leur fait donner, instruction qui, à leur rentrée dans la société

société générale, peut servir de compensation à ce relâchement des liens sociaux, et contribuer elle-même à en créer de nouveaux.

Pour obvier en partie au mal que les colonies d'orphelins, telles qu'elles sont établies actuellement, peuvent faire au pays, la Société de Bienfaisance pourrait imiter l'homme charitable, actif et instruit en même-temps, qui cherche et choisit lui-même les individus sur lesquels il veut répandre ses bienfaits : elle pourrait donc faire elle-même le choix des orphelins, au lieu de les recevoir indistinctement du gouvernement, et le porter sur les plus malheureux. Elle pourrait établir, dans le voisinage de ses colonies d'orphelins, des fermes de différente étendue, qu'elle louerait à des paysans qui aidassent les enfants dans les travaux des champs. Pour engager des cultivateurs à louer ces fermes, elle pourrait leur faire l'avance de quelques meubles et instruments d'agriculture, à payer à des époques déterminées, et donner à leurs enfants une instruction gratuite en tout ou en partie. Ces avantages, joints à la certitude d'avoir toujours du travail dans les colonies, feraient naître sans doute une grande concurrence ; et si la société mettait de préférence en culture cette partie des bruyères qui est la plus malfaisante au pays et en enlaidit l'aspect en même temps, elle ferait une œuvre vraiment utile et méritoire.

DE LA SITUATION des COLONIES AGRICOLES en BELGIQUE, en l'Année 1832, par
Ed. Ducpétiaux, Inspecteur-Général des Prisons et des Institutions de Bienfaisance de la Belgique.

ON s'occupe depuis quelque tems en France du projet de fonder des colonies agricoles à l'instar des établissemens créés il y quelques années en Hollande et en Belgique.

M. Huerne de Pommeuse a publié récemment sur ce sujet un ouvrage * qui renferme des renseignemens intéressans, non-seulement sur les colonies Hollandaises et Belges, mais encore sur plusieurs institutions pénitentiaires et charitables, qui se rapportent spécialement au but qu'on se propose en demandant la création d'établissemens coloniaux.

Le gouvernement Français n'est pas demeuré sourd à cet appel. Le Moniteur du 7 Novembre dernier contient un rapport fait au Roi par le Ministre du Commerce et des Travaux Publics, dans lequel ce fonctionnaire se propose de rendre commune à la France une institution qui s'est, dit-il, depuis 1822, acclimatée avec bonheur en Belgique, et qui, conduite avec soin et intelligence, peut agir puissamment sur la prospérité morale et matérielle du peuple.

Certes, je n'ai pas l'intention de diminuer le moins du monde la bonne volonté, et de refroidir le zèle des partisans du système des colonies agricoles ; j'ai la conviction, au contraire, que des établissemens de défrichemens et de culture, bien dirigés, seraient de nature à accroître jusqu'à un certain point la prospérité de la France. Mais il ne sera pas inutile, je pense, de réduire à leur juste valeur les résultats obtenus jusqu'ici en Belgique, dans les colonies de Wortel, et de Merxplas-Ryckevorsel. La nature des fonctions que j'exerce m'a mis à même de recueillir à cet égard quelques renseignemens peu ou point connus, qui, en indiquant les écueils contre lesquels sont venus se briser les efforts les plus consciencieux et les plus persévérans, contribueront peut-être à éclairer la marche de l'administration Française dans l'œuvre de la fondation des colonies agricoles.

La Société de Bienfaisance fondée dans les provinces méridionales du ci-devant royaume des Pays-Bas, à l'instar de la Société fondée en Hollande en 1818, a commencé ses opérations au commencement de l'année 1822.

Ces opérations consistèrent dans l'achat de cinq cent trente-deux bonniers vingt-six perches de bruyères sous la commune de Wortel, et la construction de cent vingt-neuf petites fermes et de quatre bâtimens centraux qui formèrent les colonies libres, N° 1 et 2 †.

En 1823, la Société entra en arrangement avec la gouvernement pour la fondation d'un nouvel établissement agricole, destiné à recevoir une partie de la population valide des dépôts de mendicité ; un contrat fut passé, cette même année, pour l'admission de mille mendiens à la colonie dite de Répression. Le prix convenu pour frais d'entretien de ces mille mendiens devait être payé tous les six mois à la Société, à raison de flor. 17.50 par tête, par conséquent flor. 17,500 par semestre. Ce paiement devait avoir lieu pendant seize ans ; sans que la diminution du nombre des mendiens pût donner droit à diminuer le montant de la somme convenue. Après l'expiration de ces seize années, le gouvernement devait conserver le droit de placer le même nombre de mendiens dans les établissemens de la Société, sans ne plus rien devoir payer de ce chef.

En conséquence de cette convention, la Société fit l'acquisition de cinq cent seize bonniers trente-six perches de bruyères, sous les communes de Merxplas et de Ryckevorsel, pour y établir la colonie pour la répression de la mendicité ; un dépôt pour mille mendiens, et quatre grandes fermes furent bâties sur ce terrain, et commencèrent à être habitées dans les derniers mois de 1825 ‡.

Depuis

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* Des Colonies Agricoles et de leurs avantages, un volume in 8vo. Paris ; Huzard ; 1832.

† Les 532 bonniers 26 perches de la colonie de Wortel ont coûté fl. 7,478. 17, ou fl. 14 environ le bonnier. (Le bonnier équivaut à un hectare(a) environ. Le florin vaut 2 francs 11 centimes. Le cent de florin vaut un peu plus de deux centimes.)

‡ Les 516 bonniers 36 perches de la colonie de Merxplas ont coûté fl. 6,650, ou fl. 13 environ par bonnier.

(a) A hectare is equal to a bonnier, or to $2\frac{45}{100}$ English acres.

Appendix (F.)
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Depuis l'époque de sa fondation jusqu'à ce jour, la Société a fait face aux dépenses de ses établissemens,

1. Par le produit des contrats passés avec quelques administrations communales et hospices civils pour le placement de familles ou d'orphelins aux colonies libres * ;
2. Par le produit des dons et des souscriptions volontaires des habitans ;
3. Au moyen d'emprunts ;
4. Au moyen de l'allocation de 35,000 fl. payés annuellement par le gouvernement pour l'entretien de mille mendiants reclus, du dépôt de Merxplas-Ryckevorsel ;
5. Par le produit des colonies, récoltes, ventes de bestiaux, retenues faites aux colons, etc. ;

Les dépenses de la Société peuvent être rangées sous les titres suivans :

1. Achat de terres ;
2. Constructions de bâtimens ;
3. Défrichement ;
4. Administration centrale et coloniale ;
5. Mobilier et vêtemens, fabrique ;
6. Vivres et entretien en général ;
7. Achat des bestiaux, chevaux, etc. ;
8. Culture ordinaire, engrais, ensemencement, journées, etc. ;
9. Dépenses diverses, assurances, etc.

Pour apprécier les opérations de la Société jusqu'à ce jour, et porter un jugement sur son avenir probable, il faudrait pouvoir non-seulement comparer le relevé annuel de ses recettes avec ses dépenses, mais encore calculer les frais de défrichement, la valeur progressive des récoltes, etc. ; malheureusement les renseignemens manquent à cet égard ou sont incomplets.

Cependant les comptes-rendus et les autres pièces qui m'ont été communiquées par M. le secrétaire de la commission permanent renferment quelques documens précis dont les conséquences seront faciles à saisir.

D'après les comptes-rendus, les relevés des dépenses et des recettes annuelles des établissemens coloniaux, depuis leur origine en 1822 jusqu'au 31 Décembre 1831, ont présenté les résultats suivans :

—			RECETTES.	DEPENSES.
1822	-	-	70,600 55 $\frac{1}{2}$	61,200 23 $\frac{1}{2}$
1823	-	-	163,216 02 $\frac{1}{2}$	121,044 74 $\frac{1}{2}$
1824	-	-	151,299 76	188,662 38
1825	-	-	151,721 52	161,157 83 $\frac{1}{2}$
1826	-	-	252,348 31 $\frac{1}{2}$	221,345 80 $\frac{3}{4}$
1827	-	-	212,870 52 $\frac{1}{2}$	220,372 09 $\frac{1}{2}$
1828	-	-	186,885 14 $\frac{3}{4}$	205,810 67 $\frac{1}{2}$
1829	-	-	255,435 50 $\frac{1}{2}$	245,464 75
1830 †	-	-	155,784 79 $\frac{82}{100}$	168,134 71 $\frac{7}{100}$
1831	-	-	142,235 57 $\frac{1}{2}$	145,127 55 $\frac{1}{2}$
Total pendant 10 ans			1,742,397 71	1,738,330 58 $\frac{1}{2}$

Dans le chiffre des recettes est compris le montant des emprunts contracté par la Société, s'élevant à la somme de fl. 803,000. Sur cette somme, il a été remboursé 134,000 fl. ; de sorte que la Société demeure encore chargée d'une dette principale de fl. 669,000.

La somme que la Société devrait rembourser chaque année, pour satisfaire aux conditions de ces divers emprunts, est de fl. 37,000, non compris l'avance de 80,000 fl. faite par l'ex-roi, dont l'époque de remboursement n'a pas été fixée.

Les remboursemens se sont effectués, aux termes des contrats, jusqu'au 1 Octobre 1830 ; depuis cette époque ils ont été suspendus en partie, par suite des circonstances politiques et de la pénurie des ressources de la Société. On s'est contenté de payer les coupons des obligations dont les porteurs habitaient la Belgique : de sorte qu'au lieu de payer annuellement fl. 33,450, montant actuel des intérêts de la dette sociale, la commission permanente s'est bornée à ne payer annuellement de ce chef que la somme de fl. 6,475. Les autres obligations se trouvent dans des portefeuilles Hollandais, et entre les mains du roi Guillaume et du prince Frédéric des Pays-Bas.

Il résulte de là que les intérêts des emprunts dont les paiemens sont arriérés, depuis le 1 Octobre 1830 jusqu'au 1 Juillet 1832, s'élèvent à fl. 47,393. 98, non compris le remboursement des capitaux, montant à fl. 37,000 par an, et qui s'opère en suivant les conditions des contrats.

Non-seulement

* Le produit des contrats passés entre des hospices civils et la Société, pour l'entretien de personnes aux colonies libres, s'élève annuellement à fl. 1,400.

† Le compte-rendu pour 1830 ne comprend que 9 mois ; du 1^{er} Avril au 31 Décembre. Antérieurement à cet exercice, le compte annuel commençait le 31 Mars jusqu'au 1 Avril.

Non-seulement la Société n'a pu satisfaire aux engagements qu'elle avait contractés, mais encore elle n'a pu subvenir, particulièrement depuis deux ans, à toutes les dépenses relatives à l'administration et à l'entretien des colonies: la direction de ces établissemens était, le 1 Juillet 1832, débitrice envers divers créanciers d'une somme de fl. 49,627. 43, tant pour fournitures, livrées à crédit, que pour traitemens arriérés, dus à des employés.

En résumé, la dette totale de la Société s'élevait, au 1 Juillet 1832, à fl. 776,021. 41.

Dette principale	-	-	-	-	-	-	fl.	669,000	-
Intérêts arriérés des emprunts	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	47,393	98
Dû aux divers créanciers de la direction des colonies	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	49,627	43
							fl.	766,021	41

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La valeur approximative des objets, tant immeubles que meubles, appartenant à la Société, au 31 Décembre 1831, s'élevait à fl. 511,250, savoir:

129 petites fermes (colonies libres 1 et 2)	-	-	-	-	-	fl.	66,125
4 bâtimens centraux (ditto)	-	-	-	-	-	-	6,200
Bâtiment de dépôt pour 1,000 mendiants	-	-	-	-	-	-	78,600
4 grandes fermes (colonie de répression)	-	-	-	-	-	-	10,000
Plusieurs bergeries	-	-	-	-	-	-	5,400
310 bonniers de terres en plein rapport estimés à 600 fl. le bonnier	-	-	-	-	-	-	186,000
128 — plantés en sapins	-	-	400	le bonnier	-	-	51,200
135 — — dito	-	-	250	—	-	-	33,750
3 — pour la pépinière	-	-	400	—	-	-	1,200
4 — de genêts	-	-	250	—	-	-	1,000
492 — de bruyères	-	-	15	—	-	-	7,380

1,072 bonniers.

Les bois taillis qui entourent les champs, et les arbres et arbrisseaux qui bordent les routes, estimés approximativement à	-	-	-	-	-	31,000
Bétail, meubles de ferme, ustensiles aratoires, etc., aux colonies 1 et 2	-	-	-	-	-	9,716
Dito, à la colonie 3	-	-	-	-	-	9,783
Meubles du dépôt des mendiants, habillemens, objets en magasin, etc.	-	-	-	-	-	13,896
					fl.	511,250

La récolte sur pied, au 1 Juillet 1832, pouvait être estimée à fl. 25,000, ce qui porterait l'inventaire à cette époque à fl. 536,250.

En déduisant cette somme du montant de la dette à la même époque, on voit que la Société était, au 1 Juillet 1832, en déficit bien constaté de fl. 254,771. 41.

A côté de ce résultat positif, il serait difficile, si non impossible, de trouver des élémens sur lesquels on pourrait asseoir raisonnablement l'espoir, je ne dirai pas d'un bénéfice futur, mais seulement de l'entière extinction des dettes de la Société.

Cet espoir ne pourrait résulter que de la réduction progressive de la dépense, comparée au nombre des colons; de l'augmentation et de l'amélioration des produits des colonies; de la création de débouchés, etc. Le Tableau qui suit fera voir, par l'expérience du passé, ce que l'on a droit d'attendre, à cet égard, de l'avenir:

ANNEES.	Nombre des Colons Libres.	Mendiants.	SOMMES dépensées aux Colonies †.	RECETTES Générales faites aux Colonies ‡.	VALEUR DES PRODUITS RECOLTES.		
					Colonies.		
					N° 1.	N° 2.	N° 3.
1822	127	-	38,899 50	—	—	—	—
1823	406	-	93,532 07	—	—	—	—
1824	536	-	106,102 72	12,339 31	—	—	—
1825	579	490*	102,983 73	25,740 74	—	—	—
1826	563	846	163,933 45	56,476 88	8,852 79	2,128 26	12,389 02
1827	532	899	168,754 61	50,677 38	5,495 25	1,817 16	16,221 98
1828	550	774	144,645 28	54,994 62	9,937 01	1,956 01	18,411 99
1829	565	703	174,611 44	98,523 57	9,721 38	2,982 15	20,111 50
1830	546	598	127,358 72	67,718 72	9,869 43	2,884 66	13,989 53
1831	517	465	135,405 81	82,578 81	10,805 09	4,463 56	17,740 68

* Pendant les quatre derniers mois.

† Dans ces sommes, ne sont pas compris les appointemens des employés supérieurs, les frais de bureau de la commission permanente, les assurances contre l'incendie, les paiemens faits par la commission permanente. Elles ne comprennent que les fonds remis au directeur pour le service courant des colonies.

‡ Ces recettes comprennent le produit des bestiaux, de la boulangerie, de la boutique; les retenues faites aux colons, etc.

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En ajoutant aux fl. 135,405. 81 envoyés aux colonies en 1831, les dépenses faites par la commission permanente à Bruxelles, pour paiement d'appointemens aux employés de l'administration centrale, frais de bureau, assurance contre l'incendie, intérêts à des prêteurs Belges, etc., s'élevant à fl. 9,721. 74,

On aura, pour 1831, un totale de dépenses générales de - - fl.	145,127 55
La recette de la même année a été de - - - - -	82,578 81
De sorte qu'il y a eu un excédant de dépenses de - - fl.	62,548 74

Et remarquez encore, que dans le chiffre des dépenses ne sont compris, ni le paiement des intérêts des emprunts, ni le remboursement d'une partie de ces emprunts, ni les dettes contractées en 1831 pour le service des colonies, vu l'insuffisance des fonds mis à la disposition de la direction.

C'est à cet excédant des dépenses sur les recettes qu'il s'agit de pourvoir, et pour cette année et pour l'avenir.

Aurait-on recours à cet effet aux emprunts? mais cette ressource est plus qu'épuisée; les garanties manquent; le protectorat a disparu; les terres et les bâtimens, les meubles et les immeubles, sont déjà chargés d'une dette qui dépasse de beaucoup leur valeur, et qui va chaque jour en s'accroissant: quelle hypothèque offrirait-on désormais aux prêteurs?

Compte-t-on sur les souscriptions, les dons volontaires des particuliers? mais le nombre des souscripteurs a jusqu'ici été en décroissant*. La foi dans l'œuvre entreprise par la Société a disparu ou s'est refroidie; on réussira difficilement à ranimer l'intérêt du public en faveur d'une institution en décadence.

Espère-t-on peut-être que l'état des colonies deviendra avec le tems de plus en plus prospère, que les nombreux bonniers exploités ou à exploiter finiront par être en plein rapport, et suffiront alors à la nourriture des habitans des colonies qui paieront la Société par leur travail? Mais ce bien-être futur est bien hypothétique; l'expérience qui devrait nous mettre à même de porter un jugement motivé à cet égard nous manque, ou dépose contre des résultats qu'on ne peut nous montrer que dans un avenir éloigné et incertain.

Se reposera-t-on sur le gouvernement du soin de soutenir les colonies? mais les sacrifices qu'il s'impose en faveur de ces établissemens sont déjà bien considérables, eu égard surtout aux faibles avantages qu'il en retire. En effet, en réduisant de moitié le nombre des mendiens qu'il aurait droit d'envoyer à la colonie de répression, aux termes de son contrat, il a diminué les charges de la Société et augmenté d'autant les siennes. Il a continué à payer, en 1831, la somme de fl. 35,000 pour l'entretien de quatre cent soixante-cinq mendiens valides, ce qui fait par tête fl. 78 annuellement, ou près de 22 cents par jour; tandis que les mendiens invalides, qui demeurent oisifs dans les dépôts, ne coûtent au plus que 16 à 17 cents par journée d'entretien. Et en supposant même que le gouvernement consente à accorder un subside additionnel aux établissemens coloniaux, dans aucun cas ce subside ne couvrirait l'excédant très-constaté des dépenses sur les recettes.

Cependant les besoins sont pressans; le deficit est là; il est positif: loin de s'améliorer, la position de la Société deviendra plus critique encore lorsqu'il lui faudra aviser aux moyens de payer les intérêts de sa dette avec l'arriéré dû aux prêteurs Hollandais, et d'effectuer les remboursemens aux termes des engagemens contractés.

L'ancien gouvernement avait bien compris tout ce que cette position avait de fâcheux; aussi, dans l'intérêt de la Société, et plus peut-être encore dans l'intérêt des protecteurs qui avaient garanti les emprunts, avait-il conçu un projet d'extension à donner aux entreprises de la Société, calculé de manière à la mettre à même de faire face, au moins pour un certain tems, à ses nombreuses obligations.

Ce projet consistait à supprimer tous les dépôts de mendicité dans nos provinces, et à en placer la population dans les établissemens coloniaux, en payant chaque année:

fl. 35 00	pour un individu valide.
72 50	- dito - - invalide.
65 00	pour un enfant au dessous de 13 ans.
85 00	pour un aveugle.
15 00	pour l'équipement de chaque individu à son entrée au dépôt de mendicité.

Les dépôts de mendicité ne renfermaient plus guère que des individus invalides; en évaluant leur nombre à trois mille, à raison de fl. 72.50 par tête et par an, la Société aurait reçu, de ce chef seulement, une somme annuelle de fl. 217,500.

Quant aux mendiens valides qui pouvaient encore se trouver dans les dépôts, ils auraient complété le nombre de mille individus, pour lesquels le gouvernement avait déjà contracté avec la Société de Bienfaisance.

Grâce

* Produit des souscriptions volontaires au profit de la Société de Bienfaisance:

1823	-	-	-	27,001	15	1828	-	-	-	28,578	66
1824	-	-	-	29,682	-	1829	-	-	-	23,005	82
1825	-	-	-	26,446	41	1830	-	-	-	11,463	72
1826	-	-	-	34,957	16	1831	-	-	-	6,698	78
1827	-	-	-	28,510	70						

Grâce à ce projet, les recettes des établissemens coloniaux devaient s'élever annuellement à fl. 280,500 pour l'admission de quatre mille cinq cents individus, tandis que les dépenses n'auraient pas dépassé fl. 278,125.

Il est vrai de dire cependant que la mise à exécution de ce projet nécessitait un nouvel emprunt de fl. 300,000, ce qui aurait porté la dette des colonies agricoles à près d'un million de florins.

Il serait tout au moins inutile, je pense, de discuter le projet d'extension à donner aux opérations de la Société de Bienfaisance, conçu par l'ancien gouvernement. L'agglomération de toute la population indigente, disséminée aujourd'hui dans les dépôts, aurait été une entreprise, non-seulement onéreuse, mais encore en opposition directe avec le but principal, les règles fondamentales de la charité administrative : soulagement de l'indigence opéré autant que possible sans déplacement des indigens, efforts constans pour rendre les particuliers et les associations locales capables d'exercer la charité sans tutelle, et abdication volontaire de la part du gouvernement le jour où l'émancipation devient possible.

Au mal signalé il importe de trouver un remède plus efficace ; peut-être le rencontrerons-nous, en remontant aux causes qui devaient amener ou tout au moins hâter la décadence des établissemens coloniaux.

Lorsqu'il s'est agi de fonder les colonies, il y avait, ce me semble, de graves questions à soulever et à résoudre avant de prendre à cet égard une décision définitive. Il importait d'examiner si les frais de l'entreprise n'auraient pas dépassé ses bénéfices probables ; s'il n'était pas préférable d'abandonner cette entreprise à l'intérêt, ordinairement mieux entendu, des particuliers ; si les sommes destinées au défrichement des bruyères, à l'aide des bras indigens, ne pouvaient pas recevoir un emploi plus utile, plus favorable à la réforme et à l'émancipation successive de cette même classe indigente.

Ensuite, en admettant que le principe de l'institution des colonies agricoles eût triomphé des objections, il fallait agir avec prudence, avancer lentement pour atteindre plus sûrement le but proposé.

Mais on fut séduit par l'apparence de prospérité des colonies Hollandaises ; on crut pouvoir imiter un essai comme on aurait profité d'une expérience acquise par un succès longuement constaté. L'exploitation fut donc entreprise sur une vaste échelle ; on partagea le terrain, avec une régularité toute géométrique, d'après un plan tracé dans le cabinet, sans aucun égard pour la qualité des terres ; chaque lot des trois bonniers et demi eut sa ferme, et chaque ferme fut construite de la même manière, eut la même dimension, comme si toutes les familles des colons admis devaient justement être composées d'un nombre d'individus proportionné à l'uniformité des habitations.

Le résultat de cette manière de procéder était facile à prévoir ; isolées à l'extrémité d'une province, sans moyens de communication et de transport, les colonies nouvelles durent nécessairement manquer d'engrais suffisans pour une exploitation d'une aussi vaste étendue, et de débouchés pour l'écoulement régulier de leurs produits. Sur un total de mille soixante-douze bonniers de bruyères, il n'y en a encore que trois cent dix mis en culture ; on en a planté deux cent quatre-vingt-neuf en sapins, et les quatre cent quatre-vingt-huit restans sont encore incultes. Plusieurs fermes demeurent inhabitées, soit à cause de la stérilité du terrain sur lequel elles avaient été construites à grands frais, soit à cause du manque de colons. Au 1^{er} Juillet 1832, cinquante-six fermes seulement sur soixante-dix étaient occupées dans la colonie libre N^o 1, et vingt sur cinquante-cinq dans la colonie N^o 2 ; le capital employé à la construction de quarante-neuf fermes reste donc improductif, et décroît chaque année par la détérioration des bâtimens abandonnés.

Quelques familles, égales ou inférieures en nombre, pouvaient, ou par une plus grande aptitude aux travaux des champs, ou par plus d'activité et de zèle, être plus capables d'exploiter une grande ferme que les autres ; la possibilité et l'espoir de passer d'une ferme plus petite à une plus grande eût été un stimulant et une récompense pour toutes les familles. La règle d'uniformité adoptée pour la répartition des lots fut une occasion de calamité pour les colons incapables ou paresseux, et enleva une source puissante d'émulation aux colons plus aptes et plus laborieux.

Mais ces inconvéniens n'étaient rien encore à côté des inconvéniens résultant de l'admission aux colonies de familles qui, arrivant des villes, ignoraient les travaux de l'agriculture, et n'étaient pas habituées à la vie réglée des champs.

Au commencement de l'établissement des colonies libres, chaque famille de colons était indistinctement admise à cultiver les trois bonniers et demi de terre qui entouraient son habitation, et en retirait à son profit la moisson et le fourrage pour la nourriture de deux vaches et des moutons que la Société lui fournissait, lors de son admission dans ses établissemens. Elle fournissait de même tout ce qui pouvait manquer à ces familles, tant pour leurs vêtemens et leur subsistance, que pour la nourriture de leur bétail. Ces avances étaient portées au compte du chef de la famille, et, comme on devait s'y attendre, occasionèrent une dette énorme, qui augmentait chaque jour, et qui eût causé la ruine de la Société, sans même que les grands sacrifices qu'elle faisait pour la prospérité de ses colonies lui donnassent l'espoir d'atteindre la moindre partie du but de ses vues bienfaisantes.

Il résulta donc de l'erreur faite dans le mode d'admission des colons libres, une dépense considérable pour la Société, sans aucun bien-être réel pour les colons : le bétail qui leur était confié périssait faute de soins et de nourriture ; leur terrain était mal cultivé, malgré la surveillance qu'exerçait à cet égard la direction des colonies. Enfin la mécontentement général aurait peut-être causé de grands désordres dans ces établissemens, si la Société ne s'était rendue, en 1828, à l'avis du capitaine Van den Bosch, inspecteur des colonies, en changeant les vices d'administration qu'une expérience chèrement acquise avait fait

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decouvrir, et en suivant, autant que possible, pour les colonies libres, le système plus avantageux introduit dans la colonie pour la répression de la mendicité.

D'après ce changement, le bétail, dont l'entretien causait particulièrement la dette considérable des colons libres, fut repris par la Société, et placé dans des étables, à des distances calculées de manière à diviser l'engrais nécessaire aux différentes parties de terrain; on employa les colons à la journée, sous les ordres de la direction, pour tous les travaux des champs. Chaque famille de colons libres gagne ainsi de 3 à 7 florins par semaine, et même quelquefois plus, à proportion du nombre des personnes qui composent la famille; la moisson appartient à la Société, et sert à approvisionner ses magasins.

C'est dans ces magasins et dans les boutiques établies par la Société, que les colons se procurent tout ce qui est nécessaire à leur nourriture, à leur habillement, et généralement à tous leurs besoins. Les colons émancipés seuls ne furent pas compris dans la nouvelle organisation, et continuèrent comme auparavant à diriger leurs fermes d'après leurs propres connaissances, à leurs risques et périls. Mais il est à remarquer que les obstacles contre lesquels ils ont à lutter sont tels que plusieurs familles qui avaient obtenu l'émancipation ont été obligées de rentrer sous la direction des colonies; il n'en reste plus que quatre qui jusqu'ici n'ont pas succombé sous le poids de ces obstacles.

Les principaux avantages que l'on a retirés de cette modification, apportée au principe constitutif des colonies libres, consistent en ce que les colons ne font plus de dettes, les terres sont mieux cultivées, et les vaches et les moutons convenablement nourris et entretenus. Mais si, d'une part, on a obtenu ainsi une amélioration relative, de l'autre, la Société s'est mise dans l'impossibilité d'atteindre le but primitif de son institution. En astreignant les familles des colons à se faire journaliers, et à cultiver les terres en commun, pour un temps illimité, on s'est exposé à éteindre chez elles cet esprit d'émulation, cet attachement à la propriété individuelle, ce désir de l'améliorer et de l'embellir, qui seraient nés dans quelques-unes, si l'on avait pu laisser à chaque famille, à son entrée dans la colonie, le soin de cultiver une ferme en propre. Arrivé à la colonie avec l'espoir de devenir fermier et de demeurer indépendant, le colon doit se résigner à rester ouvrier et dépendant; la seule différence qui existe entre sa position et celle du mendiant reclus consiste en ce qu'il demeure en famille, et qu'il fait lui-même son petit ménage, tandis que les mendiants reclus habitent ensemble, et que l'on pourvoit pour eux à leur entretien.

Astreint ainsi à des obligations envers la Société, qui lui enlèvent la presque totalité de sa liberté, sans espoir d'affranchissement pour l'avenir, le sort de l'habitant des colonies dites libres est assez semblable à celui des serfs du moyen âge et des paysans Russes; il est un peu moins avantageux que celui des paysans de l'Irlande, qui, s'ils n'ont souvent, comme lui, que des pommes de terre et du pain grossier pour assouvir leur faim, ont du moins la faculté de pouvoir disposer librement de leurs actions, de se déplacer et d'émigrer, lorsque bon leur semble.

De même que le mode d'exploitation adopté d'abord a nui aux colons, de même aussi la condition actuelle de la population coloniale sera un obstacle permanent à la prospérité des établissements agricoles. Il doit y avoir, là, la même différence qu'ailleurs, entre le travail de l'homme libre et celui de l'esclave; jamais l'exploitation d'une terre en Russie n'équivaudra à l'exploitation d'une ferme Flamande. Avec des travailleurs énervés par le vice et la mendicité, les colonies agricoles ne pourront jamais donner des résultats aussi satisfaisants que ceux que l'on obtiendrait avec des travailleurs exercés, laborieux, qui seraient directement intéressés au succès de leurs travaux.

Certes à des vices aussi nombreux, aussi radicaux, il serait tout au moins présomptueux de vouloir assigner un remède efficace, surtout en conservant aux colonies leur destination actuelle; c'est, je pense, cette destination qu'il faudrait modifier d'abord avant d'introduire les réformes dont l'expérience aura indiqué la nécessité.

Les colonies agricoles sont encore aujourd'hui distinguées, au moins de nom, en colonies libres et colonies forcées. Avant la révolution, la colonie libre était plus spécialement soutenue à l'aide des dons et des souscriptions volontaires, et la colonie forcée à l'aide du subside annuel du gouvernement. Les emprunts pourvoyaient indistinctement aux besoins des deux établissements. Depuis la révolution, le fonds destiné au soutien des colonies est devenu commun; l'allocation de 35,000 florins accordée pour l'entretien de mille mendiants au dépôt est également affectée à l'entretien des colons libres. Je ne vois pas, dès-lors, ce qui pourrait s'opposer à ce que les deux colonies fussent réunies en une seule, sous une même dénomination, avec une administration commune, et courussent les chances d'un même avenir.

Cette réunion faciliterait les moyens de substituer à la règle actuelle pour l'envoi et l'admission des indigens et des mendiants à la colonie, une règle nouvelle, mieux en harmonie avec les intérêts et les besoins véritables de la Société et de la population indigente dont le soulagement fait l'objet de ses efforts.

Il importerait d'abord, je pense, d'aviser aux moyens de renvoyer à leurs communes les colons libres, peu aptes aux travaux agricoles, dont la Société n'a pas de services à attendre, et envers lesquels elle n'est pas liée par un contrat. Sur soixante-seize familles, placées aux colonies libres, douze seulement l'ont été en vertu de contrats; ces douze familles ont jusqu'ici un droit à invoquer, auquel cependant elles peuvent renoncer volontairement, ou que la Société peut racheter avec leur consentement. Quant aux autres, la plupart habitaient des villes où elles exerçaient des métiers qu'elles pourront reprendre, et qui, le plus souvent, leur procureront des moyens d'existence plus abondants que ceux qu'elles possèdent aujourd'hui.

Un septième environ de la population du dépôt est composé d'invalides; ces invalides

coûtent à la Société sans rien lui rapporter; c'est une charge pour elle, au lieu d'un bénéfice; aux termes du contrat de 1823, la Société a droit de les renvoyer; on pourra leur donner asile dans les dépôts provinciaux.

Sous l'ancien gouvernement, tous les mendiants valides pouvaient indistinctement être envoyés à la colonie de répression; mais, en arrachant ainsi ces malheureux au lieu de leur domicile, en les exilant en quelque sorte à l'extrémité du royaume, en les séparant de leurs familles, en les isolant loin de leurs soutiens naturels, on fermait la porte à l'humanité et à la bienfaisance, pour l'ouvrir à l'arbitraire le plus illimité; il s'ensuivait presque toujours pour l'état ou pour les communes une charge onéreuse et perpétuelle, alors qu'une avance modique et temporaire eût remédié beaucoup plus efficacement aux maux que l'on voulait prévenir ou soulager. En effet, on n'a vu que bien rarement, je pense, un mendiant, après avoir été séquestré à la colonie, revenir se placer parmi ses concitoyens, artisan laborieux, homme indépendant. Le plus souvent il n'existe plus pour lui de domicile; ses relations de famille sont rompues ou oubliées, et, s'il obtient sa mise en liberté, c'est en quelque sorte sous la condition de venir se reconstituer reclus, après avoir épuisé en quelques jours la faible somme d'argent qu'il est parvenu à recueillir à l'aide d'un travail de plusieurs mois et même de plusieurs années. Ces considérations ont déterminé le gouvernement actuel à suspendre provisoirement tout transport de mendiants et d'indigens valides des dépôts de mendicité à la colonie de répression.

D'un autre côté plusieurs communes, invoquant l'art. 2 du décret organique du 5 Juillet 1808, relatif aux dépôts de mendicité, qui dit que les mendiants de chaque département doivent être conduits dans le dépôt de mendicité du dit département, ont refusé et refusent encore de payer les frais d'entretien de leurs mendiants reclus à la colonie de Merxplas.

Il est facile de prévoir, d'après ce qui précède, que la population des colonies, au lieu de croître, ira en diminuant. Elle était en 1827 de 1,431 individus; elle n'était plus au 31 Décembre 1831 que de 982; et ce nombre a encore été sensiblement réduit depuis. Après le renvoi des colons libres incurables, des mendiants invalides, et des mendiants valides, dont les communes refuseraient de payer l'entretien, ou dont elles réclameraient le transport dans les dépôts provinciaux, il n'y aura probablement plus assez de bras pour les travaux ordinaires de culture. Comment la Société s'y prendra-t-elle alors pour combler ce déficit et continuer l'exploitation de ses colonies?

Peut-on aussi raisonnablement supposer que le gouvernement se résigne non-seulement à continuer le paiement du subside annuel de 35,000 fl., mais encore à fournir un supplément quelconque pour soutenir un établissement qui ne serait plus désormais d'aucune utilité pour le pays, et pour préserver l'hypothèque de créanciers étrangers?

L'appui du gouvernement, ce me semble, ne peut être accordé aux colonies qu'à la condition d'une modification dans les réglemens et dans le but primitif de la Société; modification de nature à rendre aux établissemens agricoles l'utilité qu'ils ont perdue.

1^o En premier lieu, on pourrait continuer d'y envoyer les mendiants de profession en état de récidive et vagabonds, les individus, en un mot, qui, sans domicile et le plus souvent sans famille, n'auraient rien à perdre, et tout à gagner au contraire à cette sorte de relégation temporaire dans un établissement où l'on s'attacherait particulièrement à leur inculquer les idées d'ordre, les habitudes de travail et d'économie qui seules peuvent les mettre à même d'obtenir un rang dans la Société et de s'y rendre utiles.

2^o On admettrait à la colonie les détenus libérés qui, pour la plupart, poursuivis par le préjugé, repoussés par leurs parens ou par leurs communes, se voient dans la presque impossibilité de pourvoir à leur subsistance d'une manière honorable. En leur ouvrant ainsi un asile temporaire, jusqu'à ce que le souvenir de l'offense et de la punition qui l'a suivie, soit effacé, ou tout au moins affaibli, on tarirait la source la plus fréquente des récidives. Entrés volontairement à la colonie, les détenus libérés y jouiraient de toutes la liberté compatible avec l'ordre institué dans l'établissement. Cette sorte de quarantaine volontaire n'aurait aucun des inconvéniens signalés dans le régime des maisons de refuge, qui ne son effectivement que des prisons déguisées, où le condamné, après avoir déjà subi sa peine, est astreint à une nouvelle captivité.

3^o La colonie offre également toute facilité pour y fonder un établissement dont l'absence se fait vivement sentir aujourd'hui. Ce serait une prison spéciale, ou plutôt une école de réforme pour les jeunes délinquans âgés de moins de dix-huit ans, détenus provisoirement à Saint-Bernard et disséminés dans les autres prisons du royaume. Ils pourraient y recevoir une éducation tout à la fois morale, agricole et manufacturière, de manière à être mis à même, à leur départ de la colonie, d'exercer un état lucratif et de se conduire en bons citoyens.

4^o La colonie pourrait également offrir un asile et préparer une honorable carrière aux enfans trouvés, qui, sans domicile et sans parens connus, peuvent être, sans inconvénient, réunis dans un même établissement, quelle que soit d'ailleurs sa situation.

On peut estimer que l'entretien annuel de chaque enfant trouvé s'élève, à Anvers, à fl. 30; dans le Brabant, à fl. 37; dans les provinces de Namur, Flandre orientale, et Liège, à fl. 38; dans le Hainaut, à fl. 41; dans la Flandre occidentale, à fl. 44; dans le Limbourg, à fl. 56; et dans le Luxembourg, à fl. 58. On paie pour ces enfans, jusqu'à l'âge de douze ans; à partir de cette époque, ils restent ordinairement chez les cultivateurs avec lesquels on a contracté d'abord pour l'entretien de leurs premières années, et qui sont tenus de les entretenir à l'avenir, en retour du bénéfice qu'ils retirent de leur travail: ils reçoivent cependant des vêtemens jusqu'à dix-huit ans, âge de leur émancipation. Environ la moitié des enfans entrés dans les hospices y meurent, et le sixième est réclamé par les parens.

En Hollande, les enfans trouvés, dont l'entretien, à Amsterdam où se trouve le grand hospice, coûtait annuellement 96 fl. par tête, sont admis à la colonie de Veenhuyzen, moyen-

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nant une allocation de 45 fl. par enfant et par an ; payable seulement pendant le tems limité de seize années. Par chaque enfant on admet en outre un indigent ou un mendiant gratuitement. Le plus grand nombre des enfans trouvés envoyés à la colonie doit avoir au moins six ans accomplis ; cependant on en admet quelques-uns de deux à six ans. Ces enfans demeurent à la colonie jusqu'à dix-huit ans, époque à laquelle ils entrent dans l'armée, ou choisissent un état.

Les enfans trouvés que l'état jugerait à propos d'envoyer à la colonie, lorsqu'ils seraient en âge d'y rendre des services, devraient pouvoir, ainsi que les jeunes délinquans et les détenus libérés, être compris au nombre des mille individus que le gouvernement est en droit de placer, en vertu du contrat passé en 1823, et pour son subside annuel de 35,000 florins.

Indépendamment des individus que le gouvernement aurait droit d'envoyer à la colonie, la Société pourrait encore y admettre des indigens, des enfans abandonnés, des orphelins, par suite d'arrangemens qu'il lui serait loisible de pendre avec les communes et les établissemens de bienfaisance. Chacune de ces catégories de colons serait astreinte à des réglemens différens ; le traitement et le régime varieraient dans chaque division, et seraient, autant que possible, appropriés aux antécédens et aux besoins actuels des individus qui y seraient compris.

La colonie, ne formant plus désormais qu'une seule exploitation, pourrait être partagée en lots de dix, vingt et trente bonniers, que cultiveraient des agriculteurs libres et capables, sous la direction desquels on placerait un certain nombre de colons. On emploierait de préférence, en qualité de surveillans et de directeurs, les anciens colons libres qui seraient demeurés à l'établissement, et qui seraient reconnus aptes à remplir ces importantes fonctions.

On pourrait aussi donner à ferme, à des cultivateurs des environs, quelques lots de terrains, à charge d'employer pour leur culture les colons de l'établissement.

Pour utiliser les constructions et empêcher la détérioration des bâtimens, on devrait, autant que possible, répartir la population libre de la colonie dans les fermes qui ne seraient pas occupées par les surveillans, les chefs de l'exploitation et les fermiers. Comme en Hollande, on pourrait former des ménages d'enfans trouvés, d'orphelins, etc.

Pour stimuler le zèle des jeunes colons, il serait aussi utile peut-être d'affecter un lot de terrain à l'établissement d'une école d'industrie agricole, comme celle qui existe à Watezen, en Hollande, où l'on admettrait ceux de ces jeunes colons qui se distingueraient par leur aptitude et leur bonne conduite. Dans la petite colonie de Watezen il y a soixante orphelins qui apprennent la théorie de l'agriculture au moyen d'un maître, et la pratiquent en cultivant une ferme de quarante-quatre bonniers, partagés en champs cultivés, en pépinières et en pâturages. Le même maître leur enseigne en outre l'arpentage, l'histoire naturelle, la botanique, les mathématiques, la chimie, l'histoire du pays, leur explique la Bible, et leur fait faire des exercices gymnastiques ; ces orphelins sont destinés à devenir surveillans dans les colonies ordinaires ou libres. Cette colonie gagne à la Société environ 900 fl. par an.

Par suite des modifications introduites dans les statuts et le régime intérieur de l'établissement colonial, il est évident que le gouvernement devrait pouvoir participer à sa direction et exercer une surveillance plus active et plus continue qu'aujourd'hui sur les opérations de la Société. Tout ce qui concerne cette direction et cette surveillance pourrait faire l'objet d'un arrangement à conclure avec la commission permanente de la Société.

Grâce aux mutations introduites dans la population de la colonie, avec des colons jeunes et vigoureux au lieu de reclus éternels, avec un système d'encouragement bien entendu, avec une division et une direction plus rationnelle et plus favorable de l'exploitation agricole, avec l'extension que l'on donnerait certainement à l'industrie manufacturière, de manière à la faire, autant que possible, concourir au bien-être de la colonie et à l'amélioration du sort des colons, on obtiendrait, j'en suis convaincu, des résultats beaucoup plus favorables que ceux que l'on a obtenus jusqu'ici. Alors, mais alors seulement, le gouvernement aurait un intérêt direct à continuer le paiement de l'allocation annuelle de fl. 35,000, et même à accorder au besoin des subsides extraordinaires, proportionnés aux avantages qu'il retirerait de la nouvelle destination donnée à la colonie.

Les détails dans lesquels je suis entré sur l'organisation primitive des établissemens de Wortel et de Merxplas, et sur les moyens de remédier aux vices de cette organisation, étaient indispensables pour bien faire apprécier leur situation actuelle.

L'expérience faite en Belgique exercera probablement quelque influence sur l'exécution du projet formé récemment par le ministre du commerce et des travaux publics en France, pour l'établissement de colonies agricoles dans ce dernier pays.

Cet établissement peut-être envisagé sous un double rapport, sous le rapport économique et sous le rapport moral.

Considérée sous le point de vue économique, la création de colonies agricoles devrait, ce me semble, être abandonnée d'abord à l'intérêt ordinairement bien entendue des particuliers ou de compagnies qui se formeraient dans ce but. L'état, les communes ou les propriétaires qui ne seraient pas eux-mêmes cultivateurs, pourraient céder les terrains à défricher à des colons qui se présenteraient volontairement à cet effet, et qui obtiendraient la jouissance de ces terrains gratuitement, d'abord à charge de les mettre en valeur, puis moyennant une rente proportionnée au produit croissant de l'exploitation. C'est ainsi que les abbayes et les anciens possesseurs de fiefs ont fait défricher jadis d'immenses propriétés.

Sans provoquer directement le défrichement des terres incultes, l'état pourrait néanmoins alléger les charges des cultivateurs, en exemptant ces terres de toute contribution pendant un certain nombre d'années, jusqu'à l'époque de leur entière mise en rapport. Il pourrait aussi ouvrir des communications pour faciliter les transports et créer des débouchés pour l'écoulement des produits des exploitations nouvelles.

Que

Que si, malgré ces encouragemens, les particuliers ni les associations ne jugeaient à propos d'entreprendre des défrichemens, cela pourrait dépendre de plusieurs causes :

De ce que les terrains incultes sont, par leur situation ou leur qualité, hors d'état d'être mis en culture ou de payer l'intérêt des sommes employées aux défrichement ;

De ce que les capitaux trouvent un emploi plus utile, plus lucratif que celui qu'ils recevraient si on les consacrait à exploiter des bruyères ;

Ou bien de ce que la population, à peu près de niveau avec les produits de la terre, ne réclame pas encore impérieusement une augmentation de ces produits.

Dans aucun de ces cas, je ne conseillerais au gouvernement d'entreprendre l'œuvre devant laquelle reculeraient les particuliers et les associations.

Mais il peut arriver que l'ignorance et le préjugé prévalent dans certaines localités sur l'intérêt bien entendu du pays et des propriétaires des terres incultes eux-mêmes ; il peut arriver aussi que le but moral l'emporte sur le but économique, et que l'exploitation de certaines parties de bruyères soit de nature à être considéré moins comme une spéculation que comme une œuvre de bienfaisance ou de politique. Alors, mais alors seulement, le gouvernement peut se croire appelé à intervenir plus directement, et quelquefois même exclusivement, dans l'établissement de colonies agricoles.

Pour que cet établissement, dans ce cas, ait des chances de succès, il est indispensable d'avoir égard aux conditions suivantes :

1^o Les terrains doivent être aussi bien choisis que possible ; il ne faut pas que l'on s'expose, comme en Belgique, à construire des fermes d'exploitation sur une terre tout-à-fait stérile ou bonne tout au plus à être convertie en plantations de sapins et de genêts. Il conviendrait même, avant d'entreprendre des constructions coûteuses, de s'occuper des premiers travaux de défrichement.

2^o Les terrains à défricher doivent être divisés de manière à faciliter autant que possible la culture, et à l'opérer d'une manière économique ; on partagera l'exploitation en fermes de différentes grandeurs, et l'on évitera ainsi les inconvéniens de la division symétrique, qui a été l'une des causes de la décadence de la colonie de Wortel.

3^o On encouragera les colons, en leur offrant l'espoir et les moyens d'améliorer progressivement leur condition : aux uns, on pourra accorder, au bout d'un certain tems, et à certaines conditions, la ferme et même la propriété des terrains qu'ils auront mis en rapport ; aux autres, on inculquera des habitudes d'ordre, de travail, qui contribueront à les faire rentrer dans la société citoyens utiles, ouvriers laborieux.

4^o Pour peupler les colonies, on ne déplacera pas, comme on l'a fait en Belgique, l'indigent qui a une famille, un domicile, pour le transporter à l'extrémité du pays ; on ne transformera pas les colonies en prisons, et les colons en criminels et en esclaves ; on ne fera pas de ces établissemens charitables les auxiliaires et les soutiens de la législation répressive de la mendicité, législation qui viole de la manière la plus monstrueuse le principe sacré de la liberté individuelle. On y admettra de préférence les individus qui, sans domicile actuel, sans famille, n'ont aucun intérêt à résider dans tel endroit plutôt que dans tel autre ; des hommes, des adolescens aptes aux travaux des champs. Elles serviront d'écoles de réforme aux jeunes délinquans, d'asile aux détenus libérés, de lieu de correction et d'épreuve aux mendiens de profession et aux vagabonds, de pension aux enfans trouvés, lorsqu'ils auront atteint l'âge de se rendre utiles. Des colons libres, des surveillans entendus, des cultivateurs auxquels on pourrait donner à ferme certaines parties de l'exploitation, serviront de guides et d'instructeurs à cette population qui, d'ailleurs devisée par catégories, sera dirigée avec ensemble, sans froisser aucun intérêt, vers un même but d'amélioration et de progrès.

Ed. Ducpétiaux,

Inspecteur-général des Prisons et des
Institutions de Bienfaisance de la Belgique.

Bruxelles, le 10 Décembre 1832.

ANTWERP.

ANSWERS to the QUERIES of the POOR LAW COMMISSIONERS ; enclosed in *Baron de Hocheplé Larpent's* Despatch of 21st July 1834.

Antwerp.

VAGRANTS.

1. UNDER the French Government mendicity was extirpated in Belgium by an Act of the National Convention, dated the 24th Vendemiaire, an^o 2, which dispositions have been maintained by later Acts.

There are no vagrants (that may be called such), neither in Antwerp nor in the whole kingdom ; and those that are found begging are arrested as vagabonds, and are prosecuted as such according to the Articles 269 to 282 of the code penal ; and at the expiration of their penalty are conducted to the free colony of repression, if able-bodied and fit for agriculture, or to the depôts of mendicity, if invalid.

By a Royal Arrêté or Act of the 24th March 1824, the foreign vagrants who have not obtained domicile in the country, and received relief there, must, immediately after their arrestation, be sent beyond the frontiers, (as a banishment).

2. The indigent travellers, foreigners or denizens, who pass through Antwerp, are received there at an establishment called St. Julien's Hospital, where they are lodged and boarded for three nights at the expense of the establishment, which provides their wants for the moment.

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The foundation of this hospital, which yearly receives about 1,000 individuals, dates from the beginning of the 14th century. It subsists by itself, under the direction of a private charitable administration, by means of some fixed revenues, and also by the liberal donations of philanthropic persons.

The same poor travellers, when Belgians, receive at Antwerp an indemnity of 15 centimes, or 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. sterling per league and per head for travelling expenses to the first town in the neighbourhood, where this relief is continued to them. These travelling expenses are at the charge of the town, and paid out of the municipal funds, in virtue of a Royal Act of the 10th May 1815. The foreign poor travellers are sent to their Consuls to obtain the necessary relief to continue their journey.

DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

1. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they, or any part of their families, billeted or quartered on householders? 2. Or boarded with individuals?—These questions are not at all applicable to Belgium, where soldiers alone are billeted or quartered with the inhabitants in places where no barracks exist to quarter them in.

Necessitous individuals of the labouring and indigent class, who do not attempt to go a begging, and who, for want of work, are without means of providing for the necessities of life, and also the members of their families, are provided for at their own dwellings, by the care of the Bureau de Bienfaisance, by the means or revenues of this establishment, and the subsidies which the town grants it yearly out of the municipal funds, in order to supply what may be necessary to continue its service. The amount of this grant varies annually, according to the real wants of the establishment, by reason of the circumstances that either augment or reduce its expenses.

The succours distributed by this establishment consist in money, bread, potatoes, fuel and clothing, &c.

Besides, there exists at Antwerp, under the direction of the same Bureau de Bienfaisance, a workhouse, where carpets of cow-hair and other articles are made. This workhouse is established especially to procure work to the indigent and working class who are without employ. The population of this establishment varies according to the different seasons and other circumstances. It is most frequented during the winter, when the navigation is interrupted, and the stagnation of several branches of industry cause the number of indigent to augment. Those who come to work in this establishment remain there the whole day, and receive their meals, besides a salary in cash, proportioned to the work they are employed at.

If, through the effects of a hard winter, the wants of the labouring and indigent class are excessive, there are formed at Antwerp private societies for relief, who, by means of donations, collections and voluntary subscriptions, efficaciously assist the unfortunate by distributions of money, food, fuel, &c.

3. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there district houses of industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families, and supplying them with food, clothes, &c., and in which they are set to work?—The dépôts of mendicity in Belgium are instituted by a Décret of 5th July 1808. Every province has its own. The one of the province of Antwerp is situated at Hoogstraeten, in an ancient manor bought for that purpose by the former department administration. It is a spacious establishment of agriculture, possessing a great number of acres of arable, pasture and wood land, and a still greater number of heath, (bruyère) which they cultivate successively to render it productive.

Those individuals who are destitute, and who desire to be admitted in this establishment, are received as free men; the vagrants are brought there by force. Both are employed there at sundry works of agriculture, of manufacture, or in the household establishment, according to their physical strength. The impotent and aged alone are kept without working in a separate place. Besides their food and clothing, those that work earn a salary, of which a part is retained to form a reserve fund, which is paid to them when they leave the establishment. Their sortie, or demission from this place, is granted to them on their demand, whenever they give the positive hopes that, in re-entering society, they will render themselves worthy of their liberty, by diligently endeavouring to gain their own livelihood by honest means, which this administration endeavours, by all means, to inculcate during the time they are in the dépôt.

As the number of individuals admitted (of which the greatest part are invalid or not able to work), is always out of proportion with the resources at the disposal of the dépôt for their maintenance, the additional expenses must be provided for. This additional expense has been covered by the execution of a Royal Arrêté or Act of the 12th October 1819, which orders this extra expense to be charged to the communes where the vagrants have their respective dwelling or domicile. This Domicile de Secours was established by a law of 28 November 1818.

The rate of the maintenance charge is not the same for every dépôt; but by an Arrêté of the Regent, dated 9th April 1831, the maximum rate has been fixed at 17 cents, or 36 centimes, (say 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. sterling) per head and per diem, instead of 15 cents, or about 32 centimes, (3 d. sterling) as it was fixed by the Royal Arrêté of 18th January 1823.

For several years the expense for the maintenance of individuals of the dépôt at Hoogstraeten has not amounted to more than 32 centimes per individual, (or 3 d. sterling).

On the 1st January 1834 the number of persons entertained at the provincial dépôt, on account of the city of Antwerp, was 153. The population of this establishment generally amounts to 250 or 300 individuals, all belonging to the province.

Following

Following the plan adopted in Holland, in the province of Drenthe, a charitable society was formed in Belgium in 1821, to establish a colony of agriculture, with the view to procure to indigent paupers the means of subsistence by their own labour, in rendering heath land (*bruyères*) productive by cultivation.

This colony has been established on a part of the territory of the communes or villages of Wortel, Merxplas and Ryckevorsel, situated in the district of Turnhout, which belongs to this province.

By means of a loan and a contract passed with the Government, and also by the produce of voluntary contributions, the society bought several thousand acres of heath, constructed a spacious building, as a central establishment, appropriated for the lodging of 1,000 to 1,200 individuals; built two large model farms, and a great number of small farms. It is to this colony that are sent the able-bodied vagrants, to be kept there until they are considered fit to return again into society, and to mix with the general population, gain their livelihood, and employ themselves in agriculture.

The indigent paupers who have maintained a good conduct, and who express their desire to fix themselves permanently in the colony, obtain the use of a small farm, with the land adjoining it, and the necessary instruments to cultivate it. All that the society furnishes to the settlers for their maintenance, such as food, clothing, furniture, utensils, &c., is considered as an advance made to them, and becomes their property, after having repaid, by their work, the amount of it, which payments are made from time to time at their convenience. They have only the use or occupation of the land and farm, buildings, &c., which they cultivate as tenants, the whole remaining the property of the society.

In this colony the maintenance expense amounts to 35 florins, or 73 fr. 07 c., (2 l. 18 s. 4 d. sterling) per year and per head. These expenses are at the charge of the towns or villages where the individuals have their *Domicile de Secours*.

4. Do any religious institutions give assistance to the destitute, by receiving them as inmates, or by giving them alms? 5. Is work provided at their own dwellings for those who have trades, but do not procure work for themselves? 6. Is work provided for such persons in agriculture or on public works? 7. Are fuel, clothing or money distributed to such persons or their families?—These questions are not applicable to Belgium, or at least not to the province of Antwerp.

Those persons who have a trade at their own dwelling, and who actively attend the work which is procured to them, such as weavers, cotton-spinners, lace-makers, (*dentellières*), &c., are relieved by the *Bureau de Bienfaisance*, if the produce of their work is found insufficient to enable them to entertain their families. It is the same rule with regard to individuals who are without work, and who cannot procure any work, either direct or indirect.

The distributions of relief, in money, fuel, &c., are always proportioned to the real wants of each household.

As to those who neglect to procure themselves work, or who will not work, although they have the opportunity of gaining sufficient money to procure themselves honestly the necessities of life, it would be encouraging idleness and all the vices it engenders, if relief was allowed to such individuals. Such persons are consequently few in number, because, for want of relief from any institution, they have no other means of living than by mendicity, vagabondage or stealing; and these offences soon conduct them, either to the *depôt* of mendicity, to the colony of agriculture, or a prison, three places where they never like to go to.

8. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they relieved by their children being taken into schools, and fed, clothed and educated, or apprenticed?—The children of the working class or indigent are received, without any distinction, in the public schools established gratis. Those children abandoned to the public charity, or of whom the parents are entirely unable to bring them up, and who request to be relieved of them from inability to maintain them, are sent to a hospital established for that purpose, or else placed in the country under the direction of the civil hospital, or the *Bureau de Bienfaisance*.

There exist at Antwerp three public schools for the poor, of which all the expenses are borne by the town. There are several others especially appointed for the instruction of girls of indigent parents, administered by a private society of ladies, who, by their liberal donations, provide for the expenses of these institutions.

There also exists in Belgium a great number of foundations of bourses d'étude, instituted by charitable persons in favour of young men who desire to study, (confined either to their relations or to natives of their place of birth), and for whom the parents have not the necessary means to provide for the expense of their study or education. These bourses, or purses, are given by the administrators or collectors of foundations for classical learning, or for medical study, or to study in law or theology, according to the special destination given by every founder.

9. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are the relatives of the destitute compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking charge of part of their families?—According to the law in force in Belgium no one is obliged to assist or succour a member of his family or relation, whatever may be their degree of relationship. But what the law does not enforce, humanity and charity supply; and it is very uncommon in Belgium to see a person who possesses fortune remain insensible to the distress and privations of a near relation, become unfortunate and destitute by the effects of accidents entirely independent of his will, which he could not prevent. This case is quite the reverse with parents in regard to their children, even the illegitimate, as will be explained further.

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10. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they assisted by loans?—This article is not applicable to Belgium, and especially to the city of Antwerp.

IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

1. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there alms-houses or other institutions for the reception of those who, through age, are incapable of earning their subsistence? 2. Is relief in food, fuel, clothing or money afforded them at their homes? 3. Are they boarded with individuals? 4. Are they quartered or billeted on the householders?—There are at Antwerp 26 private hospitals, founded and established for many centuries by charitable persons in favour of a stated number of aged persons, of both sexes, and of decent and respectable families; but in preference for members of the founders' family, and which persons, without being entirely destitute, have, notwithstanding, no sufficient means to provide for their subsistence. Those persons inhabit a small house in the hospital, where they keep their own household separately, and subsist by what they can earn personally by any hand-work, and by the weekly succour which they receive from the revenue of the foundation. These men and women reside in separate hospitals.

Destitute persons, of both sexes, who are impotent through age, but have not claims to be admitted into the before-mentioned private hospital, are maintained by the administrations of the poor, the sick, incurable and impotents, in the civil hospital, and the others in the country, where they are boarded with the farmers at the expenses of the public establishment of charity; that is to say, of the administration of the civil hospitals and Bureau de Bienfaisance. Besides, there is at Antwerp a special establishment as a refuge to the impotent through age, of decent and respectable families, who are without means of procuring a livelihood. This establishment is administered by a private society of christian charity, which provides for all the expenses of the institution, by donations and by private collections and gifts.

5. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking part of their families?—See the negative Answer to Question No. 9, of DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

SICK.

1. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there district institutions for the reception of the sick?—In Belgium every town has its civil hospital for the maintenance of destitute sick. That of Antwerp is open to all the unfortunate, without distinction, whenever their social position does not afford them the means of being attended by a physician at their dwellings, who are deemed proper objects for admission.

Are also admitted, in a private room in this hospital, (upon payment of a small daily retribution), all individuals who, although not entirely destitute, prefer to be treated in the hospital rather than at their own houses; such as men and female servants, who are commonly sent there by the persons who have them in their employ.

Indigent persons, born at Antwerp, are treated at the hospital at the expense of the establishment. Those who are not of the town, but are of the country, are treated there at the expense of the commune (town or village), where they have their Domicile de Secour (where they reside, and are relieved by the authorities.)

These expenses are fixed at the rate of 62 cents, or 1 franc 31 centimes (1 s. 0½ d. sterling) per diem, whatever may be the sickness. The expenses, for the treatment of foreigners, who have no residence of relief (Domicile de Secour) in the country, are repaid by government out of the treasury funds. The town provides for the insufficiency of the private revenue of this establishment, in the same manner as it does for the Bureau de Bienfaisance, by means of "subsidies in aid," paid out of the municipal funds. This amount of "subsidies" varies annually according to the wants of the administration of the hospital.

2. To what extent, and under what regulations, are surgical and medical relief afforded to the poor at their own homes?—Persons of the indigent and necessitous class, whose sickness or complaint is not severe enough to require their entering the hospital, receive medical and surgical relief at their own homes. To that effect, there are several physicians and surgeons appointed and attached to the Bureau de Bienfaisance, who give their assistance to the sick who require it, every one in the district or section for which he is appointed. These physicians and surgeons, who receive a fixed salary from the administration of the poor, also receive at their domicile, at fixed hours of the day, indigent persons who want to consult them on the state of their health; and it is on a ticket delivered by them, that such sick persons are received at the civil hospital. The Bureau de Bienfaisance also has a special pharmacy, situated in the centre of the town, where medicine is given gratis to the indigent, on a prescription signed by a physician of the poor establishment.

3. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick?—As it is already explained in the Answer to No. 1, concerning Destitute Able-bodied. The administration or direction of the Bureau de Bienfaisance procures to the indigent at their dwelling all the relief their situation requires. Besides, charitable persons contribute by their donations to alleviate the sufferings of these unhappy persons.

4. To what extent, and under what regulations, is assistance given to lying-in women at their homes, or in public establishments?—There is a special room at the civil hospital appointed

appointed and established for the women in child-bed. Women of the indigent and needy class, who desire it, are admitted in this place to be delivered at the expense of the establishment, if they belong to the town.

Those women that do not belong to the town, and the unmarried women, are also admitted there, but if they have the means to pay, they contribute the expense of their lying-in to the administration of the hospital; if not, these expenses, which are fixed at the rate of 25 florins, or 52 fr. 91 c. (2*l.* 1*s.* 8*d.* sterling), for the whole time of their stay in the hospital, are respectively charged to the towns or villages where they are domiciled for relief.

Those indigent and needy classes of women who lie-in in their houses, are attended there by the physicians and surgeons appointed for the poor, and of the administration of the Bureau de Bienfaisance, and receive all the relief which their situation requires. Besides, a private society of motherhood, composed of respectable and charitable ladies of this town, procures to the indigent women in child-bed special relief and care.

5. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick?—As to what regards the indigent sick, this article is already answered by the above Answers to Nos. 1, 2, 3 and 4. And as to the rich, there exists at Antwerp, and in the other principal towns of Belgium, a private religious institution of Black Nuns or Grey Nuns, of which the members consecrate their lives and existence in attending the sick at their homes, provided they receive their meals and a retribution per diem, which is paid to the community or convent. These nuns attend the sick of both sexes. There are also some men, old members of a religious association, called Frères Cérites, who also devote themselves to attend the sick men; but these friars are become few in number, by the suppression of their religious order in the time of the French domination.

CHILDREN :

Illegitimate, Orphans, Foundlings, or Deserted Children.

1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall; wholly upon the mothers, or wholly upon the fathers; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations?—The rights of illegitimate children on the property of their father and mother are fixed by the Code Civil (Civil Law Book).

By the Articles 762 and 763 of this code, it being stated that children born in adultery, or from incestuous connexion, have a right to their food, which is fixed according to the means of the father and mother, and the number and quality of the legitimate heirs; so much the more the father and mother of an illegitimate child are bound to provide it with food and maintenance, at least until it is able to provide for itself.

But the fathers and mothers of illegitimate children who have the means, are commonly not those persons who abandon them to the public charity. If the mother has not the means, the father, if he has any resource, furnishes mostly the subsistence for the child; whereas the mother, even when she is abandoned by the father, takes care of her child if she only has the least resource, and her misconduct has not already extinguished in her all the feelings of nature.

These observations apply to fathers of illegitimate children who have acknowledged the paternity. But by the law, the woman alone is held responsible for their maintenance, as a woman cannot swear a bastard to a man as in England.

2. To what extent, and under what regulations, are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards?—There is no law in Belgium that compels the relatives of the father or mother of such children to contribute to their maintenance.

Whereas it is impossible to verify the legitimacy or illegitimacy of foundlings; those abandoned to the public charity in Belgium are divided into two classes, foundlings and abandoned children. The foundlings are those who have been deserted, and whose parents are unknown, or those that are abandoned by unmarried women (Filles Mères), and the abandoned children are those who have been abandoned by their parents, in whom extreme misery has eradicated the feelings of nature.

In this last class are also included the children abandoned to the public charity through the death of their indigent parents.

The articles 347 and 353 of the Code Penal (Criminal Code) inflict severe punishment against those who expose or desert children.

There are several laws (Arrêtés and Décrets) concerning the administration of foundlings and abandoned children.

The special Décret of 19 July 1811, forms the last legislation on this important head.

By this Décret, and former resolutions which are still in force in Belgium, this service is entrusted to the care of the administration of the civil hospitals.

These young children are boarded and entertained in a private hospital until their age admits of their being placed with the farmers or artisans.

At the time when this country was under the French government, the male children that had reached their 12th year, and who were able to serve, were to be placed at the disposal of the minister of the marine. This regulation is not executed in Belgium at present.

At Antwerp, all these children, without distinction of class, are placed as much as possible in the country, where the amount of their boarding decreases every year, as they become

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more or less useful to those with whom they are placed, and the administration of the hospital continues to provide them with clothing.

At the age of 16, the children who are able to provide for themselves are emancipated and dismissed by the administration of the hospital, who provide them with an employment as servants, &c. either with the same farmer with whom they boarded, or in some other town or village.

As long as the children are under the control of the hospital, the said administration keeps a strict and active inspection over them. A special inspector is appointed to ascertain, by his own experience, that the persons with whom such children are placed treat them with all the regard that their unfortunate situation requires, and that they are in want of nothing which is deemed necessary.

As to the impotent and disabled, who cannot be placed as before mentioned, and who are by their infirmities unable to provide for themselves, those continue to be maintained by the hospital.

The foundlings or abandoned children who are claimed by their father or mother are delivered up to them whenever they prove the identity. If the parents have the means, they reimburse the expenses of maintenance to this establishment; if they have not the means, they are given up to them gratis.

The expenses incurred for foundlings and abandoned children, whose parents are known to reside elsewhere than at Antwerp, are brought in account to the commune (town or village), where they have their Domicile de Secours, according to the law of 28th November 1818, and the Royal Act of the 1st August 1823.

The expenses of maintenance of abandoned children, whose parents are known to belong to the city of Antwerp, remain at the charge of the town. It is the same case with the foundlings whose parents are unknown, except that the town receives for this last class a "subsidy" in aid on the provincial funds, in virtue of a Royal Act of the 27th June 1823.

On the 1st January 1823, the number of abandoned children and foundlings entrusted to the care of the administration of the civil hospital at Antwerp, was - - - 1,250

Of which 661 domicile unknown, and 589 abandoned and belonging to the town of Antwerp.

Those admitted in 1833 - - - - - 120

Total - - - - - 1,370

Dismissed per emancipation, and restituted to their parents, during the same time - - - - - 152

Died - - - - ditto - - - - ditto - - - - 52

Remaining on the 1st January 1834 - - - - - 204
1,166

By the Budget de Recettes et Dépenses of this establishment for 1833, the expenses of maintenance was evaluated to the total amount of - - - - fr. 54,248 38 c.

These expenses have been provided for as follows; viz.

Subsides allowed by the province - - - - - fr. 30,000 -

The share of a subsidy allowed by the treasury to the town 10,950 -

Subsides of the municipal funds for balance - - - - 13,298 38

fr. 54,248 38

Every large town of Belgium has its hospital for foundlings and abandoned children. In the province of Antwerp there are only two establishments of that kind, one at Antwerp and one at Malines. In this last town the number of foundlings and abandoned children is much smaller than at Antwerp. In all the other towns and villages the maintenance of those children, which are very few in number, is entrusted to the care of the administrations of the Bureaux de Bienfaisance, who also place them with the farmers.

The orphans of genteel families, but without means, are placed in two private hospitals, one for the boys and one for girls. Those hospitals are ancient foundations, but of which the revenues are far from being sufficient to balance the expenses incurred by the number of orphans which they receive. The town grants supplies to it by a general subsidy in favour of the administration of the civil hospitals, which has the direction of it.

As soon as their age allows it, they are placed in apprenticeship with artisans of the town. They are lodged and boarded in the hospital; some of the eldest are especially appointed to attend burials; they carry the corpses from the houses to the church and from thence to the burial ground. This transport is done upon the payment of a tax, which profits the establishment, except a portion which the men receive. Besides, in the same hospital where the boys reside there is a general bakehouse established, which furnishes all the bread which is necessary for all the poor establishments, and which answers very well.

The girls learn in their hospital all the works which their sex require, such as sewing, knitting, &c. This establishment takes in needle-work, &c. for private account, of the produce of which the establishment benefits. All that these girls can earn thus by extra work, after the regular hours fixed for their day's work, is their private property, wherewith they form a purse or fund for themselves.

The

The children of both these establishments remain there until they can be conveniently placed, or that they are found able to gain their existence.

Besides these two hospitals, there exists at Antwerp a private foundation, under the name of Terninck's School.

This establishment, entirely independent of the administration of the poor, is administered by a special direction in conformity with the will of the founder.

This establishment is rich, and principally founded for the education and maintenance of girls, of whom the parents are, by misfortunes and unforeseen accidents, deprived of the means of giving their children a good education.

CRIPPLES.

The indigent cripples whom their infirmities render unable to provide for their subsistence, are assimilated to the impotent through age, &c., and treated in the same manner, as heretofore explained.

DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

There is no special establishment at Antwerp for deaf and dumb, nor blind. The unfortunate individuals of this class, especially the blind, are maintained by the administration of the civil hospital, or of the "Bureau de Bienfaisance," if they are indigent and left to themselves. If they reside with their parents, and these have not the means to provide for them, the Bureau de Bienfaisance allows relief.

At Ghent, there are two establishments for the education of the deaf and dumb; the one for boys, which is administered by a religious laïque association of Friars of the Christian Charity, and the other for the girls is governed by nuns, called Sœurs de Charité. These institutions, which exist since a few years, do not possess means enough to allow them to receive gratis children that are deaf and dumb, and those children are only admitted (very few excepted) by paying a yearly pension for their boarding, &c., which is at the charge of the parents, or the administrations of public charity that place them there.

There exists in Belgium no special institution for the blind.

IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

In Belgium, no distinction is made between idiots and lunatics. All the unfortunate individuals attacked by derangement are denominated senseless whenever they are entrusted to the administration of the poor.

In Belgium every town of some importance has its hospital for the senseless.

At Antwerp the senseless may be ranged into three distinct classes:

1. Those who possess personally more or less fortune, or of whom the parents are wealthy, are generally placed in boarding, &c. in a private institution, administered by persons who were formerly friars, named Frères Cérites, who have always taken charge and boarded, &c. the idiots, senseless and mad, upon a yearly or monthly payment, fixed by private agreement.

2. Those that only possess little property or means are commonly placed, upon their own account or that of their parents, in the village of Gheel, a large village situated in the district of Turnhout, where, since time immemorial, the greatest part of the inhabitants receive in board the unfortunate senseless which are entrusted to their care.

There the senseless enjoy all the liberty that can prudently be allowed to them. They are perfectly subdued, and acquire manners that very often cause them to be considered as members of the family with whom they reside.

3. Those that have no means, the indigent and needy, and especially the foreign individuals, are admitted at the hospital of the senseless, under the care of the administration of the civil hospitals.

The foregoing explanation concerning the mode of reimbursement of the expenses for maintenance of the persons admitted in the civil hospital, is also applicable to the hospital for the senseless, where the unfortunate who belong to the town of Antwerp are entertained at the expense of the establishment, and the others at the expense of the town or village where they have their Domicile de Secours, established by the law of the 28th November 1818.

On the 1st January 1832, there were in the Hospital of the Senseless, and in the establishment of the Frères Cérites, 189 individuals; 88 men and 101 women. The number of those pensioned at the Frères Cérites was 13.

Out of the number of 185, there on the 1st January 1831, 37 left the place cured; 14 men and 23 women.

Of the 189, who were there on the 1st January 1832, 59 were considered curable, and 130 as incurable; 98 of them were of a quiet conduct, and 91 more or less furious or mad.

The causes of the loss of sense of these 189 individuals were; viz.

- 37 hereditary, or by birth.
- 6 by the effects of severe illness.
- 5 the effects of old age.
- 2 by debauchery.
- 3 through drunkenness.
- 2 by the effects of political disturbance.
- 6 through religious "fanaticism."
- 6 through the effects of family grievances.
- 1 by the loss of fortune.
- 3 through ambition; and
- 118 of whom the real causes were unknown.

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.

BELGIUM.

Antwerp.

You are requested to state whether the receipt, or the expectation of relief, appears to produce any, and what effect,—1st, On the industry of the labourers? 2d, On their frugality? 3d, On the age at which they marry? 4th, On the mutual dependence and affection of parent, children, and other relatives?—The indigent persons relieved by the “Bureau de Bienfaisance” receive only the strict necessities of life to feed and support their families, and no more, so that they have nothing to satisfy their private wants or fancies, nor can they procure themselves any luxuries or other comforts; and they always lead a life, that, although protected against the most pressing wants, is notwithstanding a very miserable one. It is thus the interest of those individuals that are able to work, (and this they perfectly comprehend), to seek to maintain themselves. It is only those persons who are totally depraved, and who give themselves entirely up to drunkenness and every other excess, who feel assured that, after having wasted and spent the little they possess, and abandoned the work that maintained them, there always remains to them the resource of the distributions made by the administration of the poor.

5th, What, on the whole, is the condition of the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, as compared with the condition of the person subsisting on alms or public charity? Is the condition of the latter, as to food and freedom from labour, more or less eligible?—(See p. 261 and 335 of the Poor Law “Extracts.”)—In Belgium, and especially at Antwerp, the situation of a workman, whatever may be the class he belongs to, and who maintains himself solely by his work, is by all means preferable and better than that of a person who only subsists by relief or public charity. The existence of those who reside in the depôts of mendicity and at the Charity Colony of Agriculture, excepting only the loss of their liberty, is even in many respects preferable to the situation of the latter, who are maintained by general charity.

LABOURERS, &c.

Boom.

1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month, or the year, with and without provisions, in summer and in winter?—In the commune of Boom, a parish in the district of Contich, province of Antwerp, there are three sorts of workmen: 1°. Those that make bricks; 2°. Those employed with the farmers; 3°. Watermen. The salary of a brickmaker in summer (without his food) is 275 francs, or 10*l.* 16*s.* 8*d.*, and in the winter 90 francs, or 3*l.* 10*s.* 10½*d.*, or 14*l.* 7*s.* 6½*d.* a year. The salary of a workman employed with the farmers, receiving his food, is, in summer, 120 francs (4*l.* 14*s.* 6*d.*), and in the winter 50 francs (1*l.* 19*s.* 4½*d.*), or 6*l.* 13*s.* 10½*d.* a year. The watermen navigating on the interior waters are paid by the week, at the rate of 7 fr. 25 c. (5*s.* 8¾*d.*) besides their food. During the winter season they are without employ several months.

2. Is piece-work general?—Piece-work is uncommon in this country, and is only employed by shoe and boot makers.

3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—A labourer might gain per year 350 francs (13*l.* 15*s.* 7½*d.*) if he works daily summer and winter.

4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?—The greatest part of the workmen or labourers have no other expenses but for their food, house-rent, and clothing, &c. Their children being instructed gratis in public schools established to that effect.

5. Is there any, and what employment for women and children?—At Boom, where several brick manufactures exist, women and children are employed in loading or unloading bricks, wood and other articles, by transporting them with wheelbarrows, and are also employed at other works.

6. What can women, and children under 16, earn per week in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed?—The women who are employed in the brick manufactures as aforesaid, gain in summer 4 francs (3*s.* 1¾*d.*) per week; and children of 16 years of age, employed as labourers, gain in summer at least 3 fr. 50 c. (2*s.* 9½*d.*) per week. In the winter they are very seldom employed.

7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8 and 5 years respectively (the eldest a boy), expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?—A woman employed with her children as aforesaid, and working, with her son, aged 14 years, can gain 250 fr. per annum (9*l.* 16*s.* 10½*d.*)

8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children; and if so, on what food?—Such family can subsist by their earnings only with bread, potatoes and milk.

9. Could it lay by anything, and how much?—A careful family, the members of which are daily employed, may easily lay by 25 cents (2¾*d.*) per day; this is, however, very seldom case with the working class, who very often spend more than they gain, and thereby contract debts.

10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?—There are labourers' habitations to which no land is annexed, others have five to six verges. But the greatest part of the labourers hire land separated from their habitation, which they cultivate for their own use, and which consists of 30 or 40 verges decimal or metrique système.*

11. What

* A verge is the four-hundredth part of a bonnier; a bonnier is equal to 2 $\frac{45}{100}$ English acres. Forty verges are about a quarter of an acre.

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BELGIUM.
—
Boom.

11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations?—The usual owners of labourers' habitations are master brickmakers and other traders of the burger class (classe bourgeoise).

12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale?—The rent of a labourer's habitation is from 40 fr. to 50 fr. (1 l. 11 s. 6 d. to 1 l. 19 s. 4 ½ d.) per year, and the price on sale from 600 fr. to 700 fr. (23 l. 12 s. 6 d. to 27 l. 11 s. 3 d.)

13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—The quantity of land let to labourers is from 30 to 40 verges (¼ of an acre), as mentioned in answer No. 10; and the yearly rent of it is 60 c. to 65 c. per verge, (say 5 ½ d. to 6 d.); about 4 l. an acre.

14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?—The population of the commune of Boom is 6,500 individuals; in the year 1833, the deaths amounted to 186, so that the proportion of deaths, compared to the whole population, is 35 on 1,000 individuals, or 1 in 28 5/10.

15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?—In the same commune the births in 1833 were 234, so that the proportion is 28 on 1,000 individuals, or 1 in 36.

16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?—The annual marriages in the same commune are about 40, so that the proportion is about 10 or 11 in 1,000 individuals, or 1 in 95 2/10.

17. The average number of children to a marriage?—The average number of children to a marriage is five.

18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?—In the above-named commune of Boom, in 1833, the births were 234, of which 10 only were illegitimate, so the proportion of legitimate births to illegitimate is 21 to 1.

19. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year?—The number of children that died before the end of their first year is 47, in the year 1833, so that the proportion to the whole population is the fifth child.

20. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 10th year?—In the same proportion, 85 children died before their 10th year, or 1 in 17.

21. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 18th year?—In the same proportion, 93 died before their 18th year, or 1 in 18 6/10.

22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—The men marry generally at the age of 26 to 30, and women at the age of 20 to 25.

23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—The causes of delay of marriage are generally the bad result of business, which renders the situation of a family unfavourable.

24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried, 2d, the married, save?—The savings of unmarried persons may amount to 30 centimes per day (3 ¼ d.); and that of married persons 25 centimes (2 ½ d.)

25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—The savings are generally placed on annuities, on mandates or obligations, in the Caisse d'Epargne.

Further answer to questions 14, &c.—By the last vérification made in 1829, the population of the city of Antwerp and its suburbs was 73,233 individuals.

The years 1830, 1831 and 1832, cannot be taken for comparison, on account of the political events of which the town has been the theatre, and the ravages of the cholera.

This is the result of the "Statements" of the Population-office for the year 1833.

Antwerp.

BIRTHS:

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Legitimate children - - - - -	916	901	1,817
Legitimated bastards - - - - -	52	36	88
Illegitimate children - - - - -	113	135	248
Foundlings - - - - -	31	41	72
Dead born - - - - -	98	82	180
Total - - - - -	1,210	1,195	2,405 or 1 in 30 4/10
Deaths (including 160 deaths known to be the effects of the cholera) - - - - -	1,160	990	2,150 or 1 in 34
The births have exceeded the deaths - - - - -	50	205	255

The number of marriages has been 520.
The results of this Statement are, that the proportion of deaths, compared to the whole population of 73,000 individuals, has been about 3 per cent., taking the average amount.
That of the births, taken the same way, a little more than 3 ½ per cent.
That of marriages, ditto, about 7 per 1,000.
That of legitimate children, in comparison with legitimated bastards, illegitimate children and foundlings, have been about one illegitimate child on five legitimate, including as legitimate the dead born.

Antwerp, }
21 July 1834. }
P. L. (F.)
De Hoche-pied Larpent,
British Consul.

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.

BELGIUM.

Ostend.

OSTEND.

VAGRANTS.

1. To what extent, and under what form, does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?—Mendicity is considered in Flanders as an offence. The number of vagrants, who are punished as such, is commonly 150 in both the Flanders, or one for 8,000 inhabitants.

The "Code penal" considers mendicity as an offence, and it is punished with from one to six months' imprisonment (Art. 269 and following). The same penalty is extended towards vagrants and common beggars.

When a beggar leaves his parish, pretends to any infirmity, disguises himself or carries arms, special punishments are inflicted on him, after which he is put at the disposal of the government (Art. 282.)

This law is common both to Belgium and France; but its severity has been mitigated by the mild character of the people of Flanders.

Thus the old, the impotent, the cripple, &c. &c., are by a common consent or feeling of compassion towards them, excepted from this law of the Code, and are never imprisoned.

The churches also offer a privileged asylum to the destitute, who do not fail to claim the charity of the pious. The tribunals have cleared the country of the able-bodied destitute and the vagrants, and it is only in particular hard seasons or times of calamity that they are still to be found.

Much care is also taken to provide well for able-bodied destitute under confinement; with the exception of his not being allowed to leave at pleasure, the prisoner is at liberty to work, with the necessary means provided, for whatever business he can follow. The gain of his industry is left for his own benefit (*see Answer 3 on Destitute Able-bodied.*)

It is difficult to ascertain the exact number of mendicants in the two Flanders, from the interruption of employment during the winter months; but the nearest calculation brings it to about 600, which is one mendicant to every 2,000 of the population.

2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country, seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded, and under what regulations?—Every pauper going to his native place, or from thence to another point, on reasonable causes, as inheritances, lawsuits, &c. (but not to seek work, which is merely considered as a loose pretext), is entitled to relief of 15 centimes per French league (one halfpenny per mile), and every parish situated on his way pays it. The foreign pauper returning to his country is entitled to the same favour; but this is often evaded.

Some abuse is the result of this mode of relief. The destitute often make business a pretext for travelling during the fine season at the public expense, by which means they gain fr. 1. c. 50 (1 s. 2 d.) per day.

DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

1. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they, or any part of their families, billeted or quartered on householders? 2. Are they boarded with individuals?—The only legal mode of lodging the destitute able-bodied is to send them to the *depôt* of mendicity, where they are treated as paupers. There existed formerly agricultural colonies, on the same principles as those in Holland, to which the parishes could send their able-bodied destitute and their families; it was found in vain to attempt making cultivators or proprietors of them.

3. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there district houses of industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families, and supplying them with food, clothes, &c., and in which they are set to work?—The *depôt* of mendicity, which receives also the able-bodied destitute, is a workhouse, where they are entirely maintained for 32 centimes (3 d.) per day, which is paid by the parish to which the pauper belongs; when they work they earn money.

The destitute able-bodied, but quite indigent, of the two Flanders, and the vagrants who have been tried as such, compose altogether a population of about 300 persons (the destitute able-bodied of Ghent excepted). For each of these 300 poor, his parish pays a contribution of 32 centimes (3 d.) per day (men and women equally). They are collected together at the *depôt* of mendicity, a kind of workhouse established by Napoléon in 1808, and which at its origin was dreaded by the poor on account of the ill-treatment they received there. Even at this moment, a similar establishment situated at Brussels is so dreaded, that the poor will commit robbery to be sent in preference to the common gaol. The *depôt* for both the Flanders established at Bruges has gradually overcome this dread by the mildness of its administration. The directors have banished all rigour, not even enforcing work on the destitute; but as they are paid according to their industry, that inducement to work is found sufficient. This establishment is remarkably prosperous, having already saved fr. 80,000 (3,200 l.), all expenses paid. It is not found necessary to have any armed force in the neighbourhood to keep this large number of destitute in order, this being attained by gentleness and good usage. On any of the poor leaving the establishment, improved in their moral conduct, they receive a part of their own earnings, which enables them to seek some employment.

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BELGIUM.

Ostend.

Besides this dépôt, there is at Ghent a workhouse where employment is given to the destitute, but without their being maintained. The number of labourers in this establishment, which was erected by voluntary subscription, has been as many as 1,900, in time of great distress.

4. To what extent, and under what regulations, do any religious institutions give assistance to the destitute, by receiving them as inmates, or by giving them alms?—Every church has its masters of the table of the poor, or distributors of assistance. Such funds proceed from collections made in the church, voluntary alms, and assignments from the “Bureau de Bienfaisance” (see lower). Weekly distributions of bread or fuel, sometimes money or clothing are made.

5. To what extent, and under what regulations, is work provided at their own dwellings for those who have trades, but do not procure work for themselves? 6. Is work provided for such persons in agriculture or in public works?—The measures intended by the decree of the 24th Vendemiaire, 11th year of the French Republic, never could be put into execution. There are but few parishes where it has been tried to give out flax to be hackled, spun or twisted, to the poor, who return it transformed into linen.

7. To what extent, and under what regulations, are fuel, clothing or money distributed to such persons or their families; at all times of the year, or during any particular seasons?—Every parish is to assist its own poor; and the administration of this assistance is entrusted to the most respectable inhabitants, who take this charge gratuitously. They form a committee of five persons in the country, and seven persons in the towns, which is called “Bureau de Bienfaisance.” These bureaux distribute assistance in proportion to the wants of their poor; but this assistance is generally discontinued in the summer months, on account of the abundance of work during that season. In the towns the relief consists principally in money (about 32 centimes per man and per day, or 3*d.* sterling). In the country the rule is not to give money, but assistance in kind.

8. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they relieved by their children being taken into schools, and fed, clothed and educated, or apprenticed?—Generally their children may be educated gratuitously; but they take little advantage of it, as they prefer employing them in gathering up firewood, &c.

A general law is expected, as the preceding one has been abolished since the Revolution; but when public instruction was first organized, the masters of public schools being pensioned by their respective parishes, were obliged to instruct gratuitously the children of the destitute of their parish. This is only done here and there at present; but there are still some municipal or particular gratuitous schools, where children are given clothes as prizes for well receiving instruction. There are also schools for girls where women's works are taught, for which work they are paid; and there are houses where the education of boys is attended to, and from which some of the pupils are put out as apprentices, gratuitously; but, generally, there is felt a want of coercive measures to force the parents to send their children to school, and to allow them to be put out as apprentices.

9. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are the relatives of the destitute compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking charge of part of their families?—Ascendants are compelled to feed descendants, and *vice versa*; (fathers and mothers-in-law are to feed their sons and daughters-in-law, and reciprocally,) but the spirit of the code tends towards nothing special for the poor.

10. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they assisted by loans?—No loans, with one exception, which was made by the national treasury to the parishes during the calamitous year 1817.

IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

1. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there almshouses or other institutions for the reception of those who, through age, are incapable of earning their subsistence?—There are almshouses throughout the kingdom, where the impotent through age are maintained and taken care of. These institutions are so far profitable to the parishes, as that it would cost them more money to assist these persons separately. Some have been endowed by deeds of gift, others are supported by the inhabitants of the towns. The number of them is increasing in the country, and most towns are well provided in that respect.

2. To what extent, and under what regulations, is relief in food, fuel, clothing or money afforded them at their homes?—The assistance afforded is in clothing, bread, fuel twice a week, and 75 centimes in money (7*d.*) every Sunday.

3. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they boarded with individuals?—In places where there are no almshouses their maintenance is publicly adjudicated to the householders who propose the most reasonable terms.

4. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they quartered or billeted on the householders?—This is never done; but several parishes and all the towns possess houses which they are allowed to inhabit, when they can live without being under the care of guardians.

5. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking part of their families?—As other subjects. (See Answer 9 on Destitute Able-bodied.)

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.

BELGIUM.

Ostend.

SICK.

1. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there district institutions for the reception of the sick?—Some parishes and all the towns have hospitals where the sick are received. These hospitals are managed by the committee for almshouses, an institution equal to the Bureaux de Bienfaisance.

2. To what extent, and under what regulations, are surgical and medical relief afforded to the poor at their own homes?—

3. To what extent and under what regulations, are there institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick?—They are provided at home with the necessities by the Bureaux de Bienfaisance. In the hospitals they receive every thing from the committee of the almshouses.

4. To what extent, and under what regulations, is assistance given to lying-in women at their homes, or in public establishments?—In each principal town of the province there is a house called Maternité, where women and girls in a state of pregnancy are received; they are elsewhere received under the denomination of sick poor, or they are sent to the almshouses of the towns, where one franc (10d.) per day is paid for them; but the parishes in the country give no assistance to the pregnant unmarried women.

5. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick?—Formerly every tradesmen's company clubbed to support its sick members; although the tradesmen's companies exist no longer, there are still voluntary associations or fraternities for the same purpose.

CHILDREN :

Illegitimate.

1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall; wholly upon the mothers, or wholly upon the fathers; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations?—The abode of the illegitimate child is the parish of its mother. If the father recognizes it, which is always voluntary and never forced upon him (as forbidden by the code), he is bound to bear a part of its maintenance, according to the decision of the court. But when the father himself is poor, the child falls exclusively on its mother and her parish.

2. To what extent, and under what regulations, are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards?—The relatives are in no way compelled to maintain bastards.

3. To what extent, and under what regulations, are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?—As other destitute children, and at the expense of the parish of their mothers.

Orphans, Foundlings, or Deserted Children.

4. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they taken into establishments for their reception? 5. Are they billeted or quartered on householders? 6. Are they boarded with individuals?—The bureaux de bienfaisance of the parishes take charge of all orphans, deserted children and foundlings; (these latter are at first received in a special establishment in the principal town of every province, where care is taken to provide them with necessities.) There is no appropriated institution exclusively for bringing them up, nor are they quartered on householders, but their maintenance is publicly adjudicated, as in No. 3, of Impotent through Age.

The maintenance and apprenticeship of a child in the country, costs in the north about 90 francs (3*l.* 12*s.*) a year. In Bruges the average cost on three years has been only half that sum. In the south of the province it is still something less. The same children brought up in almshouses would cost 200 francs (8*l.*), and mortality would be double.

7. Are their relatives compelled to support them?—As other subjects.

CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

1. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there establishments for their reception?—There exists in Ghent only, for both the Flanders, an establishment for the instruction of the deaf and dumb, and blind; they are treated elsewhere as other impotent. The cripples are nowhere the object of a special institution.

2. Are they billeted or quartered on householders?—Does not take place.

3. Are they boarded with individuals?—Their maintenance is publicly adjudicated when their infirmities do not require them to reside in an almshouse.

4. Are their relatives compelled to support them?—As other subjects.

IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

1. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there establishments for their reception?—There is in West Flanders a central establishment, where all the destitute idiots and lunatics are admitted on the payment of 300 francs a year (12*l.*) by their parish. A similar establishment exists in East Flanders. Idiots and lunatics not destitute are equally received in these establishments, and there are in both the Flanders several other asylums for them.

2. Are

2. Are they billeted or quartered on householders?—Does not take place.
3. Are they boarded with individuals?—Their maintenance was formerly adjudicated, but is now no longer; they are now too often left to the charge of distant relatives, and allowed to be neglected.
4. Are their relatives compelled to support them?—As other subjects.

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

You are requested to state whether the receipt or the expectation of relief, appears to produce any and what effect,

1st. On the industry of the labourers?—The receipt of relief, especially in the towns, propagates idleness amongst labourers, and the only mode of remedy would be to take charge of the children and not to allow them to be brought up by the poor themselves.

2d. On their frugality?—Relief is nowhere so abundant as to affect their frugality, save in the cases which will be hereafter mentioned.

3d. On the age at which they marry?—Early marriages are encouraged by the certainty of relief, in case of want.

4th. On the mutual dependence and affection of parent, children, and other relatives?—Although the public relief causes mutual help to be less necessary, yet its bad effects are more than balanced by a strong religious principle which induces mutual assistance.

5th. What, on the whole, is the condition of the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, as compared with the condition of the person subsisting on alms or public charity? Is the condition of the latter as to food and freedom from labour more or less eligible? (See p. 261 & 335 of the Poor Law "Extracts.")—There exists between the self-supporting labourers and the persons subsisting exclusively on alms or public charity, a very numerous intermediate class, consisting of those who live partly on relief and partly on labour, so that the two extremities only of the scale can be compared. An able-bodied but not labouring man receives only about the half what the last of those who do labour and are not assisted would earn; the legal relief being 32 centimes (3d.), and the lowest day's work more than 64 centimes (6d.). As to liberty, nobody is forced to work, not even at the depôt of mendicity; they are only not allowed to go out at will. Food is almost equally distributed, and many destitute poor prefer the depôt to free labour, when they are not sure of being employed every day; but in no other instance.

The grievances which result from this system arise from the neglect, the ignorance or the corruption of the local authorities, and although numerous, they are not very striking.

2dly. Those grievances arise from the want of proper conditions with which lands or houses are bequeathed to the Bureaux de Bienfaisance. Wherever a revenue is bequeathed it is shared equally by the poor, even when they may be beyond need; for instance, a beggar will receive 1 fr. 50 c. (1s. 2d.) per day for her maintenance, which would not have cost more than the fifth part of that sum, if paid by the depôt of mendicity. To obviate this abuse, and to increase the power of useful charity, the revenue of the Bureau de Bienfaisance of each parish should be added to the sum principal of the province when the revenue of the bureau exceeds the wants of its locality. 3dly. Grievances arise from the liberty of parents to neglect their children and allowing them to beg alms for their own benefit. This last appears to be the root of the evil, and the great cause of the augmentation of pauperism in these towns.

LABOURERS, &c.

1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer by the day, the week, the month, or the year, with and without provisions in summer and in winter?—A skilled artisan earns in summer 1 fr. 50 c. to 1 fr. 80 c. per day (1s. 2d. to 1s. 5d.). An unskilled, 75 c. to 1 fr. 20 c. (7d. to 1s.). In winter, the first has 1 fr. 10 c. to 1 fr. 40 c. (10d. to 1s. 2d.); the second, 55 c. to 82 c. (5½d. to 8d.). An agriculturist earns in summer 1 fr. 25 c. (1s.); in winter, 1 fr. 10 c. (10½d.); when boarded, 55 c. (5½d.) is deducted from his wages. Very little difference is made between skilled and unskilled agriculturists. Wages are higher in the strong lands of the north, and lower in the sands of the south of the province.

2. Is piece-work general?—Yes, for certain works, such as threshing corn and digging dikes.

3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—The man who has only his day's work, and who earns 350 fr. (14l.) is rather above than under the average rate in the country. The skilled artisan (a mason) may reach 500 fr. (20l.) in a town. But it should be observed that most of the labourers in the country have resources besides their wages, either a small piece of land, a weaver's frame, &c. in which they employ their resting hours for their benefit.

4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?—Neither civil nor religious instruction costs anything to this class of people. House-rent, food and clothing are their chief expenses. House-rent varies from 40 to 60 fr. per annum (1l. 12s. to 2l. 8s.) Food is at least 55 c. (5½d.) per day for a man; 45 c. (4½d.) for a woman; and 28 c. (2¾d.) for a child of 10 to 14 years; but they economize by living together. Sixty fr. (2l. 8s.)

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for a man's clothing and 40 fr. (1 *l.* 12 s.) for a woman's, may be considered as the minimum, making together for a man alone about 300 fr. (12 *l.*) per year; for man and wife 510 fr. (20 *l.* 8 s.), and 110 fr. (4 *l.* 8 s.) more per child; yet in the large towns this sum would not be sufficient.

5. Is there any and what employment for women and children?—Women are employed in the towns in making lace, thread, or working in the manufactories; they work per day in the country or spin flax. Children are equally occupied in the country to keep cattle, &c., but occupation is less easy to be got for them in the towns.

6. What can women, and children under 16, earn per week, in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed?—A woman who goes out a day's work in the towns, earns 1 fr. 10 c. (10 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.), and is fed besides; or 1 fr. 82 c. (1 s. 5 d.) without food. In the country she earns in summer 91 c. per day (8 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.), and in winter 82 c. (7 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.) without food, or 45 c. (4 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.), and 36 c. (3 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.) being fed. Children of 11 years may earn their food in the country, besides 15 c. (1 $\frac{1}{4}$ d.) per day, but not in the winter. It is almost impossible to state anything correctly beyond this information. The time of harvest does not increase wages considerably.

7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8, and 5 years, respectively (the eldest a boy), expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?—The wife and the two elder children may expect to earn during the summer their food, and 160 to 180 fr. (6 *l.* 8 s. to 7 *l.* 4 s.) The third child may earn its food. Nothing can be specified respecting winter earnings. If, however, the wife and her children can spin or work at home, and that none of them are ill, they may support themselves until the summer without relief. This cannot be the case in towns, excepting those where manufactories are very flourishing.

8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children, and if so, on what food?—It can in the towns, eating only potatoes and rye-bread; the father being an unskilled artisan and the town possessing no manufactories. In the country the same family would consume a little butter, some vegetables, and perhaps sometimes a piece of pork.

9. Could it lay by anything, and how much?—Not in the towns. In the country the overplus of the father's earnings beyond his expenditure amounting to about 100 fr. (4 *l.*), but then it would have a bare existence, and there is scarcely such an instance.

10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?—The sixth part of an acre is about the average quantity, but it varies greatly. Some labourers' habitations may be met with without any land.

11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations?—Nothing determinate in this respect. Many labourers' habitations belong to the Bureaux de Bien-faisance, or almshouses. Some labourers in the country rent a small quantity of land and build themselves a cottage of fence, of which the hearth only is in bricks; they enlarge it by degrees, and if prosperous, they make at last a complete house, which is often the case.

12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale?—The rent of a labourer's habitation in a town is from 50 to 60 fr. (2 *l.* to 2 *l.* 8 s.); in the country, 40 fr. (1 *l.* 12 s.), including the sixth part of an acre of land. The first may be worth from 800 to 1,000 fr. (32 *l.* to 40 *l.*); the second, 500 fr. (20 *l.*), on account of the deficiencies in the out-lettings and of the continual repairs which are incumbent upon the proprietor.

13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—Land property being divided into very small parts, labourers may easily rent a small piece of land, and most of them do so. They commence by half an acre, and the increase of their culture has no fixed period, several becoming little farmers, and some great farmers; (a farm of 100 acres is considered a large farm in Flanders.) They rent land at prices beyond the power of farmers, and sometimes at 50 per cent. above the current price. They also under-lease from farmers.

14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?—The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population is $2\frac{33}{40}$ to 100, or 1 in $35\frac{4}{10}$.

15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?—The proportion of annual births to the whole population is $3\frac{13}{37}$ to 100, or 1 in 31.

16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?—The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population is $6\frac{33}{40}$ to 1,000, or 1 in $146\frac{5}{10}$.

17. The average number of children to a marriage?—The average number of children to a marriage is 4.72.

18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?—The proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births on the whole population is not known. At Ostend the number of legitimate births was 442, and of illegitimate 51, during the year 1833.

19. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year?—The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year is 175 deaths to 1,000 births, or 1 in $5\frac{7}{10}$.

20. Proportion of children that die before the end of their tenth year?—The proportion of children that die before the end of their tenth year is 412 deaths to 1,000 births, or 1 in $2\frac{4}{10}$.

21. Before the end of their eighteenth year?—The proportion of children that die before the end of their eighteenth year is 450 deaths to 1,000 births, or 1 in $2\frac{2}{10}$.

22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—The average age of marriage is for males from 25 to 30 years, and for females from 18 to 22.

23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—In the towns there are less obstacles to the marriages of the poor than to those of a higher class, where want is more feared. In the country, farmers' sons and those who have the means to become farmers will delay their marriage

marriage until they get possession of a farm. Labourers (agriculturists) are sometimes restrained by the want of an habitation, but not so often as in the first case.

24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried; 2d, the married, save?—It seldom happens in the towns that artisans do save, although there exists a savings' bank, which has its agents in the principal localities. Servants are the persons who most usually economize; a man-servant may save 100 fr. (4 l.), and a woman-servant 50 fr. (2 l.) per year. It is the opposite in the country, where servants save very little, the cost of their clothing requiring very near all their earnings except 25 fr. (1 l.) But if a servant becomes an artisan he may save 150 fr. (6 l.) However this is a maximum rarely attained.

As to those who are married, they only save what they can earn over their day's work by renting a small quantity of land, by weaving linen, &c.

25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—The use of savings' banks is but little known to the lower orders, except at Ghent. In the towns few artisans ever expect to become their own masters, but they save against marriage to enable them to possess a house.

The agricultural labourer begins to save on his marriage. All his savings are directed to the increase of a farm, which he often succeeds in acquiring, particularly in the south of the province; but when he succeeds in the north his prospects are better. Thus a labourer, who with a capital of 600 fr. (24 l.) has become the father of five children, has in the space of twelve years raised his capital to 6,000 fr. (240 l.), and already employs two horses. Another in the space of 25 years has become the proprietor of a farm with six horses.

British Consulate, Ostend, }
27 February 1834. }

G. A. Fauche.

Appendix (F.)

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PORTUGAL.

PORTUGAL.

RETURN to the QUERIES of the POOR LAW COMMISSIONERS, circulated amongst His Majesty's Consuls.

AS many of the Questions contained in this Paper have little reference to the social condition of Portugal, it is conceived that it will be more clear and satisfactory to condense the replies into one general answer to each separate head of inquiry, embodying in such answer, as far as may be possible, every distinct point on which information is desired.

Although poverty prevails to a great extent in Portugal, still the frugal habits and very limited wants and desires of the lower classes of the population in the northern provinces, prevent mendicity from showing itself in those offensive and distressing forms which it assumes in many other countries. The very limited provision which has been made for the poor by the Government, or by public regulation, throws them on their own resources, and makes them careful and provident. Although, during the late siege of Oporto, we issued at one period gratuitously, from a soup society, upwards of 6,000 rations of soup each day, the number of absolute mendicants who were relieved fell greatly short of 1,000. The remainder of the applicants were principally families reduced to distress by the circumstances of the times, who withdrew their claims so soon as the termination of the blockade opened to them other resources and means of support.

Persons destitute of resources, who may be travelling in search of work or otherwise, can claim no pecuniary relief; but the different religious establishments are in the habit of affording a temporary asylum and succour to strangers. There are also houses of refuge for the poor, called "Misericordias," at various places, which are supported by royal gifts, bequests by will, and private donations.

None but the military can be billeted on private houses; and even this right is now contested by the camara (municipality) of Oporto, as contrary to the constitutional charter. Nor are there any houses of industry for receiving destitute able-bodied, or their families, except at Lisbon, where I understand there are royal manufactories where the poor are employed, as well as at a rope-walk called the Cordoario. The different religious establishments are, as I have already observed, in the habit of affording pecuniary relief, as well as of giving food and medical aid to the destitute of every description; but the political changes, by suppressing some and diminishing the resources of all these establishments, must have greatly reduced this description of charity.

In most towns and large villages there are schools to which the poor may send their children free of expense; but they receive neither food nor clothing, and the instruction is extremely limited. The masters are allowed a small stipend by the Government.

Relatives are forced to aid each other, in the degrees of father, mother, child, brother and sister, in cases of want: for persons impotent through age, there are houses of charity, called "Recolhimentos," in most cities and considerable towns, where a limited number of aged or infirm poor of both sexes are lodged, clothed and fed. These establishments are supported in part by royal gifts, and in part by the different municipalities; but no provision is made for the attendance of the sick poor at their own dwellings, nor are they in any case boarded with individuals, or billeted on private houses; but if they have relatives in the degrees above mentioned, these are bound to assist them, if able to do so.

There are public hospitals in most cities and towns, where the sick poor are received and treated gratis. There are also lying-in hospitals, which receive pregnant women (without inquiring as to their being married or not) without any charge; but I am not aware of the existence of any regulation which obliges the medical officers of these establishments to deliver women at their own dwellings, although this is frequently done voluntarily.

CHILDREN.

A law or decree issued in 1772, imposes equally on both parents the duty of maintaining their children, whether legitimate or illegitimate, where they have the means of doing so; and the parentage in the latter case, if the father can be ascertained or is acknowledged. Brothers and sisters are equally bound to assist each other.

But in cases where the parents either have not the means or want inclination to support their illegitimate child, a ready resource is offered by the "Casas dos Expostos" which exist in most towns. These establishments for foundlings are provided with rodas, or revolving boxes, into which the infant is placed, and is received without inquiry. The practice of thus abandoning infants to be reared by public charity, prevails, I am assured, to a painful extent in Portugal. In many cases they are subsequently claimed; and with a view to identify them, they have generally some particular mark attached to them when placed in the roda. These marks, together with the description of the dress in which they are found, and the date of their reception, are registered at the hospital. They are then put out to nurse with female peasants, who are paid monthly a small sum for the maintenance of the child, on producing it either to the officer at the establishment, or to the juiz de forra of the district in which they reside.

CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

At Lisbon there is, I understand, an establishment for the reception of the deaf and dumb.

ID10 RS

IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

At Lisbon there is an establishment for lunatics, called the Hospital of St. Joseph, where lunatics and idiots are received and supported gratuitously, if without means. Better treatment and greater comforts may be obtained for patients able to pay for the same. This institution is partly supported by the Government, and partly by voluntary contributions, in the same manner as the misericordias in provincial towns.

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

The unfortunate state of the country since my first arrival in Portugal, and the very limited view I have been able, in consequence, to take of its social condition, make it impossible for me to offer an opinion as to the effects of its institutions, further than what is stated in the observation I have already made. The greater part of the able-bodied male population has been under arms; and the military service offers a constant resource to such as have no other means of getting employment.

LABOURERS, &c.

Male labourers are paid according to the nature of their work. Those employed in the cultivation of the vine, and in the vintage, are well paid, particularly in the district of the Upper Douro. A male labourer so employed may get from 1s. 8d. to 2s. 6d. per diem, according to circumstances and the demand for labour at the time. In the wine country provisions are furnished to the labourer, but not in cities. Labour in Oporto itself is well paid. Piece-work, as well in the cultivation of the soil as in buildings, &c., is very common.

Women and children are very generally employed in the north of Portugal, in all the occupations which the state of its industry offers; in the cultivation of the land; in the silk manufactory; in spinning flax, &c. The price of labour differs greatly, according to situation and the nature of the work. A female labourer in the field may, during harvest, earn from three to five vintenes, from 3½d. to 6d. per diem, besides coarse food. The food of the lower classes consists generally of a little bacalhao (salt fish), broth made of vegetables, rendered palatable and nutritive by the addition of a little oil or lard, and bread made of maize (Indian corn). Considering the low rate of wages, it is impossible for a peasant to lay by money to any extent. Whenever they collect a little, it is generally expended in gold chains or ornaments for the women.

Although, in some instances, labourers own the cottages they inhabit, the greater number are the property of the larger landed proprietors, and are rented by the occupiers; their value depends greatly on situation, and the conveniences they afford. A cottage consisting of four rooms, in a small town, may be worth three or four moidores per annum. It is very seldom that a labourer holds more land than the small garden or orchard attached to his cottage.

As no statistical tables have latterly been published in Portugal, it is difficult to form an opinion as to the average number of births, marriages or deaths in proportion to the population.

It may be observed generally, that in Catholic countries, the care of administering to the wants, both physical and moral, of the poor, being left in a great degree to the clergy and religious establishments, the action of the civil government, as well as of private benevolence in their favour, is much less visible, and far more confined than in Protestant states.

Oporto, 24 April 1834.

THE AZORES.

REPLIES to the QUERIES of the POOR LAW COMMISSIONERS, by the Consul-General.

VAGRANTS.

1. To what extent, and under what form does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?—In the Azores mendicity is limited to the aged and infirm poor, and to the crippled and blind, for whom there is no legal provision; they are therefore dependent on the charity of the wealthy, to whom they make a weekly application and receive alms. There are no houses for their reception, or asylum of any description, but they obtain a distribution of victuals from the convents, of whatever surplus food remains after the friars and nuns have dined.

2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country, seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded, and under what regulations?—Vagrants are not allowed; such people are liable to be imprisoned, and on conviction may be shipped off to India, Angola, &c., or employed on public works, by decrees of the 16th May 1641, 19th May 1684, 4th March 1688, 7th March 1691, and 4th Nov. 1755. Those decrees, though severe, have had a good effect in exterminating vagrancy in the Azores. No relief is given to persons seeking work.

DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

1. To what extent, and under what regulations are they, or any part of their families, billeted or quartered on householders?—There are no laws for granting relief to the poor of

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any description, excepting the sick. Able-bodied men in want of work can always find employment on seeking it.

2 to 7.—Nil.

8. To what extent, and under what regulations are they relieved by their children being taken into schools, and fed, clothed and educated or apprenticed?—Public schools for teaching reading and writing are established in each municipal district, where the children of the poor are taught gratis. A small tribute on wine produce of the country is levied for payment of these schools, called the Literary Subsidy, and public professors are paid out of it also, who teach Latin, grammar, rhetoric and philosophy to all who choose to attend.

9. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are the relatives of the destitute compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking charge of part of their families?—The laws of Portugal oblige the proprietors of entailed property to give alimentary allowances to their children and brothers and sisters, in proportion to their own means and the wants of the applicants. Children coming into possession of property are obliged to assist their parents and brothers, if in necessity. The poor, however, are left to themselves, and to the stimulus of natural affection; and cases are very rare in which appeals are made in vain; but lawsuits are very common to oblige the rich heir of entailed property to give aliments to a brother or sister, as the elder brother takes the whole estate, and the younger branches are entirely dependent on him, if the father has not left money or unentailed property to distribute amongst his other children.

10. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they assisted by loans?—Nil.

IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

To what extent, and under what regulations

1. Are there almshouses or other institutions for their reception? 2. Is relief afforded them at their homes? 3. Are they boarded with individuals? 4. Are they quartered or billeted on the householders?—Nil.

5. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking part of their families?—By law of 29th August 1776, if such persons have any relatives capable of assisting them, they may be compelled to do so on application to the magistracy of the district. This obligation extends from grand-children upwards, in a direct line, and to brothers and sisters, but not to uncles, aunts or cousins.

SICK.

To what extent, and under what regulations

1. Are there district institutions for the reception of the sick?—In every municipal district there is a public hospital called the Misericordia; *i. e.* house of mercy, for the reception of the sick poor, supported by endowments of land, and bequests of money from pious people long since deceased, and voluntary contributions of living persons, where the sick are well treated, and when cured are sent to their families, and if in great distress a small sum of money is given to assist them. These hospitals contain generally from 200 to 300 sick, and are, generally speaking, well conducted by the governors, stewards, medical attendants and nurses. Foreign seamen are also admitted on the respective consuls paying 1s. 6d. per diem for diet and attendance.

2. Are surgical and medical relief afforded to the poor at their own homes?—In cases where the hospitals are full, and cannot accommodate any more patients, medicines are given to applicants, and surgical and medical advice gratis from the hospital practitioners.

3. Are there institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick? 4. Is assistance given to lying-in women? 5. Are there any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick?—Nil.

CHILDREN :

Illegitimate.

The laws of Portugal, entitled Ordinances, book 1, c. 88, s. 10, and book 4, c. 99, with reference to the Ordinances of King Manoel, book 1, c. 67, s. 9, and book 4, c. 68, are very ample on the subject of illegitimate children, but too numerous for insertion here, and may be briefly stated as follows; viz. That the mother shall not be obliged to denounce the father of the child against her will, as the mother must support it in case she chooses to suckle the child herself; if, on the contrary, the sense of shame overcomes her maternal feelings, and she takes it to the misericordia, where there is a private place to receive the infant, it is immediately taken care of, and put out to nurse at the expense of the municipality until seven years of age, when it is apprenticed (if a male) to some trade or handicraft, or to a farmer; if a female, to domestic service in some family, where they are fed and clothed until of an age to earn wages: in this manner perjury and infanticide (so prevalent in some countries) is prevented. As there is no parochial relief, so also there is no temptation to commit perjury by swearing the child to a wrong person. In nine cases out of 10, the practice is to take the child to the misericordia, as pregnancy is more easily concealed here than in other countries, by the peculiar dress of the common class of women. The municipality are at the expense of maintenance of the children, and if their funds are scanty the State pays the deficiency.

Orphans, Foundlings, or Deserted Children.

Orphans.—Various laws have been promulgated in favour of orphans, for whom the respective local magistrates were appointed judges and protectors, which duty now devolves on the justices

justices of the peace. If any property belongs to them, proper guardians are appointed to take care of it, and to educate the children; if none, they are under the municipal protection until of age to be put apprentice to some trade or calling, service, &c. in cases where their relatives are unable to take charge of them.

Foundlings.—Foundlings are taken charge of and treated as orphans; there are several funds set apart for their support by express decrees of former sovereigns of Portugal; they are received into the misericordias, and supported by the chamber of municipality.

Deserted Children whose Parents are known.—Deserted children are also reputed as foundlings or orphans, and have similar care taken of them by the municipal authorities; the instances are extremely rare of children being deserted by their parents, which is justly held in abhorrence by all classes of persons.

CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

Cripples.—There are no establishments whatsoever of any kind; they live on the alms bestowed weekly by the benevolent. It is much to be desired that a better mode of giving relief to the indigent should be adopted than that of their being obliged to go personally to receive their alms at the houses of the wealthy, which they are at present necessitated to do, with great inconvenience of the applicants, many of whom are obliged to be carried on asses to receive their alms; this, however, is more to prevent imposition than from ostentation on the part of the donors. If the crippled, blind, &c. have wealthy relatives in the direct line of ascendancy or descendancy, they may be obliged to contribute to their support by law.

Deaf and Dumb.—Neither for the deaf and dumb, of which few instances ever occur.

Blind.—There are no establishments for the blind. Ophthalmia is very prevalent amongst the poor past the middle age, but instances are very rare of blindness from infancy. Blindness in adults is often caused by extremely hard labour and sickness amongst artisans and husbandmen in the remote districts at a distance from medical aid.

IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

To what extent, and under what regulations

1. Are there establishments for their reception?—There are no establishments whatsoever.
2. Are they billeted or quartered on householders? 3. Are they boarded with individuals?—Nil.
4. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—By the law already cited, of the 29th August 1776, they are equally entitled as the cripple, lame, blind, &c. to some support from their relatives when those have it in their power to afford it.

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

You are requested to state whether the receipt, or the expectation of relief, appears to produce any and what effect,

1st, On the industry of the labourers?—As there is no parochial relief, every labourer endeavours, by personal exertions, to support himself and family.

2d, On their frugality?—The poor at the Azores are extremely economical and frugal in diet, clothing, &c.

3d, On the age at which they marry?—Poverty does not appear to check matrimony; in general the poor people marry at an early age, according to the physical temperament of the parties.

4th, On the mutual dependence and affection of parent, children, and other relatives?—In general there prevails much love and affection between parents and children, and from the children much obedience and respect towards their parents, to which they are exhorted by the clergy, who inculcate great subjection to their parents on all occasions.

5th, What, on the whole, is the condition of the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, as compared with the condition of the person subsisting on alms or public charity?—Is the condition of the latter, as to food and freedom from labour, more or less eligible?—(See p. 261 and 335 of the Poor Law "Extracts.")—The poorest able-bodied labourer abhors begging; his utmost exertions are therefore employed to support himself and family; and it is only in cases of sickness, or other corporeal impediment, that he ever has recourse to alms.

LABOURERS, &c.

1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month, or the year, with and without provisions, in summer and in winter?—6d. to 8d. per diem for agricultural labourers, with gratification of breakfast and dinner in times of hoeing corn and harvests of all kinds, vintage and cutting wood in the mountains, which is considered good wages. A skilful carpenter, mason, tailor, blacksmith, or other handicraft, gains from 15d. to 20d. per diem, with which they are contented.

2. Is piece-work general?—Piece-work is not done by agricultural labourers, but sometimes agreed upon by masons, carpenters, &c. with their employers, but daily pay is generally preferred.

3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-

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work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—As is above stated, a labourer in the field gains 6*d.* to 8*d.* per diem, but as there are a great number of saints' days and holidays in the year, they do not count upon more than 250 working days in the year; their pay is not more than from 6*l.* to 8*l.* per annum, exclusive of their casual gratification of a breakfast and dinner at harvest.

4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?—Labourers and workmen of every description expend the whole of their weekly earnings in support of themselves and families; they pay nothing towards schooling, as their children may be taught gratis, nor towards religious instruction, as the clergy are paid by the government. In the time of Lent they pay about 2*d.* sterling for the Bull of Confession, which is delivered to them by the priest; and in the course of the year they give voluntary offerings of a trifling amount for the celebration of mass.

5. Is there any, and what employment for women and children?—Some women are employed in harvest-work, particularly in gathering in flax; also children are employed, but generally they are occupied in domestic work, in carding, spinning and weaving cloth for home use and to sell; almost every cottage has a loom.

6. What can women, and children under 16, earn per week, in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed?—Women earn in field-labour 4*d.* to 5*d.* per day; boys from 14 to 16 years, the same; boys from 10 to 14 years 3*d.* to 4*d.* per diem; from 7 to 10 years 2*d.* to 3*d.* per diem: the younger are employed in vineyards weeding and carrying stones; in the orange gardens, gathering oranges; packing preparing the corn, leaf, &c.; the older in more laborious field-labour.

7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8, and 5 years, respectively (the eldest a boy), expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?—A woman with three sons of 14, 11 and 8 years old, may earn in the course of the year, if constantly employed for 250 days; viz.

	£.	s.	d.
The woman, 250 days, at 4 <i>d.</i> per diem	4	3	4
One boy, 14 years old - ditto -	4	3	4
One boy, 11 years old, at 3 <i>d.</i> per diem	3	2	6
One boy, 8 years old, at 2 <i>d.</i> per diem	2	1	8
	£.	13	10 10 sterling.

For children of 5 years of age there is no employment.

8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children, and if so, on what food?—With the above earnings they may subsist pretty well, with sufficiency of Indian corn, bread, vegetables, potatoes and fruit, seldom any meat, but in the summer time fish when abundant, such as mackarel, sardinhas, smelts, bonitas, abacore and dolphin.

9. Could it lay by anything, and how much?—Nothing can be laid by on such moderate earnings.

10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?—From half a rood to one rood English measurement.

11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations?—Labourers in general have cottages of their own, either tiled or thatched; some petty farmers own such cottages, and other persons in middling circumstances are proprietors.

12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale?—From 24*s.* to 40*s.* a year rent; such cottages are not worth more than 8*l.* to 12*l.* sterling.

13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—A great number of day-labourers rent from one to two acres (English measure) of land from the morgados or farmers, from 30*s.* to 3*l.*, 4*l.*, and even so high as 5*l.* rent for each acre, according to the quality of the land and local situation, such as being near or distant from the chief cities and towns or villages which they inhabit.

14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?—One to 48 of the whole population.

15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?—One to every 19 persons.

16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?—One to every 42.

17. The average number of children to a marriage?—Three to four children to each marriage; some have 10 to 15 children, others have none, but such instances are rare.

18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?—100 legitimate children to every 15 illegitimate.

19. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year?—They die in proportion of one to every 100 persons of the whole population.

20. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 10th year?—They die in proportion to one for every 1,000 persons of the whole population.

21. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 18th year?—They die in proportion to one for every 2,000 persons of the whole population.

22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—

Males living in the country marry at the average age of 20 years.

Females - - - ditto - - - ditto - - - 17 -

Males living in cities and towns - ditto - - - 28 -

Females - - - ditto - - - ditto - - - 24 -

23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—The inhabitants of cities and large towns, where luxury and dissipation prevails more than in the country, and artificial wants are more felt, generally marry at a later age than the country people, these are more easily satisfied with but little arrangements of household goods prior to marriage; the citizen, on the contrary, wishes to acquire something to pass his future state of marriage with more ease and convenience. This causes more bastardy in the cities and towns. The country inhabitants, generally speaking, are more robust, hard working, easily satisfied, frugal in diet and drink, and obey sooner the dictates of nature in marrying than the citizens.

24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried; 2d, the married, save?—Those that live single may have something, if they have not an aged parent, or orphan brothers or sisters, to help with their earnings.

The married, on the contrary, cannot save anything; if they can manage to support their families, and buy a few extra comforts, they think themselves happy.

25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—There are no banks of any kind in which a poor person can deposit any saving; if they can gather together a little money, they buy a cottage if they had none before, or a small piece of land, vineyard or pasture, &c.

In the Island of St. Mary's wheat and barley are chiefly cultivated, but little Indian corn; much waste land is to be seen, arising from the absence of the great proprietors, who live in St. Michael's or at Lisbon.

At Terceira more wheat than Indian corn is to be seen under cultivation; much land lying waste from the want of capital or spirit of enterprize in the proprietors.

At St. George's, being a volcanic soil, there are more vineyards and pasture land than arable.

Gracioza being flat in surface, and having a strong clay soil, much barley and wheat is grown, but little Indian corn; the poor subsist chiefly on barley-bread, pulse, &c.; it also produces much brandy from the low-priced wines.

Pico being very mountainous and volcanic, the whole island is one continued vineyard; little soil for corn; the inhabitants depend upon the other islands for supplies of bread.

Fayal, partly vineyard, the rest corn land and pasture; all the principal proprietors of Pico living at Fayal; the poor of Pico are chiefly supplied from thence by their landlords.

Corvo produces grain, &c. for its consumption only.

Flores; some wheat and Indian corn is exported from thence, also bacon and hams, as large quantities of hogs are bred in that island.

A great deal of land is still uncultivated throughout the Azores, so that no able-bodied labourer can want employment, and for two centuries to come will give employment to the increasing population. The temperature of the climate, ranging from 55° to 78° of Fahrenheit, reduces the physical wants of man as to clothing, fuel, &c.; and the abundance of vegetables, fruits, &c. renders the poor man's lot easier than in colder climates. In the hospitals there is no limit of rations to the sick patients; they have bread, meat, poultry, milk, &c. in abundance. The state of criminals in the prisons is however dreadful; they are not fed by government, and must die if not succoured by relatives, and the casual supply of bread sent them from the misericordia in cases of extreme need; this however is not obligatory on the part of the hospital. Criminals, after sentence to the galleys, are allowed a loaf of bread per day, but nothing more.

Consul-General's Office for the Azores, }
St. Michael's, 20 April 1834. }

W. Harding Read,
Consul-General.

1. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?—One to every 19 persons.
2. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?—One to every 42.
3. The average number of children to a marriage?—Three to four children to each marriage; some have 10 to 15 children, others have none; but such instances are rare.
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Males living in the country marry at the average age of 20 years.	
Females	17
Males living in cities and towns	28
Females	24

Appendix (F.)

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SARDINIAN STATES.

LETTER from Sir *Augustus Foster* to Sir *George Shee*, Bart., dated Turin, 29 June 1834,
enclosing Replies to Questions respecting Poor Laws in Sardinian States.

Sir,

Turin, 29 June 1834.

I HAD the honour to receive, on the 2d February, your circular despatch, transmitting to me, by direction of Viscount Palmerston, a set of questions, in duplicate, which had been drawn up by the Poor Law Commissioners in England, relative to the condition of the Poor, and to the legal or charitable provisions for their support subsisting within this kingdom; to which you request me to obtain the most accurate and comprehensive answers, to be transmitted to his Lordship's office as early as possible; directing me, at the same time, that I shall send one of the copies with its answers home, to keep the other in the archives of the mission.

I have also to acknowledge the receipt of the volume published by the Poor Law Commissioners, and referred to in the questions, and I have carefully perused the same with a view to study the exact bearing of the queries applicable to Sardinia. There are, however, no poor laws in the Sardinian States at all analogous to those of Great Britain; there are mendicants in this and other towns, who are allowed to beg; and those of Turin are, if natives of the city, distinguished by numbered brass plates on their coats; but there are no paupers provided for by law, and the land in general is divided differently from what it is in Great Britain, there being but few cottages to be seen, and most of the farms in the plains of Piedmont being held on the "metayer" system, under which one half of the produce of every description belongs to the tenant; while there are innumerable small freeholders throughout the country, scarcely an acre of land, in the mountain districts especially, belonging to a large proprietor; 80,000 heads of families in the Duchy of Savoy alone, which contains about 500,000 inhabitants, are possessed (each individual in his own right) of a portion of the soil.

What poor exist are assisted by private charity, or from funds arising out of legacies which have been left to particular parishes, and are administered by a council or "congregazione," consisting of the syndic, curate, and two or three others, in each village or country town; but the amount of such legacies in general is very trifling, 20*l.* or 30*l.* a year, according to the size of the place.

There was an additional centime levied with the land-tax in the time of the French conquest, applicable to the removal of beggars, who were classed with criminals under the French laws, but since the Restoration this centime has been poured into the Treasury, and mendicity has revived, and is even sanctioned at Turin, by the individuals wearing a numbered plate, as above stated.

Private and public establishments of hospitals, through the Sardinian dominions, are numerous, and are a great credit to the country, as I had the honour to report in my despatch to Mr. Backhouse, dated 2d October 1833; and I have now to lay before you some additional information on the subject, consisting of a report on the establishment at Turin for the insane, which is, I am sorry to say, on a very indifferent footing for want of funds, though great efforts have lately been made to raise additional means from private sources for the completion of another hospital more convenient for them.

I also send enclosed to you the translation of a report that has been drawn up for me at Genoa upon the state of a celebrated institution for the deaf and dumb that exists in that city, as well as a translation of an account of that for orphans, in the same place.

In the questions which you forwarded to me, I have, through the obliging assistance of the Minister of the Interior, of M. de Vignet, who is a senator of Chambéry, the late syndic of Genoa, Marquis Brignole Sale, the syndic of Turin, and his son M. Camille Cavoar, obtained a series of replies, in as far as was practicable, but I doubt their containing much information that may be useful in Great Britain.

A great check is every where in this country put to the application for relief, by a knowledge being given to applicants of the positive limits of that which can be afforded, the promise of a bed for a sick person at a hospital in case of a vacancy occurring, or of being placed next on the list for assistance when the state of any particular fund will admit, being frequent answers to requests for admissions, except in cases of sudden accident, when the rules are overstept; and such a maximum of relief is strongly recommended, as affording a barrier against unreasonable demands, as well as preventing the increase of pauperism, and leaving a wide field for the private exertions of the humane; besides that the hope of obtaining eventual relief is of itself a great stimulus to good conduct in the poor, and serves to render the charge of supporting them for a while more bearable to their friends.

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(B.)

(C.)

(D.) (E.) (F.)

I have applied for further information on these matters, but it is not easy to obtain any worth sending to you from hence, and I have thought it most advisable to transmit the enclosed at present, reserving to myself to forward any further particulars that may be sent in to me, of sufficient importance, in a supplementary report.

Sir George Shee, Bart.,
&c. &c. &c.

I have, &c.

A. Foster.

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Enclosure (A.)

STATE of the Establishment for the INSANE at *Turin*, 1834.

THE establishment for the insane at Turin was founded in 1728, under the reign of Victor Amadeus the 2d, by the Brotherhood Della Madonna delle Grazie. They demanded and obtained permission from H. S. Majesty to build the hospital, and to fit it up for the cure of the mad, and it will contain nearly 350 individuals. A new building is to replace it capable of containing 600.

The Turin hospital is placed under the direction of twelve persons, forming a council, with the prior of the confraternity to preside. These directors are named by the King, and their office, which is one of pure charity, lasts but for a year, though renewable. The prior is named every year by the confraternity out of those persons who are proposed by the council, over which he presides by right of office.

The administration is under the inspection of the King, represented by the second president of the senate, who has no deliberative voice in the council, his duty consisting in the verification of the accounts.

Nobody can be admitted to the hospital without a decree of the vicarius of the city of Turin, and to obtain this, the case of madness must be judicially proved, as well as certified in due form by a declaration of the doctor; and the decrees of the vicarius are subjected to the inspection of the member of the council on duty.

The council meets every Sunday morning to deliberate upon what may be wanting in the establishment.

The director on duty makes report, and gives an account of the sick who have entered or left the establishment, the dead, &c.

Two physicians are attached to the establishment, and are, as well as two surgeons, lodged in it.

The head doctor has the general inspection of the hospital, and he, as well as the second doctor, are bound to make four visits a day to the sick in general, and six to the infirmary.

The inspection of the female department is intrusted to the Sœurs de la Charité, who have under their orders a sufficient number of guardians to take charge of the linen, &c. of the hospital.

The means of repression for the raving mad, and the evil-inclined, are ordinarily the belt of Hallam, the straight waistcoat, and sometimes chains; violence and threats are severely prohibited.

The mad who have once entered into the establishment cannot leave it but by virtue of a doctor's certificate in regard to their being cured, or on their being claimed by their relations, and provided they are not in a state of frenzy, as also on those relations entering into an engagement in writing to take care of, and have a guard over the individual, and to report him in case of renewed frenzy.

The practice of obliging proprietors to maintain or take care of madmen, does not exist in Piedmont; on the contrary, it is expressly prohibited to any kind of persons to have a private establishment. This prohibition, however, does not extend to relations who take care of their mad, on condition they treat them properly, and they do not suffer them to trouble the public tranquillity.

All the mad at the hospital pay a sum, more or less, according to their means, and receive a treatment conformable to the amount. The poor, whose poverty is well ascertained by the certificates of their parish, are maintained at the expense of their community and the province they belong to, in the proportion of four-fifths to the latter and one-fifth to the former.

Military men at the expense of the war-office; and the mad sent in by order of the Government, are at the cost of the office of the interior.

The director is guardian to all the mad, with right of superintendence over their estates, so as to prevent the possibility of their property being dissipated by their relations.

The annual sums required for the mad differ according to the circumstances of the individuals; that of the poor amounts to 200 francs, about 8*l.*, which would not suffice for the maintenance of an individual, if the establishment did not add something from the funds. The maximum of allowance is 2,400 francs, or about 95*l.* per annum, for a person in easy circumstances, and for this he is supplied with an apartment consisting of two rooms, and is fed at the table of the upper officers; the state of the establishment at present, however, will not admit of above two pensioners on such a footing.

In general, the amount required is 1,200, 800, 600, 400 and 350 francs per annum.

In this, however, is not included the expense of dress, linen, medicine or baths, which are at the cost of the pensioners.

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In general the nourishment of the poor inmates consists of two pounds of bread per diem, a soup, with a piece of meat and vegetables, and a small allowance of wine and water at each repast.

The dinner hour is 11 o'clock, that for supper, five o'clock.

It may appear extraordinary to allow wine to people out of their mind, but experience has proved that a Piedmontese cannot do without wine, his constitution requiring it; besides, strong wines are not allowed in the hospital, nor are the raving mad allowed to drink any.

The inmates who pay from 600 to 1,200 francs, have the right of occupying a separate room, and being attended by servants specially destined for their service.

Those who pay less are lodged in proportion less conveniently.

Those of the first class have three dishes to their dinner, two of them meat with vegetables, one of fowl and a dessert.

Their supper is of two dishes, one a roast and the other vegetables.

In fine weather all the patients, except the maniacs and the sick, are allowed to walk in the garden; those who are but slightly affected, may even go through the town, attended by their servants, or even go to the theatres, unless the doctor should decide otherwise.

The women, who are able to do so, work for the use of the establishment.

There are guardians especially appointed to the care of those who are epileptic, and who, by frequent observation of their change, when they observe the symptoms coming on of an attack, are frequently able to turn it aside, by seizing the patient and making him walk about, or diverting his attention to some other thing.

(signed) "Borsarelli,"
One of the Inspectors.

Enclosure (B.)

Genoa.

MEMOIRE SUR L'INSTITUT DES SOURDS ET MUETS à Gènes.

Organisation.—L'institut de Gènes, sous la protection immédiate du Roi, dépend du Ministère de l'Intérieur. Il y a dix-huit places gratuites, dont onze pour les garçons, et sept pour les filles. Le corps civique en entretient deux autres, dont il se réserve le droit d'y nommer; ainsi que le Roi, pour les premières, d'après la proposition qui lui en est faite par le Ministre. Il y existe aussi une école gratuite pour ceux qui sont inadmissibles à la communauté.

Fonds.—Pour ces places gratuites, pour l'entretien de l'école aux externes; pour les appointemens au directeur, à l'instituteur; à deux répétiteurs, à l'économe, à trois maîtres; au médecin, au chirurgien, au chapelain, et à six personnes de service, l'établissement tire annuellement 19,500 francs, dont 14,025 du trésor public, et 5,475 par la commune. Hormis ces fonds, et quelques largitions des souverains, et de la ville, l'institution n'a point encore en d'autres ressources.

Administration.—L'administration de ces fonds est confiée au directeur, qui en est comptable à une commission de six membres, nommés par le Roi.

Nourriture.—Le directeur et le maîtres partagent avec leurs élèves la même nourriture; qui consiste: en pur pain à déjeuner, en soupe et deux portions à dîner; en soupe et une portion à souper. Dans les solennités, on y ajoute un troisième plat. La nature des alimens n'est certainement pas trop recherchée; car, outre qu'elle n'est point compatible avec les moyens de l'établissement, elle ne conviendrait nullement à de jeunes garçons pour la plupart misérables. Mais dès que le gouvernement n'a garde de faire de cette institution un dépôt de mendicité, où l'humanité fut avilie; et dès qu'il y a des élèves pensionnaires assez remarquables, et qui doivent se tenir à la nourriture commune, l'on a établi de maxime, que les genres de première nécessité, comme le pain, le vin, l'huile, fussent de la plus parfaite qualité; et que quant au reste, c'était le prix courant qu'il fallait consulter. C'est en faveur de cette règle, que tout le monde est content.

Dépenses.—Une communauté, composée de 54 individus, où il n'y a que huit pensionnaires à six cent francs chacun par an, et qui n'a qu'un revenu de 19,500 francs, dont 7,948 fr. 33 c. sont absorbés par les appointemens aux employés, ne pourrait pas être imputée de peu d'économie, si, à la fin de l'année, tout son numéraire se trouve épuisé, ou s'il en reste très-peu en fond pour l'année d'après. Il n'est point d'ailleurs dans les vues de l'autorité de former une caisse au préjudice des malheureux garçons du jour, pour faire du bien à ceux à venir. On sait aussi, par expérience, que le bien-être des élèves est toujours en raison inverse du numéraire en caisse.

Admissions.—Tous les sourds et muets sont admissibles dans l'institut, pourvu qu'ils aient les qualités ci-après:

1. Religion Catholique.
2. Bonne constitution physique.
3. Avoir eu la petitevérole, ou avoir été vacciné.
4. N'avoir pas au-delà de 16 ans, ni moins de 10.
5. Une pension annuelle de 600 francs.
6. Trousseau, et renouvellement du même.

On

On entend bien, que les élèves nommés par le Roi, ou par le corps civique, sont exempts de la pension.

Occupations.—Les élèves, en quelque saison que ce soit, se levent à la pointe du jour, pour étudier jusqu'à 12 heures et demie, où l'on dîne. Ils s'amuse ensuite à jouer aux dames ; aux échecs ; à la boule au billard ; au volant. Il y en a qui vont à la leçon de dessein, ou de peinture ; d'autres à celle de cordonnier, ou de graveur sur bois, métaux, pierres ; et d'autres enfin à celle de ciseleur, ou de relieur ; tandis que les moins avancés continuent leurs leçons.

Les filles ont régulièrement une leçon de trois heures par jour, outre les leçons extraordinaires que le recteur juge à propos de leur donner ; après quoi, elles s'appliquent aux travaux propres à leur sexe. Dans les jours de fête, elles assistent à deux messes ; à l'explication de l'évangile, de la Bible, de la vie des Saints ; à la bénédiction du très-saint sacrement : l'après dîner, à la doctrine chrétienne.

Promenades.—Les garçons vont à la promenade deux fois la semaine, partagés par compagnies, dont chacune a, ou le directeur, ou l'un des maîtres. Les filles vont une fois la semaine, avec deux maîtresses, et une domestique.

Prix, Punitons.—Quoique une chambre de discipline soit portée par le règlement, le Père Assarotti cependant, fondateur, et son successeur, ont toujours été d'avis, qu'elle produirait un très-mauvais effet dans l'ame de jeunes garçons aussi sensibles, et aussi faciles à se dépitier. La plupart des punitons sont, par conséquent, morales. On les éloigne par exemple, ou on les repousse dans un coin de la table commune : on les réprimande avec chaleur ; mais toujours de manière qu'ils puissent entrevoir qu'il y a de la bienveillance par dedans. Voilà les moyens les plus efficaces, sans les effaroucher et les avilir.

Les recompenses sont très-legères et très-rares : on y substitue souvent un signe d'approbation ; un sourire ; une partie de campagne ; et cela fait, que les élèves sont très-attachés à leurs supérieurs.

Etudes.—Les études dependent entièrement du directeur, d'accord avec le président (l'archevêque). Elles sont au niveau de celles des autres institutions ; et embrassent en outre les langues Française, Anglaise, et Allemande, pour ceux qui ont assez de capacité pour en apprendre.

La méthode approche beaucoup de celle de France. Le Père Assarotti cependant y a fait de modifications si importantes et telles, qu'on peut bien dire, que c'est une méthode tout-à-fait particulière. Il a donné de si bonnes règles synthétiques de grammaire (étude la plus difficile pour celui qui n'a jamais entendu la parole,) que pour peu de réflexion que l'élève y fasse, il est impossible qu'il n'apprenne. Un jour, peut-être, ces règles verront-elles la lumière.

La meilleure méthode cependant, disait le Père Assarotti en plaisantant, c'est de n'en avoir aucune.

Enclosure (C.)

NOTICES sur l'Etablissement des ORPHELINS à Gènes.

QUELLES sont les autorités qui gouvernent l'établissement ; par qui sont elles constituées, et quelles sont leurs fonctions en général ?—L'établissement est gouverné par quatre administrateurs nobles, nommés à vie par le Roi, avec le titre de Députés, dont le plus âgé fait fonctions de président ; leurs attributions en général consistent à admettre dans l'établissement les orphelins qui y ont droit ; administrer les revenus, revendiquer les droits, et nommer les employés de l'établissement.

Les employés sont un recteur, un vice-recteur, deux préfets, un portier, un cuisinier, et trois personnes de service, qui vivent tous dans l'établissement. Il y a en outre quatre maîtres, qui viennent tous les jours donner leurs leçons aux élèves ; savoir, un de lecture et écriture et de premiers élémens de Latin ; un de grammaire et humanités ; un de langue Française et arithmétique ; et un enfin de calligraphie et de dessein. Il y a aussi quatre directeurs d'arts, qui viennent enseigner les élèves pendant toute la journée : ce sont un menuisier, un cordonnier, un tailleur, et un tricoteur. Il y a enfin un secrétaire d'administration, un computiste, et un bedeau. Le recteur, le vice-recteur, et les préfets, sont toujours des prêtres. L'établissement est pour les seuls garçons.

Quelle est la nature des rentes de l'établissement ; quelles sont les autorités qui les administrent ; comment en règle-t-on les dépenses, et sous quel contrôle ?—Les rentes se tirent des capitaux placés sur les Monts de Turin, de Rome, de Vienne, de Paris, et de Danemarck ; et de peu de fonds de terre, situés sur le lieu. La ville accorde aussi une subvention annuelle. Le total des revenus de l'établissement s'élève à vingt-sept mille francs environ. Ces revenus sont administrés par les quatre députés ci-dessus ; et les dépenses se font de la main du recteur, nommé par eux, et qui est leur procureur-général. A la fin de l'année, le recteur dresse un tableau général des revenus et des dépenses présumptives de l'année suivante, et il le soumet à la sanction des administrateurs réunis en séance. Dans le courant de l'année il fait les dépenses en conformité de ce tableau, et d'après les mandats qui lui sont délivrés par l'un des quatre députés, qui est particulièrement chargé de l'administration de la maison, et auquel le recteur remet tous les trois mois un état de l'entrée et de la sortie, en retenant un autre pour lui-même. Le premier de ces deux états passe à la secrétairerie de l'administration, pour y être enregistré.

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Genoa.

Quel est le nombre des orphélins; quels sont les titres pour y être admis; quelles les dépenses, et comment partage-t-on le tems pour l'étude, et pour les arts?—Le nombre des orphélins est actuellement de quatre-vingt. En 1824, époque qui a précédé l'entrée du recteur actuel, n'était que de trente-huit qui manquaient de tout. Les conditions pour y être admis, sont:

1. Être natif et habitant de Gênes; et que l'un des parens y soit né aussi.
2. Avoir sept ans accomplis, et n'avoir pas dépassé les douze.
3. Orphelin de père et de mère, ou de père seulement.
4. Certificat de pauvreté, délivré par son curé.
5. Avoir eu la petite-vérole, ou avoir été vacciné.

On ne dépense rien pour l'admission; au contraire, l'élève reçoit en sortant une gratification de 50 francs.

Il y a quatre classes pour ce qui regarde l'étude. La 1^{re} comprend la lecture, l'écriture, et la petite grammaire. La 2^e la grammaire Latine et Italienne, et les humanités. La 3^e la langue Française, et l'arithmétique. La 4^e la calligraphie et le dessin.

Il y a quatre classes aussi qui ont rapport à la mécanique. La 1^{re} comprend l'art du menuisier, partagé en ses branches de tourneur, graveur, &c. La 2^e celui du cordonnier. La 3^e celui du tailleur; et la 4^{me} celui du tricoteur.

Les orphélins se partagent en outre en deux autres classes à l'égard de la table. La première embrasse ceux qui sont au dessus de 12 ans, la seconde ceux au dessous.

L'heure du sommeil est depuis les 9 du soir, jusqu'à 6 du matin, soit d'été, que d'hiver. On dîne toujours à $\frac{3}{4}$ après midi. L'heure de l'étude est depuis les 8 jusqu'à 12 du matin; depuis les 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ jusqu'à 4 $\frac{1}{2}$; et depuis les 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ jusqu'à 7 du soir. Dans les jours de fête, il y a une heure et demie d'étude au matin et autant au soir. L'heure destinée aux arts, est depuis les 7 jusqu'à 12 du matin; et depuis une heure et demie jusqu'à 8 de l'après-dîné, en hiver; et jusqu'au soir en été. Les élèves de cette catégorie reçoivent, trois fois la semaine, un leçon de deux heures de lecture, écriture, et arithmétique.

L'heure de la récréation pour les élèves destinés exclusivement à l'étude, est depuis les 7 jusqu'à 8 heures du matin; depuis midi jusqu'à demi-heure; depuis 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ jusqu'à 2 $\frac{1}{4}$; depuis 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ jusqu'à 5 $\frac{1}{2}$; et depuis 7 jusqu'à 8 du soir.

Le tems consacré à la piété est réglé ainsi: depuis 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ on entend la messe; depuis 12 $\frac{1}{4}$ jusqu'à 12 $\frac{1}{2}$, et depuis 8 à 8 $\frac{1}{2}$, l'on prie. Dans les Dimanches, et dans les autres jours de fête, on assiste à deux messes, et à l'explication de l'évangile. Le Jeudi étant jour de repos, il n'y a qu'une heure d'instruction de catéchisme. On se confesse tous les 15 jours, dans les Jeudis, et on communique, si l'on est en âge.

Quelle est la nourriture?—La nourriture consiste en pain, vin, soupe, et une portion à dîner; en pain, vin, soupe, et dessert à souper; en pain, à déjeûner. Le pain est blanc; la soupe est fine; dans les solennités on y ajoute une portion.

La discipline et l'inspection à qui sont elles confiées?—La discipline ainsi que l'inspection sont exclusivement confiées au recteur, qui les exerce lui-même, en se faisant aider par les trois prêtres destinés à la garde et à l'éducation des élèves.

Quelles sont les punitions, et les prix?—On punit les élèves en leur otant le vin, ou la portion, et même l'un et l'autre. On les prive de la récréation, ou de la promenade, dont ils ne jouissent que dans les jours de fête; et on les renferme, s'il le faut, dans la salle de correction à pain et eau. Les incorrigibles sont expulsés de l'établissement. Les sages, et appliqués à l'étude, sont récompensés d'une décoration en argent, qu'on leur enlève s'ils s'en rendent indignes, pour la donner à ceux qui savent la gagner.

Jusqu'à quel âge les orphélins restent-ils dans l'établissement?—Jusqu'à seize ans. Avant 1814, on les renvoyait à 14.

Que deviennent-ils en sortant de l'établissement, et comment pourvoit-on à leur existence?—Les orphélins destinés exclusivement à l'étude, en sortant de l'établissement, sont, pour la plupart, employés dans de maisons de commerce, ou auprès de procureurs, ou dans des arts libéraux. Il y en a qui embrassent l'état ecclésiastique. Ceux qui ont été instruits dans les arts, sont placés chez les artisans respectifs de la ville. Le recteur s'occupe de tout son pouvoir pour leur assurer un sort à l'avenir. On trouve beaucoup d'élèves à Gênes, sortis de l'établissement, qui exercent honorablement la profession de notaire, de procureur, d'agent de commerce, et d'autres charges publiques.

Quelles réformes, et quels autres changemens a-t-on en vue?—Aucun changement, aucune réforme, qu'on sache, ne sont en vue. Il serait cependant à désirer: 1. Une école de géométrie, et une de navigation; la première serait d'un grand avantage aux artistes, et la seconde formerait d'excellens navigateurs. 2. Les élèves devraient s'arrêter dans l'établissement jusqu'à l'âge de 18 ans au moins, où les élèves artisans pourraient sortir instruits de manière à gagner entièrement leur vie, et à se conduire eux-mêmes dans la société; et les élèves qu'on destine aux études, pourraient recevoir cette instruction complète, qu'ils sont bien loin d'espérer au sein de leurs pauvres familles, et dont le manque n'est que trop souvent un obstacle à leur avancement. Cela exigerait absolument un école de philosophie.

Il serait enfin très-avantageux pour l'établissement, que le directeur fût du nombre des députés, comme celui, qui connaissant de plus près les besoins de l'institution, serait à la portée de proposer les réformes, et les modifications les plus nécessaires au bien-être des élèves.

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ETAT de la MENDICITE et des PAUVRES dans les *Etats Sardes*.Foreign
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MENDIANTS.

1. Jusqu'à quel point, et sous quelles forms, la mendicité existe-t-elle dans les différentes provinces du pays?—La mendicité n'est point défendue par les lois : toute personne qui est censée être dans l'impossibilité de se procurer, par son travail, de quoi se maintenir lui et sa famille, peut s'établir dans les rues, et demander l'aumône aux passans. Le Gouvernement et les autorités des différentes localités ont plusieurs fois vainement tenté de réprimer les abus sans nombre qui naissent de cette faculté illimitée. Les réglemens qui ont été fait dans ce but, n'ont jamais pu être exécutés d'une manière efficace. Ils sont tous restés sans effet. On applique toutefois assez souvent la loi qui défend aux pauvres de mendier hors de leurs communes. Lorsque, dans une ville, les mendiants étrangers affluent en grande abondance, les autorités municipales les en expulsent en masse, laissant le soin à la gendarmerie de leur faire regagner leur pays natal, ou le lieu où ils sont censés avoir un domicile. Mais comme il n'y a aucune peine correctionnelle pour sanctionner cette loi, ils ne tardent pas à la violer de nouveau, en s'éloignant de chez eux, s'ils trouvent une trop grande difficulté à vivre.

Il n'existe aucun document qui puisse servir à fixer, même approximativement, le nombre total des mendiants. Il dépend d'ailleurs en partie de plusieurs causes qui varient continuellement ; telles que l'abondance des récoltes, la rigueur des saisons, les vicissitudes de certaines industries qui occupent un grand nombre de bras.

La mendicité est répandue, quoique à des degrés différens, dans tout le pays. Elle existe à peine dans les vallées des Alpes ; au contraire, dans les vallées des Appenins, le nombre des mendiants est fort considérable ; comme il l'est en général dans tous les endroits où les châtaignes sont la nourriture ordinaire des classes inférieures.

2. Y-a-t-il des secours destinés pour les personnes qui parcourent le pays, soit qu'elles s'en retournent chez elles, soit qu'elles cherchent de l'ouvrage, et soit même qu'elles mendient?—Il n'en existe pas. Toutefois, si un ouvrier, étranger au pays qu'il habite, vient, par suite d'accident ou de maladie, à se trouver dans l'impossibilité de gagner sa vie en travaillant, et qu'il soit hors d'état de s'en retourner chez-lui sans secours, les autorités municipales de l'endroit, et successivement celles de tous les pays qui se trouvent sur la route, sont tenues de lui fournir des moyens de transport. A Turin, on donne quelques légers secours pécuniaires à tous les ouvriers qui s'en retournent chez-eux : cet usage n'est pas général.

PAUVRES BIEN-PORTANS.

1. Sont-ils logés gratuitement dans des maisons particulières?—Cela ne se pratique nulle part en Piémont.

2. Sont-ils mis en pension chez des particuliers?—Même réponse.

3. Y-a-t-il des établissemens pour les pauvres bien-portans, et leurs familles, où on les fasse travailler en leur fournissant de la nourriture et des habillemens?—Il n'en existe pas. Le seul essai de ce genre qu'on a tenté il y a quelques années à Raconis a complètement échoué dès le commencement devant d'immenses obstacles, et des inconveniens de tous les genres. Il existe bien près de Turin un établissement, qui s'appelle l'Ergastolo, où l'on retire les jeunes vagabonds, et où on les soumet à un travail continuel : mais quoiqu'il suffise d'un simple ordre de la police pour y être renfermé, sans aucune forme de procès, on le considère plutôt comme une maison de correction, que comme une maison de travail.

4. Jusqu'à quel point les congrégations religieuses secourent-elles les pauvres ; soit en leur distribuant des aumônes, soit en les retirant dans les maisons qui leur appartiennent?—Il y a toujours des couvens où l'on distribue à la porte des soupes, du pain et autres objets alimentaires. Cependant cet usage déplorable est maintenant trop restreint pour produire sur la population pauvre un effet sensible, si ce n'est peut-être dans quelque parties de la rivière de Gênes, où les ordres mendiants sont les plus nombreux, et la misère la plus grande.

Plusieurs institutions charitables ont des noms et des formes religieuses ; mais elles ne s'occupent que rarement des pauvres valides ; leur objet principal est de soigner les malades et les infirmes. A Turin et à Gênes, il y a deux compagnies de la miséricorde, qui ont pour objet unique de secourir les prisonniers : elles leur fournissent des vivres, des habillemens, et même des couvertures pour l'hiver, sans cependant s'ingérer de la discipline des prisons, qui depend entièrement des magistrats publics.

5. Jusqu'à quel point fournit-on de l'ouvrage à domicile aux ouvriers qui ont un métier?—Cela se pratique fort peu, même par les personnes charitables ; c'est tout au plus si elles s'occupent quelquefois de procurer à de pauvres femmes dans la misère, du lin, ou du chavvre, pour qu'elles puissent se gagner quelque chose en filant.

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6. Jusqu'à quel point occupe-t-on ces mêmes ouvriers à des travaux d'agriculture, ou d'utilité publique?—Lorsqu'il y a beaucoup de misère à cause de l'insuffisance des récoltes, ou de la rigueur des saisons, les autorités municipales, soit spontanément, soit sur l'invitation et avec l'aide du Gouvernement, entreprennent pendant l'hiver des travaux d'utilité publique pour procurer de l'ouvrage à tous les pauvres valides. Cela a lieu surtout dans les grandes villes, comme Turin et Gênes.

7. Jusqu'à quel point leur distribue-t-on des secours en nature et en argent?—Ils ne reçoivent jamais, ni du Gouvernement, ni des municipalités, aucun secours; mais ils sont entièrement abandonnés à la charité privée. Dans les occasions solennelles cependant, telles que l'anniversaire de la restauration de la monarchie, ou la célébration de la fête du Roi, un certain nombre de distributions gratuites de comestibles et d'habillemens ont toujours lieu aux familles les plus nécessiteuses.

8. Leur accorde-t-on un secours en plaçant leurs enfans dans des écoles, pour leur faire apprendre un métier; et où on les nourrisse, et les habille?—Il existe un assez grand nombre d'écoles gratuites; mais il n'y en a aucune où les enfans soient habillés et nourris aux fraix de l'établissement. Cependant dans les nouvelles salles d'asile que des personnes charitables, suivant l'exemple généreux que leur a donné le M^s de Barolo, viennent de fonder, il est accordé chaque jour un repas gratis aux enfans.

9. Jusqu'à quel degré, l'obligation de secourir les parens dans la misère subsiste-t-elle; et comment ces secours sont-ils réglés?—Les pères et mères sont tenus à fournir à leurs enfans des moyens d'existence, soit en les tenant chez eux, soit en leur donnant une pension alimentaire. La même obligation existe pour les enfans vis-à-vis des auteurs de leurs jours, lorsqu'ils n'ont plus de moyen d'existence. La loi n'oblige à rien pour tous les autres degrés de parenté. Ainsi un homme dans l'opulence peut laisser périr son frère de misère, sans être forcé le moins du monde à le secourir.

10. Sont-ils secourus par des prêts, ou par des avances de capitaux?—Jamais par le Gouvernement, ni par aucune autorité publique: seulement il existe dans un grand nombre de villes des monts-de-piété, qui prêtent sur gage à six pour cent d'intérêt. Ces établissemens ont des réglemens fort rigoureux. Le malheureux emprunteur, s'il ne peut pas libérer avant le terme fixé l'objet engagé, on le met en vente quelle que soit souvent sa valeur comparée avec le montant de sa dette. Malgré cela, le nombre des personnes qui y ont recours est immense; et je ne crois exagérer en disant, qu'il n'y a que bien peu de pauvres ménagers qui n'aient quelques meubles, ou quelques hardes, parmi les dépôts des monts-de-piété.

DES PAUVRES RENDUS INCAPABLES DE TRAVAILLER PAR LEUR AGE.

1. Y-a-t-il des hospices pour recevoir ceux que l'âge a mis dans l'impossibilité de gagner leur vie en travaillant?—Il n'existe aucun établissement dans ce but; cependant comme il y a plusieurs hospices destinés aux incurables, on parvient quelquefois à y faire recevoir des pauvres gens dont la seule maladie est l'affaiblissement cause par un âge avancé.

2. Leur donne-t-on des secours à domicile, en nature, et en argent?—Le Gouvernement et les autorités municipales n'en donnent jamais; mais il y a plusieurs institutions charitables qui distribuent des secours à domicile. A Turin, par exemple, la congrégation de St. Paul a de très-grandes ressources. La loi établit en outre, que dans chaque commune il doit y avoir une congrégation de charité. Dans le fait, il n'en existe que dans un certain nombre de villages et de villes, presque toutes les communes rurales en étant privées. Là, où elles existent, leurs ressources se composent des revenus de fondations particulières, du produit de certaines quêtes, faites à diverses époques de l'année, soit dans les maisons, soit dans les églises, des dons faits par des personnes charitables. Ces congrégations font certainement beaucoup de bien; mais n'étant pas soumises à un réglemant uniforme, et à une direction centrale, il s'ensuit une grande diversité, et une grande irregularité, dans la manière dont chacune d'elles s'administre: source d'immenses abus, que, dans l'état actuel des choses, il est impossible non seulement de réprimer, mais même de constater.

Il se fait aussi une grande quantité d'aumônes par les mains des curés. Ce sont, sans aucun doute, les mieux distribuées et les plus efficaces; un grand nombre en est consacré aux vieillards impotens.

3. Le met-on en pension?—Jamais par les établissemens publics, et bien rarement par des personnes charitables.

4. Les loge-t-on chez des particuliers?—Même réponse.

5. Quels secours leurs parens sont ils obligés de leur accorder?—Comme nous avons déjà eu occasion de le dire, les enfans sont seuls tenus de pourvoir à la subsistance de leur père et de leur mère. Cette sainte obligation n'est que trop souvent bien imparfaitement remplie.

DES MALADES.

1. Quels établissemens y a-t-il pour soigner les malades pauvres, et quels sont leurs réglemens?—Dans toutes les villes, et même dans un grand nombre de gros bourgs, il y a des hôpitaux; ainsi tout individu atteint d'une maladie aiguë, ou ayant subi un accident grave

grave qui nécessite une opération chirurgicale, est sûr de trouver un établissement public où il sera soigné jusqu'à son entière guérison. Il n'en est pas de même pour les maladies chroniques ou incurables : celles-ci ne sont pas traitées que dans un petit nombre d'hospices, ou il n'est possible de retirer qu'une bien faible portion des individus qui en sont atteints. La plus part de ces malheureux sont abandonnées aux soins de la charité privée. Les conditions d'admission varient beaucoup suivant les différens hôpitaux ; dans le plus grand nombre c'est la fièvre qui constitue la maladie aigue.

Les hôpitaux ont presque tous des revenus en fond de terre, ou des capitaux sur les fonds de l'état, ou prêtés à des particuliers. Ils reçoivent en outre, lorsque ces revenus sont insuffisans, des subventions sur les deniers des communes et des provinces, et de nombreuses aumônes des personnes charitables. L'administration des hôpitaux n'est pas uniforme ; elle varie suivant les endroits ; en général cependant c'est le Gouvernement qui y exerce, plus ou moins directement, une influence prépondérante. Dans quelques villes, l'autorité ecclésiastique, et les chapîtres de chanoines, ont une part dans l'administration des hôpitaux ; c'est ordinairement là qu'il y a le moins d'ordre et plus d'abus.

2. Les médecins de les chirurgiens visitent-ils chez-eux les pauvres malades ?—Dans le plus grand nombre des communes, il y a des médecins et des chirurgiens que reçoivent une subvention annuelle, soit des autorités municipales, soit des institutions de charité, avec l'obligation de donner gratuitement leurs soins à tous les malades trop pauvres pour les payer. A Turin, et dans quelques autres endroits, il y a en outre des pharmacies où l'on distribue gratis un certain nombre de remèdes les plus usuels et les plus nécessaires, à tous ceux qui sont munis d'un certificat de pauvreté du curé de leur paroisse, toutes les fois que les médecins l'ordonnent.

3. Quels secours, en nature et en argent, les pauvres reçoivent-ils chez-eux ?—Ils n'en reçoivent que des institutions charitables particulières et de la bienfaisance privée. En général les malades qui ne peuvent pas être admis dans les hôpitaux, sont dans un état pitoyable de misère et de dénuement.

4. Quels secours les femmes en couches reçoivent-elles chez-elles et dans les établissemens publics ?—Il y a à Turin, et dans d'autres villes, des hôpitaux pour les femmes en couches. On les y reçoit moyennant un certificat de pauvreté de leur curé.

A Turin, il existe une société, dite des Puerpère, que distribue des secours à toutes les accouchées pauvres. Ses moyens sont fort limités ; d'après les comptes des deux dernières années, il résulte que chaque femme n'a reçu que quatre francs en argent, une fois pour toutes.

5. Quels autres secours publics y a-t-il pour les malades ?—Il n'y en a aucun autre que je sache.

DES ENFANS :

Illégitimes.

1. Sur qui la charge de l'enfant illégitime tombe-t-elle : est-ce sur le père, sur la mère, ou bien sur tous les deux ? dans ce cas, quelle est la proportion suivant laquelle elle est répartie ?—Si une fille a eu un enfant d'un homme non marié, elle a recours devant le tribunal ecclésiastique, c'est-à-dire l'officialité de son diocèse, pour forcer le seducteur à l'épouser. Si elle parvient à établir sa bonne conduite antérieure, et à prouver qu'il a été usé envers elle de promesses ou d'autres moyens de séduction, le tribunal ordonne le mariage. Le défendeur peut s'y refuser ; mais alors la cause est portée devant les juges civils, qui, admettant comme constaté, sans besoin de preuves ultérieures, le fait de la séduction, arbitrent une indemnité en faveur de la fille, proportionnée aux circonstances particulières du cas.

Quant à l'enfant, la loi déclare qu'il a droit à une pension alimentaire, et qu'il peut la réclamer tant de son père que de sa mère. Il arrive donc que c'est tantôt le père, tantôt la mère qui supportent les fraix du bâtard. En général c'est le plus riche des deux, et par conséquent c'est presque toujours l'homme.

Il faut d'ailleurs observer que, grâce à la disposition constante des tribunaux ecclésiastiques à accueillir favorablement les réclamations des filles séduites dans le but de réparer par le mariage le mal qui a été fait, et à la grande facilité de se débarrasser des enfans illégitimes en les portant dans les hospices pour les enfans trouvés, le nombre des bâtards élevés dans les maisons particulières est extrêmement limité, même dans les plus basses classes de la société.

2. Dans quels cas, et jusqu'à quel point, les parens du père et de la mère de l'enfant illégitime, sont ils tenus de concourir aux fraix de la subsistance ?—Si le seducteur est fils de famille, et se trouve sous la domination paternelle, lors de sa liaison avec la fille qu'il a rendu mère, celle-ci a recours contre ses parens pour en obtenir l'indemnité voulue par la loi. De même, le fils naturel peut réclamer la pension alimentaire à laquelle il a droit, soit de son aïeul paternel, soit de l'hoirie paternelle ou maternelle, si son père et sa mère sont morts sans faire de provisions en sa faveur.

3. Quelles institutions y a-t-il en faveur des enfans illégitimes, et à quels réglemens sont elles soumises ?—Dans plusieurs villes, il y a des hospices où l'on reçoit tous les enfans en bas âge, sans rechercher ni leur origine ni leur nom. Les parens peuvent demeurer parfaitement inconnus ; pour cela ils n'ont qu'à déposer, à la nuit close, leur enfant dans

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une roue qui dans tous ces hospices communique de la rue dans l'intérieur de la maison, à sonner la cloche pour avertir la personne de garde, et à s'en aller. La roue tourne, on en retire l'enfant, on le reçoit dans l'hospice, en l'inscrivant suivant un numero d'ordre, et il ne reste plus de traces de la manière dont il y est entré.

Les enfans reçoivent dans les hospices une éducation complète ; on leur apprend à lire et à écrire, et on leur enseigne un métier. Lorsqu'ils sont en âge de gagner leur vie, les administrateurs tachent de les placer avantageusement ; ceux que quelque difformité naturelle rend incapables de gagner leur vie, sont gardés dans l'établissement, où l'on tâche de les employer, soit comme gardes-malades, ou de toute autre manière.

Des Orphélins, des Enfans trouvés, et des Enfans abandonnés.

1. Les reçoit-on dans des établissemens publics ? 2. Sont ils mis en pension chez des particuliers ? 3. Les loge-t-on dans des maisons particulières ? 4. Jusqu'à quel degré de parenté y a-t-il l'obligation de les secourir ?—Une seule réponse suffira aux quatre demandes ci-dessus.

Dans les hospices, on ne reçoit que les enfans en bas âge qu'on y apporte. Les autres enfans fussent-ils abandonnés de toute la terre, ne peuvent plus y être admis légalement. Je dis légalement, parceque les réglemens s'y opposent, quoiqu'en pratique on viole souvent en faveur de cas particuliers cette severe prescription.

Il y a des établissemens destinés pour les orphélins ; il y en a un à Gênes, tenu avec beaucoup de luxe ; et un autre à Turin, où les filles seules sont admises. Ils sont bien loin de suffire à cette classe nombreuse d'êtres aussi intéressans que malheureux.

Hors de ces établissemens, il n'y a aucun secours public pour les orphélins et les enfans abandonnés ; ils sont entièrement à la charge de la charité privée.

Quant aux obligations des parens, il n'y a que le grand-père et la grand-mère paternels des orphélins qui soient tenus à les secourir.

DES BOITEUX, DES SOURDS ET MUETS, ET DES AVEUGLES.

1. Y a-t-il des établissemens publics pour les recevoir ? 2. Les place-t-on dans des maisons particulières ?—De même que ci-dessus, une seule réponse suffira aux deux demandes.

Il n'y a aucun établissement pour les personnes estropiées ou difformes. Dans les hôpitaux même où l'on traite les maladies chirurgicales, dès qu'un individu cesse d'avoir besoin des secours de l'art, on le renvoie, quant il aurait perdu même l'usage de tous ses membres.

Il y a à Gênes un établissement pour les sourds et muets, qui jouit d'une juste célébrité ; on y admet gratuitement les enfans pauvres qui satisfont à de certaines conditions.

Il n'y a aucune institution pour les aveugles.

Hors des établissemens publics, le Gouvernement n'intervient jamais à faveur de ces malheureux ; ils sont laissés à la charité publique.

Ce qui a été dit plus haut sur les obligations des parens est applicable ici.

DES IDIOTS ET DES FOUS.

1. Quels établissemens y a-t-il pour les recevoir ? 2. Sont-ils placés en pension chez des particuliers ? 3. Les place-t-on dans des maisons particulières ? 4. Quelles sont les obligations de leurs parens ?—Nous ne répondrons qu'à la première question ; ce qui a été dit ci-dessus s'applique parfaitement aux trois autres.

Il y a deux grands établissemens pour les fous ; l'un est à Turin, l'autre est à Gênes. Dans tous les deux on paie une modique pension. Ceux qui sont hors de cas de le faire, sont admis tout de même, mais c'est leur comune ou leur province qui paie pour eux. Dans quelques cas rares, on reçoit sans rétribution des individus aliénés.

Il y a dans quelques pays de montagnes, dans la vallée d'Aoste surtout, un grand nombre d'idiots, qu'on appelle vulgairement Crétins. Ils sont pour la plupart doux et inoffensifs ; aussi sont-ils l'objet de la commisération et de la pitié de tous leurs concitoyens. Il y a une telle émulation à les secourir et à leur fournir ce dont ils ont besoin, qu'il n'arrive jamais qu'on soit obligé de retirer un de ces malheureux dans un hospice. On sait d'ailleurs par une touchante croyance populaire, que la protection du Ciel est attachée à la maison habitée par un crétin.

EFFETS DES INSTITUTIONS DE CHARITE.

1. Sur l'industrie des ouvriers ? 2. Sur leur frugalité ? 3. Sur les rapports de dépendance et d'affection entre les pères et mères, leurs enfans et les autres parens ?—Les institutions de charité ne faisant, comme on l'a vû, que soulager un petit nombre des infortunés les plus graves, et s'abstenant de rien faire pour le pauvre valide, mais sans travail, ne sauraient excercer aucun effet fâcheux sur l'industrie et les habitudes morales des classes les moins fortunées de la société. S'il existe malheureusement parmi elles une si déplorable imprévoyance et si peu d'émulation, ce ne sont point les institutions de charité qu'il faut accuser, mais bien plutôt la profonde ignorance dans laquelle on les laisse croupir.

4. Sur

4. Sur l'âge auquel ils se marient ? 5. Sur la condition du journalier faisant un travail ordinaire, comparée à celle des individus qui vivent d'aumônes et de la charité publique ?— De même ce n'est point aux encouragemens que donne la charité publique, qu'il faut imputer le grand nombre de mariages précoces et imprévoyans qui se contractent. Si on en excepte ceux qui ont lieu entre des mendiens de profession, ils sont dûs, pour la plupart, d'abord à la disposition bien naturelle à des gens grossiers et ignorans à se livrer aux impulsions des passions du moment, sans s'inquiéter des conséquences de l'avenir; et ensuite au zèle aveugle que le clergé, et les personnes dévotes, mettent à encourager toutes espèces de mariages, dans le but erroné de parer aux désordres de mœurs et aux scandales des liaisons illégitimes.

Les rapports de famille ne sont nullement affectés par les institutions de charité. Telles qu'elles sont, l'homme pauvre regardera toujours ses parens comme son unique soutien contre l'adversité. D'ailleurs la loi Romaine sur l'autorité paternelle existant dans toute sa plénitude, les unions de familles sont plus faciles et plus communes que partout ailleurs.

On ne peut pas comparer le prix du travail du journalier honnête et indépendant, avec le gain des mendiens : il y a une si immense différence entre l'existence honorable de l'un, et l'humiliation, l'avilissement, la dégradation morale de l'autre, que, quoiqu'il fut possible que certains individus, habiles à exploiter la pitié du public, gagnassent beaucoup au de là de ce que rapporte un travail ordinaire, néanmoins leur sort ne serait pas comparable.

DE L'ETAT DES CLASSES OUVRIERES.

1. Quel est en général le taux du salaire d'un journalier, soit qu'il travaille à la journée, au mois, ou à l'année, soit qu'il reçoive, ou qu'il ne reçoive pas de provisions en nature ?— Un ouvrier ordinaire travaillant à la campagne, pendant le quatre mois d'été, gagne de 20 à 25 sous par jour : pendant les mois d'hiver, il ne gagne plus que de 12 à 15 sous ; et dans la moyenne saison de 15 à 20 sous : il y a peu d'ouvriers à la semaine ou au mois. Les valets de ferme, les bergers, et d'autres encore ayant un service permanent, reçoivent des gâges annuels. On leur fournit en général la quantité des denrées strictement nécessaire pour leur subsistance et celle de leur famille, et on leur donne de plus une somme en argent que varie de 80 à 100 francs. Les ouvriers, pendant les récoltes, reçoivent un salaire un peu plus fort, qui varie annuellement, selon l'abondance du travail, comparée au nombre des ouvriers qui se présentent sur le marché. L'usage général est de les nourrir tout le tems. Dans plusieurs endroits, à Santena par exemple, on ne fait faire les récoltes par des ouvriers payés à tant la journée, mais on donne à ceux qui la font une part proportionnelle de ce que l'on récolte. Ce mode est infiniment plus avantageux pour les paysans.

Le nombre des journaliers est peu nombreux en Piémont comparé à ce qu'il est en Angleterre : cela vient, 1^o, de la grande division des propriétés, qui fait que beaucoup de propriétaires cultivent leurs terres eux-mêmes ; 2^o, de la culture à métayer qui existe généralement : le métayer travaille, lui et sa famille, les terres de sa ferme, et il a rarement besoin d'ouvriers étrangers. Les ouvriers des villes gagnent quelques sous de plus que ceux des campagnes ; mais cette légère différence est (pour les simples manœuvres) plus que compensée par la grande cherté des loyers, et le plus haut prix des comestibles. Quant aux artisans qui exercent une profession qui exige un apprentissage et de l'habileté, ils peuvent gagner depuis deux francs jusqu'à cinq par jour. Le premier chiffre est à peu près le taux de la journée du maçon et du garçon charpentier, le second celui de l'orfèvre habile.

2. L'usage de donner de l'ouvrage à la tâche, est-il général ?—Quoiqu'on ne puisse pas dire que cet usage soit général, néanmoins il est très-répandu. Il s'est encore étendu dernièrement pour l'introduction des tissages à domicile. En agriculture même, les ouvrages à la tâche sont usités. Il arrive souvent que plusieurs ouvriers s'associent pour entreprendre un ouvrage dont le prix a été fixé d'avance.

3. Quel est, somme totale, ce qu'un ouvrier ordinaire peut gagner dans une année, en travaillant à la tâche ? Que peut-il gagner en travaillant à la journée ?—J'estime qu'un ouvrier ordinaire, travaillant à la campagne toute l'année, peut gagner de 200 à 300 francs ; ce qui fait 5 à 6 francs par semaine. Le simple manœuvre ne trouvera guères dans les villes à exécuter des travaux à la tâche. L'artisan, au contraire, s'il est rangé et laborieux, en trouvera tant qu'il voudra. J'estime que dans ce cas, il peut gagner de 20 à 30 pour cent en sus de l'ouvrier travaillant à la journée.

Ce qui a été dit ci-dessus, suffit pour donner une idée de ce que peut gagner un journalier par jour. Pour les habitans de la campagne, il y a une autre espèce de profit dont il faut tenir compte ; c'est le produit des vers-à-soie. Quelque pauvre que soit une famille de paysan, il est rare qu'elle n'ait pas les moyens d'élever une once ou deux de ces précieux insectes, qui doivent lui rapporter un gain net de quarante à soixante francs. Ce produit varie beaucoup suivant les différentes provinces : dans les pays de collines il est plus élevé. Cependant il ne change pas le sort des paysans ; car j'ai observé que dans les endroits, où les vers-à-soie étaient plus productifs, le prix de la main d'œuvre est au dessous du pris moyen du pays.

4. Quelles sont les dépenses des journaliers et autres ouvriers, en y comprenant les fraix d'école pour les enfans ?—La nourriture ordinaire de l'ouvrier se compose de la *polente* (c'est-à-dire de la farine de bled de Turquie, faite bouillir dans l'eau avec du sel),

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de pain bis, et de quelques soupes de légumes, de pâtes, ou de riz, qui ne sont pas souvent assaisonnées avec du lard. Il ne mange de la viande que deux ou trois fois dans l'année, dans les occasions les plus solennelles, et, excepté dans les pays de vignobles, il ne boit que fort peu de vin, d'une qualité tout à fait inférieure. Dans quelques parties du Piémont les chataignes et le lait font la base principale de la nourriture des pauvres gens. L'usage des pommes de terre est borné, jusqu'à présent, aux pays de montagnes. L'ouvrier peut se procurer la nourriture dont nous venons de parler, moyennant six sous par jour, ce qui constitue une dépense annuelle de 110 francs. S'il est marié, avec des enfans, la somme nécessaire pour la nourriture de la famille, sera le double et au delà. Il y a ensuite les dépenses de l'habillement, du blanchissage, de la manutention des ustensiles du ménage, et le loyer de la maison qu'il habite. Toutes réunies, elles égaleront, s'il est célibataire, celles que lui cause sa nourriture, et ne seront que moitié, s'il est marié. Ainsi donc un ouvrier non marié, ne peut pas vivre à moins de 220 à 250 francs par an. L'homme marié avec une famille aura besoin de 500 francs au moins. D'après l'estimation que nous avons faite plus haut, des gains de l'ouvrier à la journée, et à l'année, on voit que la recette et la dépense se balancent assez exactement. Il suffit donc du moindre désordre, ou du moindre malheur, pour réduire l'ouvrier à la misère, et lui faire contracter des dettes.

5. Y a-t-il de l'ouvrage pour les femmes et les enfans?—A la campagne, les femmes ont de l'ouvrage une grande partie de l'année. Le prix de leur journée peut s'évaluer par approximation au deux tiers de celui de la journée d'un travailleur ordinaire. Il y a peu d'ouvrage pour les enfans au-dessous de quinze ans. On les envoie garder les troupeaux, mais il est rare qu'ils soient employés par d'autres que leurs parens.

Dans les villes, les femmes s'occupent des ouvrages qui sont propres à leur sexe; et elles sont presque toutes employées. Un grand nombre servent dans des maisons particulières; d'autres travaillent chez les marchands tailleurs; enfin il y en a plusieurs dans les manufactures, soit de soie, soit de draps, soit de cotons. Quelques manufactures commencent à employer des enfans. A peu près deux mille travaillent dans les filatures de soie. Le prix de leur journée s'éloigne peu de dix sous.

6. Qu'est ce qu'une femme, et un enfant au-dessous de seize ans, peuvent gagner par semaine?—Une femme peut gagner trois francs par semaine pendant huit mois de l'année. Pendant l'hiver elle n'a d'autres ressources que de filer des chanvre, ce qui ne lui rapporte guère au-delà de cinq sous ou 2 francs par semaine au plus.

Les gains de la femme sont employés à faire face aux dépenses du ménage. Peut-être en consacre-t-elle une partie à tenir ses habillemens en bon état, ou à s'acheter quelques uns de ces petits ornemens qui tiennent tant à cœur à la vanité féminine.

7. Qu'est ce que peut gagner dans le courant d'une année la femme d'un laboureur, assistée de quatre enfans, en les supposant respectivement âgés de 14, 11, 8 et 5 ans, et que l'aîné soit un garçon?—En tenant compte du produit des vers-à-soie, qu'une femme peut aussi bien élever qu'un homme, je crois que cette famille peut gagner de 250 à 300 francs dans l'année. Si l'on faisait cependant une commune de tous les ménages du pays, je crains qu'on ne trouvait ces chiffres trop élevés.

8. Un ouvrier ayant une famille telle que nous l'avons supposée ci-dessus, peut-il vivre sans secours?—Je crois qu'il le peut: toutefois il sera obligé de se contenter de la nourriture la plus simple et la plus grossière; il ne pourra point faire usage de la viande et ne boire que peu de vin: il sera obligé de consommer deux fois plus de farine de maïs que de farine de froment. Malgré toute l'économie possible, si les récoltes ont été mauvaises, et que par suite les denrées soient chères, il lui sera presque impossible d'arriver jusqu'à la fin de l'année, sans avoir recours à la charité de ses voisins, ou des habitans de sa commune; elle ne saurait lui manquer, s'il a toujours été honnête, s'il jouit d'une bonne réputation.

9. Peut-il faire des épargnes?—Cela me paraît absolument impossible.

10. Quelle est la quantité de terrain annexée ordinairement aux habitations des journaliers?—Une très-petite quantité. Les propriétaires et les fermiers accordent aux valets de ferme qu'ils emploient le tiers ou le quart d'un acre pour y cultiver quelques légumes. Les journaliers qui ne possèdent pas de maison, trouvent difficilement à louer des habitations avec un jardin de quelque étendue: cela arrive pourtant quelquefois.

11. A quelles classes de personnes les maisons de journalier appartiennent-elles?—Une partie appartient aux journaliers eux-mêmes; les autres sont pour la plupart à des petits propriétaires. Il est rare qu'un homme jouissant d'une grande fortune en possède un grand nombre; pour l'ordinaire, il n'a pas de quoi loger tous ceux qui travaillent sur ses terres.

12. Quel est le prix du loyer d'une habitation commune de journalier, et quel est leur prix de vente?—Un journalier peut se loger suivant l'usage du pays, c'est-à-dire, en ayant trois chambres, deux pour la famille et une pour le ménage, moyennant quarante à cinquante francs par an. Le capital employé à la construction de maisons de paysans ne saurait rapporter de bénéfices extraordinaires, dans un pays où les matériaux sont à la portée de tout le monde, et où il y a un nombre très-grand de maçons et de charpentiers.

13. Les journaliers trouvent-ils à louer de petites quantités de terre, et à quel prix?—Ce n'est guère l'usage en Piémont, excepté peut-être dans les pays de vignobles, où un ouvrier

ouvrier loue volontiers deux ou trois arpens de vignes, à la culture desquels il emploie une partie de son travail. Les paysans, dès qu'ils possèdent quelques petits capitaux, ne se soucient guère de l'industrie du fermage : ils préfèrent se livrer à un petit commerce, ou à se faire les fonds nécessaires pour obtenir une bonne métairie.

Il est absolument impossible de faire la moindre réponse aux questions qui se suivent depuis le N° 14, jusqu'au N° 23, et qui ont rapport au mouvement annuel de la population ; attendu qu'il n'existe pas de registres de l'état civil ; et que le gouvernement ne s'est jamais occupé de recueillir le plus petit document statistique qui aurait rapport à ces questions, qui sont cependant d'une aussi haute importance.

23. Quelles sont les causes par lesquelles les mariages sont retardés ?—La conscription, qui oblige presque tous les jeunes gens vigoureux à un service militaire, plus ou moins suivi, jusqu'à l'âge de trente ans, a bien un certain effet, et tend à faire marier les jeunes gens un peu plus tard, qu'ils ne le feraient sans cela. Cependant il est moins puissant qu'on ne serait d'abord porté à la croire ; car malgré la douloureuse nécessité où sont les soldats mariés de quitter de tems en tems leurs femmes, je ne crois pas que les célibataires forment plus d'un tiers des contingens.

24. Quelles épargnes un homme marié, et un célibataire, peuvent-ils faire ?—Bien peu. Il y a d'ailleurs beaucoup d'improvoyance dans le peuple ; et il est rare que même les meilleurs ouvriers, ceux qui ont de gros salaires, ne dépensent pas tout ce qu'ils gagnent. Dès qu'on monte un degré dans l'échelle sociale, la question change complètement. En effet, les petits propriétaires, les petits commerçans, les petits industriels, sont tous extrêmement rangés, et ils augmentent pour la plupart leur fortune.

25. Comment les épargnes sont-elles employées ?—L'administration de Turin a vainement tenté, dans son zèle pour le bien du peuple, d'introduire l'inappréciable institution des caisses d'épargnes. Tous ses efforts sont restés sans résultats. L'ouvrier aime mieux, s'il ne dépense pas tout son profit au cabaret, thésauriser, dans le but d'amasser de quoi se rendre indépendant ; soit, s'il est à la campagne, en achetant un petit morceau de terrain ; soit, s'il est en ville, en fondant un établissement pour son compte.

Enclosure (E.)

LA MENDICITE A Gênes.

1. La mendicité publique, n'étant pas actuellement défendue, il est difficile de connoître et d'établir le nombre des individus qui se livrent à cet état. On peut cependant conjecturer qu'il existe au moins deux cent mendiants dans la ville de Gênes, ce qui, en ajoutant leurs familles, ou du moins ceux des membres de leurs familles qui vivent sur le produit de leur quête, peut en porter le nombre de six à sept cent.

2. Les pauvres non mendiants, et sans emploi, sont secourus à domicile par le magistrat de miséricorde, par les dames de miséricorde, et par d'autres administrateurs charitables, qui leur distribuent le revenu de beaucoup de legs pieux qu'elles sont chargées d'administrer.

3. Les enfans des pauvres, à quelque classe qu'ils appartiennent, sont instruits gratuitement dans les écoles publiques primaires, administrées par l'autorité municipale. Six de ces écoles sont destinées aux garçons, et deux aux jeunes filles.

4. Il y a à Gênes un mont de piété, où les pauvres peuvent emprunter sur gage, à l'intérêt de huit pour cent.

5. Les pauvres de tout âge depuis la première enfance, natifs de la ville de Gênes, sont reçus, logés, et nourris gratuitement, dans l'hospice des pauvres, jusqu'à la concurrence des moyens de cet établissement. On y reçoit aussi les autres pauvres du Duché, moyennant une rétribution modique.

6. Deux grands hopitaux existent à Gênes ; l'un destiné au traitement des maladies aiguës, l'autre aux incurables, et aux aliénés. On vient de commencer la construction d'un nouvel hôpital pour ces derniers. Il existe en outre, dans un des faubourgs de la ville, un petit établissement pour la lèpre et autres maladies de la peau.

7. Le conservatoire des sœurs de S. Joseph fournit, conformément à ses statuts, aux pauvres malades honteux, le médecin, le chirurgien, et les médicamens. Une association pieuse, sous le titre de N. D. de la Providence, a été érigée à Gênes il y a peu d'années, dans le même but.

8. Les femmes en couche pauvres, nées dans la ville, ou y domiciliées depuis trois ans, sont admises et traitées gratuitement, au grand Hôpital dit de Pammatone.

9. Les enfans illégitimes, et ceux qui sont abandonnés par leurs parens, sont reçus gratuitement à l'Hôpital de Pammatone, pourvu qu'on les place secrètement dans le tour qui y est établi à cet effet. Ces enfans trouvés restent à la charge de l'administration de l'hôpital, les garçons jusqu'à l'âge de 12 ans révolus, les filles pendant toute leur vie, à moins qu'elles ne se marient.

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10. Les fous et les idiots natifs de Gênes et pauvres, sont reçus gratuitement à l'hôpital des incurables, et des aliénés. Ceux des autres parties du Duché, et les non pauvres, y sont aussi reçus, moyennant une retribution proportionnée à la nourriture qu'on leur donne.

11 et 13. Un laboureur gagne ordinairement pour son travail, 300 à 350 francs par année, et est obligé de se nourrir sur se gages.

Un ouvrier en manufactures ordinaires, peut gagner de 400 à 500 francs.

Un ouvrier en manufactures fines, peut gagner de 500 à 700 francs.

12. Les laboureurs et les ouvriers ordinaires, sont presque toujours payés à la journée. Les ouvriers en manufactures fines le sont quelquefois à la tâche.

14. A défaut d'autres ressources, un ouvrier ou un laboureur ne pourrait dépenser que ce qu'il gagne. S'il est marié, souvent la femme gagne quelque chose de son côté, et le tout ensemble peut fournir le moyen de mieux entretenir la famille.

15 et 16. Les ouvriers et les journaliers perçoivent, ainsi qu'on l'a déjà énoncé, un salaire en argent, pour prix de leur journée de travail. Celui qui les fait travailler, ne leur loue au reste, ni habitation, ni terrain.

17. Dans la province de Gênes le nombre des morts monte à peu près; année ordinaire, au trois et demi pour cent sur la population.

18. Les naissances peuvent être calculées en raison du cinq pour cent idem.

19. Le nombre des individus composants une famille, peut-être évalué à cinq, terme moyen.

20, 24 et 25. Les nombre des mariages est environ de six sur mille individus, par année. Depuis quelque tems les mariages paraissent être un peu moins nombreux, ce qu'on attribue à la misère du bas peuple, et en partie à l'immoralité. Les hommes se marient en général fort jeunes; les femmes le plus souvent avant leur vingtième année.

21. On manque de données pour répondre à cette question, même par approximation. Le nombre des enfans qu'on reçoit annuellement à l'hospice des enfans trouvés est de 280 environ, sur la population de toute la province, qui monte à 208,000.

22. Le nombre des enfans qui meurent dans la première année est environ de 26 pour 100.

23. Avant la dixième année, il en meurt environ 45 pour 100. Avant la seizième, environ 48 pour 100.

26. Il n'existe point à Gênes de caisse d'épargne, où les ouvriers puissent placer à intérêt le superflu de leur dépense. Ce superflu d'ailleurs est, comme on a vu, fort peu de chose, de sorte que, dans l'état actuel des choses, on peut craindre que l'établissement d'une caisse d'épargne n'obtiendrait pas facilement le but principal de son institution, celui d'augmenter les moyens, et d'améliorer le sort, du bas peuple.

Enclosure (F.)

REPONSES AUX QUESTIONS SUR LES PAUVRES, en tant qu'elles regardent la *Savoye*.

Savoy.

1. La mendicité est fort commune dans les environs de Chambéry et dans la haute Tarentaise. Dans les autres provinces, elle n'est pas plus repandue qu'en France, et bien moins qu'en Italie. Le nombre total des mendiants était de 3,688 en l'année 1789. Il s'éleva sous le régime Français à 4,360. Dès lors la mendicité est beaucoup diminuée, soit par suite de l'abaissement des charges publiques, soit à cause de la cessation des expropriations forcées qui étaient journellement poursuivies par le fisc Français contre les parens des conscrits refractaires, et par les prêteurs d'argent Gênois contre leurs debiteurs. On ne peut maintenant évaluer le nombre des mendiants à plus de 2,500, c'est-à-dire à de la population.

2. La mendicité errante étant prohibée par les lois, les mendiants n'ont droit à aucun secours. La ville de Chambéry renferme un dépôt de mendicité, où cent indigens sont recueillis, et où l'on essaye de les occuper à divers travaux.

3. Il existe dans le Duché environ 250 établissemens de charité, qui possèdent des fonds spécialement destinés au soulagement des pauvres du lieu où ils sont situés. Mais ces ressources sont tres-insuffisantes, surtout dans le années de mauvaise récolte. Mais les familles pauvres sont secourues par leurs voisins, leurs parens, les ecclésiastiques, et autres personnes charitables de la commune.

Ces secours sont distribués dans la ville de Chambéry d'après un système très-simple, et qui est peut-être ce qu'on peut trouver de mieux dans ce guere. Les pauvres sont classés en 24 quartiers, dont chacun est confié à la direction de trois dames de charité, dont la plupart appartiennent à la plus haute classe de la société. Chacun de ces bureaux recherche, enregistre, et surveille les besoins des indigens; donne de secours secrettement aux familles pour qui la publicité de leur situation serait un deshonneur; et retire les bienfaits de la charité à ceux qui s'en rendent indignes par leur immoralité. Cette œuvre n'a d'autres

d'autres ressources que le 10^{me} du prix des billets de théâtre, qui se prélève en faveur des pauvres ; le produit des grandes quêtes de Noël et de Pâques, et quelques dons particuliers et secrets. Si elle était assez riche pour pouvoir fournir du travail dans l'intérieur des familles indigentes, cette institution serait bien supérieure à tous les autres établissemens de charité.

Ce que nous venons ci dire ne se rapporte qu'aux indigens en général, car lorsque la pauvreté est jointe à quelque circonstance particulière, elle est recueillie, et secourue dans plusieurs institutions. L'Hospice de Charité de Chambéry a 171 places destinées aux vieillards, aux orphélins, et aux personnes infirmes. L'Asyle de St. Benoît est aussi consacré, dans la même ville, aux vieillards des deux sexes, appartenans à la classe aisée de la société, qui n'ont plus de moyens d'existence, et la maison de orphélins y est destinée à recevoir les jeunes filles sans fortune de la classe moyenne, et des artisans, et à leur donner une éducation, qui puisse leur assurer un sort indépendant.

4. Le Duché de Savoye possède actuellement un grand nombre d'écoles religieuses gratuites, où les enfans des pauvres sont reçus comme les autres. A Chambéry les deux écoles de la Doctrine et de St. Joseph élèvent plus de 700 enfans des deux sexes, dont les quatre cinquièmes ne pourraient se procurer une éducation payée.

5. Il n'existe pas de mont-de-piété en Savoye.

6. Voir la réponse à la 3 question.

7. Chambéry renferme un Hôtel-Dieu de 80 lits, qui sont constamment occupés. Il y existe en outre des institutions spéciales pour les maladies incurables, ou contagieuses, et pour les voyageurs malades. Les autres localités du Duché où il se trouve des hôpitaux pour les malades sont Annecy, Thonon, St. Jean-de-Maurienne, Montmelian, Moutiers, Yenne, la Roche, la Motte-Servolex, et Thônes.

8. Plusieurs établissemens des sœurs de charité ont été fondés, soit par les communes, soit par de riches propriétaires, pour secourir les malades à domicile. Mais on a été forcé de renoncer à soulager de cette manière la portion la plus misérable des indigens qui ne prenaient pas les médicamens, ou les rendaient mortels par leur imprudence. Ce genre de secours n'est utile qu'aux personnes qui sont au-dessus des habitudes de la pauvreté et de la misère.

9. Parmi les nombreux établissemens de bienfaisance de la ville de Chambéry, il y existe un hospice, dit de la Maternité, spécialement destiné à recevoir les femmes en couche, mariées ou non mariées.

10. L'hospice des enfans trouvés de Chambéry, et celui de Thonon, étant destinées à recevoir tous les enfans abandonnés, qui peuvent même y être déposés clandestinement, la plupart des enfans illégitimes y est portée la première nuit après leur naissance, soit que leurs parens soient riches ou pauvres. Ceux qui naissent dans les provinces éloignées de ces deux villes, sont ordinairement élevés par leur mère, et partagent leur fortune, ou leur indigence.

11. Il existe à quelque distance de Chambéry un hospice pour 60 aliénés qui y sont gratuitement soignés. Mais jusqu'ici cette institution ne renfermait qu'une vingtaine de places, et comme elle était insuffisante les autres aliénés étaient à la charge de leur commune.

12. Le régime des maisons de charité est différent pour chacune d'elles, et il serait difficile de se procurer des détails exacte à cet égard. En général la dépense monte de 12 à 15 sous par jour pour l'entretien de chaque individu. Mais il faut observer, que l'entretien matériel des personnes admises dans ces établissemens ne forme guère que la moitié de la dépense annuelle. L'entretien des gens de service ; les fraix d'administration ; les réparations, manutentions, &c. exigeant une somme à peu près égale. Quant aux prisonniers, ils reçoivent journellement du gouvernement 24 onces de pain et une forte ration de soupe, qui revient à l'administration à 18 centimes, et se compose de légumes et pommes de terre. Ils reçoivent en outre des secours de la charité publique, et le général de Boigne a ajouté à ses nombreuses institutions philanthropiques une rente annuelle en faveur des prisonniers de Chambéry.

L'utilité des établissemens de charité destinés aux pauvres orphélins, aux pauvres vieillards, et aux pauvres infirmes, ne peut être revoquée en doute. Quant aux dépôts pour les mendiens valides, ils ne servent, à mon avis, que comme épouvantail pour décourager la mendicité volontaire, et engage les pauvres à chercher du travail. Le nombre des mendiens est toujours en proportion directe de la disposition des habitans à faire l'aumône ; et si tous les mendiens actuellemens existans dans une contrée étaient renfermés dans des dépôts de mendicité, d'autres indigens quitteraient tout travail journalier pour les remplacer aux portes des temples, et à celles des personnes charitables.

13. Un journalier gagne ordinairement 30 sols par jour en été, et 24 s. ou 20 s. en hiver, sans être nourri ; ou bien 12 s. avec la nourriture et un litre de vin ; pendant les labours des vignes, et les moissons, ils reçoivent souvent un litre et demi, ou deux litres de vin. Une femme gagne un tiers de moins. Les journaliers sont payés à la fin de la journée, ou de la semaine.

14. Il est impossible de répondre exactement à cette question, parce que le nombre de journées que peut faire un journalier de campagne, varie suivant la longueur de l'hiver, et le nombre des jours de pluie où il est sans travail. En général un ménage peut subsister sans secours étranger, lorsque deux des individus qui le composent peuvent travailler à la journée ; mais un journalier ne peut entretenir sa famille par son seul travail.

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STATES.

Savoy.

15, 16. La classe des journaliers, telle qu'elle existe en Angleterre, est très-peu nombreuse en Savoye, où la population presque entière est composée de propriétaires. Sur 102,000 familles que contient le Duché, on compte 85,000 chefs de familles propriétaires d'une portion quelconque du sol, dont 80,000 environ sont cultivateurs. Les journaliers ne peuvent par conséquent être beaucoup employés. Aussi les recensemens faits en 1789 et en 1801 ne portent que neuf à dix mille personnes, des deux sexes, soit artisans, soit ouvriers de campagne, travaillants à la journée, dans la partie de la Savoye qui formait, depuis 1789, le département du Mont Blanc, et qui donnerait un total de 14 à 15,000 pour tout le Duché. Généralement les journaliers prennent à bail, de quelque petit propriétaire, une portion de chaumière et un demi acre, ou un acre de terres labourables, au prix de 60 à 100 *f.* qu'ils payent en journées.

17. D'après les tables statistiques publiées sous le régime Française, les naissances peuvent être calculées au 29 de la population, et le nombre des décès au 42. D'après un mémoire publié récemment sur la province Maurdecure, et d'après plusieurs autres documens partiels, la proportion n'aurait pas changée sensiblement. Mais on doit observer, que plusieurs localités s'écartent beaucoup de la moyenne pour le nombre des décès. Quelques communes entourées de marais présentent une mortalité d'un 28, tandis que dans quelques communes des plus hautes Alpes, elle n'est que d'un 52 de la population.

18. Sur 1,000 habitans on compte en Savoye 127 enfans au dessous de 5 ans, 124 au dessous 10 ans, et 118 au dessous de 15 ans, en tout 369 individus qui n'ont pas accompli leur 15 année; d'où il résulte, que les mariages sont très-féconds, puisque les enfans d'un à 15 ans forment les $\frac{37}{100}$ de la population, et que le mortalité pèse considérablement sur l'enfance, puisque sur 1,000 habitans, 631 seulement dépassent l'âge de 15 ans.

22. Les mariages sont assez précoces. Les jeunes gens se marient ordinairement de 20 à 24 ans, et les femmes de 18 à 20.

Les épargnes sont une chose presque inconnue en Savoye. Chez les gens riches, comme chez ceux qui ne le sont pas, chez le gentilhomme comme chez le paysan, il est insolite et étrange de faire servir les revenus à un autre usage que celui de les dépenser. Quelques gens d'affaires et les usuriers sont les seuls qui songent à augmenter leur patrimoine. On voit aussi quelques négocians et artisans économiser leurs profits; mais dans l'intention seulement d'acquiescer une maison de campagne, à laquelle ils consacrent toutes leurs épargnes subséquentes.

24. Les lois civiles ne renferment aucune disposition sur ce sujet. D'après les lois ecclésiastiques, le mariage peut être contracté aussitôt après la puberté réelle, quelque soit l'âge des contractans.

25. Tout homme qui a 12 enfans est exempt des contributions directes. Avant la Révolution, il était même exempt des contributions indirectes; mais le Gouvernement a sagement commué cette immunité en une pension annuelle de 250 francs.

26. Les indigens ne s'adressent jamais à l'autorité, mais à la charité particulière, qui est inépuisable, car (excepté pendant la famine de 1817,) il n'est jamais arrivé qu'un homme soit mort de faim. Lorsque la conduite des indigens est suspecte, et qu'ils peuvent être considérés comme vagabonds, l'autorité les renvoie dans leurs communes, ou les chasse du pays, s'ils sont étrangers.

27. L'emploi des lègs de cette nature est assez ordinairement déterminé dans les Testaments. S'il n'y a pas de désignation spéciale, les conseils de charité disposent des fonds suivant leur conscience, et ils rendent compte au conseil général séant à Chambéry.

Note.—On a répondu indirectement aux questions 18, 20 et 21. On ne connaît pas le nombre des enfans au dessous de 18 ans. Mais les individus des deux sexes au dessous de 20 ans, et au dessus de 15 ans, sont dans la proportion de 110 à 100. Ce qui donne pour la population en général 479 personnes au dessous de 20 ans, pour chaque mille, soit pour 204 familles. Ce qui peut servir à calculer approximativement le nombre moyen d'enfans existans dans chaque famille. Quant au nombre d'enfans nés de chaque mariage, on peut l'évaluer en moyenne de 4 à 5.

On ne connaît point de recensement récent des enfans trouvés, ni des enfans illégitimes. En 1789 le nombre des enfans naturels, joint à celui des enfans légitimes abandonnés, était d'un 37 de la population. En 1801, cette proportion avait augmenté d'un quart; en 1806, elle était seulement d'un 34. Maintenant elle est un peu moindre, que sous le régime Français. Les villes sont pour près de la moitié dans le nombre des naissances illégitimes, tandis que dans une grande partie des communes écartées, il n'y a pas eu d'enfans naturels de mémoire d'homme.

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VENICE.

REPORT on the State and Condition of the Poor at *Venice*, by Consul-General *Money*.

1. IS there any compulsory legal provision for the poor in Venice?—None.

2. In what manner are the funds arising from voluntary donations collected in Venice?—There is a commission of public charity, composed of the laity of the first rank and consideration in Venice, at the head of which is the patriarch.

All sums destined for the relief of the poor and the indigent, from whatever source, are placed at the disposal of this commission.

These funds arise from bequests, which are numerous, from voluntary contributions, from collections made by lay associations in each of the 30 parishes, which hold their meetings either at the church or at the house of the priest; sometimes from the produce of a lottery; and by a singular contrivance of the late patriarch, to render an old custom of complimentary visits on New Year's-day contributory to the purposes of charity, he had it announced, that all who would subscribe to the funds of the commission of public charity should have their names published, and be exempted from the costly ceremony above adverted to.

3. By what authority are they distributed?—By that of the same commission, which receives the reports of the state of the poor in the several parishes, and particularly inquires into the circumstances of every case.

4. What constitutes a claim to relief, and how is that claim investigated?—Among the lower classes, extreme poverty without the means of obtaining subsistence, or incapability from age or sickness to labour for it. This is certified by the parish priest to the association mentioned in answer to query No. 2, which makes itself acquainted with every case of distress. But there is great distress to be relieved among those who once constituted the higher classes of society, but whose families, since the fall of the Republic, have, from various causes, fallen into decay; these make their application direct to the commission, and are relieved according to their necessities and the state of their funds.

5. What is the amount of relief usually given in each case, and for what length of time is it usually continued?—The amount of relief given, according to the class and circumstances of the distressed, is from 10 cents. to 65 cents. per head per day (or from 3 s. 4 d. to 5 s. 4 d. sterling).

Sic.

These alms are continued as long as the parish priest certifies the need of those of the lower classes, or the commission, through its inquiries, are satisfied of the necessities of the others.

6. Is relief given by taking the poor into almshouses or houses of industry, or by giving them relief at home; and in the latter case, is it given in money or in food and clothing?—There are no almshouses in Venice, but there are houses of industry, where work of various descriptions is provided for those who are able to work. Relief is given to many at home, but to most upon their personal appearance before some of the members of the commission.

In winter relief is afforded by the commission both in food and clothing.

7. What is the number of persons in Venice usually receiving relief, and what is the least and greatest number known during the last 10 years?—The number usually receiving relief, and which is the least number during the last 10 years, is about 47,000; the greatest number in the last 10 years was about 50,000. The last year 42,705 received relief, either at home or by personal application to the commission, and the number in houses of industry and hospitals, 4,667.

8. Is there much difficulty in procuring sufficient funds for the support of the poor in times of distress, or is the supply so large as at all to diminish the industry and providence of the working classes?—It has been found impossible to procure sufficient funds for the support of the poor at Venice, and there never was so large a supply as at all to diminish the industry and providence of the working classes. When the funds prove insufficient, the commune contribute, and after their contributions, whatever is sufficient is supplied by the Government.

9. Do cases of death by starvation ever occur? Do the poorer classes afford much assistance to one another in time of sickness or want of employment?—Cases of death by starvation never occur. Even during the great distress caused by the blockade in 1813, and the famine in 1817, no occurrence of this kind was known. In fact, the more urgent the circumstances are, the more abundant are the subscriptions and donations.

The poorer classes are remarkable for their kindness to each other in times of sickness and need. Many instances of this have fallen under my own observation.

10. Is there a foundling hospital at Venice, and if so, what is the number of infants annually admitted into it?—There is a foundling hospital in Venice, which was instituted

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in 1346, and the number received into it annually is between 400 and 500. I have known seven found in the receptacle in one morning.

Each child is immediately given to a wet nurse; at the end of seven or eight days it is vaccinated, and sent to nurse in the country.

11. Do members of the same family, among the poorer classes in general, show much disposition to assist one another in distress, sickness or old age?—There is much family affection in all classes of the Venetians, and in sickness, distress and old age, among the poorer classes, they show every disposition to assist and relieve each other.

The clergy, who have great influence over the lower classes, exert themselves much to cultivate the good feeling which subsists among them towards one another.

12. Have you any other observations to make on the relief afforded to the poor at Venice?—Besides the voluntary contributions and the assistance of the commune and the Government, the several charitable institutions (of which there are no less than 10) in this city, have annual incomes derivable from various bequests in land and other property, amounting to 483,000 Austrian livres (or 16,000 *l.* sterling.) Last year the commune contributed 359,000 Austrian livres (or 11,970 *l.* sterling) and the Government 460,000 Austrian livres (or 15,330 *l.* sterling). The Government contributes annually for the foundlings and the insane of the eight Venetian provinces, 1,000,000 of Austrian livres, (33,000 *l.* sterling). I should remark, that among other resources which the commission of public charity have at their command, is a tax upon the theatres and other places of public amusement.

The total expenditure of the commission of public charity may be taken approximately at 3,000,000 of Austrian livres, or 100,000 *l.* sterling annually, for the city of Venice alone, which is now declared to contain a population of 112,000.

Mendicity is not permitted in the streets of Venice, and although distress does force mendicants to appear when they can escape the vigilance of the police, yet I do not believe that 20 beggars are to be met with in this large and populous city.

The poor in every parish in Venice have the benefit of a physician, a surgeon and medicines gratis; the expense of these is paid by the commune.

Every commune in the Venetian provinces is bound to support the poor and the indigent within its limits, whether they be natives of the commune or not. No commune or parish can remove from it a pauper, because he may have been born in another. Ten years' residence entitles a man to a settlement in a different parish from that of his birth. When a commune to which a pauper does not belong affords him relief, it is always re-imbursed by his own parish.

Every commune derives funds from local taxes; the commune of towns from taxes on certain articles of consumption; the communes in the country, where articles of consumption are not taxed, from an addition to the capitation tax, which is levied by the State, but all communes have, more or less, sources of revenue from land, houses and charitable bequests, which are very frequent in these states.

The number of foundlings at present in the country under the age of 12 years is 2,300. After that age the child is transferred from the family who have the charge of it, and apprenticed to learn some craft or trade, or servitude, but so kind-hearted are the people in the Venetian provinces, that in numerous instances, from attachment to the child which they have reared, they have begged, when the time arrived for its removal, to be allowed to keep it as their own.

(signed)

W. J. Money,
Cons^l Gen^l.

Venice, 25 March 1834.

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REPLIES to the QUERIES of the Poor Law Commissioners. Enclosed in Mr. *Dawkins*
Letter, of the 1st May 1834, to Mr. *Backhouse*.

VAGRANTS.

Before the Revolution, two classes of vagrants existed in Greece: of these, one class consisted of those individuals who, having no property of their own, and being averse to labour, lived by robbery; the other class consisted of those persons who were indeed destitute, but refusing to labour, did not at the same time resort to robbery: the latter existed by the charity of their relations, and of other benevolent individuals, and the former were constantly pursued by the Turkish police.

In two provinces only of the new Greek State, viz. Thravari in Acarnania, and Cloutzinas of Kalavryta, does systematic beggary exist; in these places, many persons mutilated their new-born children for the express purpose of exciting the compassion of the public; but neither before the Revolution, during the Revolution, nor even now, is there any public establishment for the relief of either of the two above classes of vagrants; and notwithstanding that during the Revolution the number of these vagrants increased, it is now certain that their numbers have sensibly diminished, and it is to be hoped that as soon as the municipalities are regularly established, all these individuals will be obliged to labour for their subsistence.

There exists no public institution or decree organizing the relief to be granted to the poor in Greece; neither did anything of the kind exist before the Revolution, although the country was formed into municipalities. It was feared that the Ottoman authorities would appropriate to themselves any resources which might be set apart for the poor. Charitable subscriptions were therefore the only means by which the poor, sick, &c. obtained relief.

DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

No regulations for their relief existed either before or after the Revolution.

IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE, AND SICK.

No regulations ever existed on these heads. The aged who were destitute received, and still receive, assistance from the charitably disposed, and from the monasteries; but this assistance is voluntary, not obligatory.

With regard to hospitals, there are only two, one at Nauplia and one at Syra; the first is at present given up to the military service, and the second, belonging to the municipality of Syra, is maintained by a small duty levied on merchandize; the one at Nauplia was formerly supported in the same manner.

CHILDREN.

The support of bastards falls upon their fathers. With regard to foundlings, who are generally left clandestinely at the church doors, the local authorities take charge of them, and entrust them to nurses, whose expenses are defrayed by the Government; benevolent individuals likewise frequently take charge of them, and bring them up at their own expense. The number of foundlings supported by the Government barely exceeds forty throughout the whole State, by which it appears that depravity of morals in Greece is not great.

For the support of destitute orphans, an establishment (the Orphanotropheion,) exists at Ægina, where many are brought up at the expense of the Government, and are taught to read and write, and various trades. However, the nearest relations of the orphans generally consider it to be a religious duty to take care of them; so that in consequence of this praiseworthy feeling, they are seldom left entirely destitute, unless they have no relations, or unless the latter have no means of assistance at their disposal. Moreover, there are numerous benevolent persons who are in the habit of taking orphans into their houses, and bringing them up at their own expense.

CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

Individuals of these descriptions, who have no relations, live by charity. No institution or law exists for their relief.

IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

Individuals of this description, who have no relations, exist by charity. No institution or law exists for their relief.

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EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

With regard to the result of the above-mentioned institutions, nothing can be said, as there are no grounds for forming an opinion. It is obvious however that the establishment of such institutions would be very beneficial to the poor

LABOURERS, &c.

1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month, or the year, with and without provisions, in summer and in winter?—It is impossible to define the exact amount of the daily wages of labourers, as it differs in every place, according to the nature of the spot, the description of labour, the skill required, and the want of hands. The average of labourers' wages may however be estimated at two drachms a day (17 *d.*), without food.

2. Is piece-work general?—Labourers generally work by day-work; but sometimes also by piece-work.

3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—Every labourer can on an average earn about 600 drachms a year (18 *l.* 1 *s.* 2 *d.*)

4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?—It is difficult to state precisely the annual expenditure of a labourer, as it varies in most places; one may say, however, on an average, that it amounts to 600 drachms (18 *l.* 1 *s.* 2 *d.*)

5. Is there any, and what employment for women and children?—The occupations of women and children are knitting, weaving and washing. Children generally learn some trade by which they earn their livelihood, or assist their parents in their labour.

6. What can women, and children under 16, earn per week in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed?—The average earnings of women, and children under 16 years, are about 7 drachms a week (4 *s.* 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.*)

7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8 and 5 years respectively (the eldest a boy), expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?—A woman of this description can earn about two drachms a day (17 *d.*), without neglecting her domestic affairs.

8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children, and if so, on what food?—It can: its expenses may amount to about 40 or 50 drachms a month (1 *l.* 8 *s.* 4 *d.* or 1 *l.* 15 *s.* 5 *d.*)

9. Could it lay by any thing, and how much?—Such a family can save something; but the exact amount cannot be stated, as it depends upon various circumstances.

10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?—Calculated to be not less than 20, nor more than 300, square pikes (2 $\frac{1}{2}$ feet to a pike), or from 50 to 750 feet.

11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations?—Few labourers rent houses, as they have mostly habitations of their own.

12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale?—

13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—Lands are farmed to labourers. The proprietor gives the seed, and takes half the produce, after deducting the expenses.

14. 15. 16. The proportion of annual deaths, births and marriages to the whole population?—In the absence of all returns on this subject, no positive answer can be given. All that is known on this subject is, that last year the deaths were far fewer in number than the births.

17. The average number of children to a marriage?—Four children to each marriage.

18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?—Illegitimate children must be very few in number, as we have already seen the foundlings whom the Government maintains are not more than 40.

19. 20. 21. The proportion of children that die before the end of their 1st, 10th and 18th year?—No returns exist on this subject.

22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—Males, at between 22 and 35; females, at between 13 and 25.

23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—Want of means only delay marriages.

24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried; 2d, the married, save?—Unknown.

25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—They place them out at interest.

Labour hitherto has not much increased in Greece; the labourers are industrious, frugal, and attached to their relations.

The Government is at present occupied in the construction of prisons and penitentiaries. A central penitentiary will be erected at Monemvasia for the reception of those individuals who have been condemned to five years' imprisonment. Three other penitentiaries will be erected at Nauplia, Negropont and Missolonghi, for the reception of those condemned to from one to five years' imprisonment. There will be ten prisons, one in each province. Prisons will also be erected at the seat of every court of justices of the peace, for the reception of debtors and offenders: the organization of these prisons will take place hereafter.

OBSERVATIONS

OBSERVATIONS OF THE SECRETARY OF STATE FOR THE INTERIOR.

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Such only are the answers we can return to the questions of His Britannic Majesty's Government. It is well known that the organization of Greece has only just commenced under the auspices of His Majesty, and that the Government is occupied without intermission in laying the foundation of a general organization, and has not time to attend to each special branch of the public administration, the accomplishment of which is the work of years, and the result of the organization of municipalities. It is this difficulty which has obliged me to draw up the answers more upon supposition than on positive information. I may add, that in consequence of the vast extent of land in Greece in comparison with the number of its inhabitants, the latter apply themselves mostly to agriculture and the care of flocks, by which means they procure ample means of subsistence; and the few manufactures which exist in Greece being all made by hand, sufficient employment is to be procured by every individual. These are the reasons why the number of the poor is so limited notwithstanding that late events were so much opposed to the progress of arts and industry.

PATRAS, IN THE MOREA.

VAGRANTS.

1. To what extent, and under what form, does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?—There are a few lame, blind and mutilated beggars in the towns, who receive casual alms from passers by. A blind priest sits all day long under my garden wall, silently imploring charity; he has no other means of subsistence.

2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country, seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded, and under what regulations?—None.

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DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

No provision or regulation whatsoever of the nature referred to under this head exists.

IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

There is no provision of any kind for the aged poor; nor institution, nor almshouse for their reception.

5. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking part of their families?—There is no existing law upon the subject.

SICK.

There are no institutions nor provision for the sick, or lying-in women, nor any medical or surgical assistance afforded to them, except at their own expense. There was a hospital at Syra; whether it exists at present, I do not know.

CHILDREN:

Illegitimate.

1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall; wholly upon the mothers, or wholly upon the fathers; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations?—There being no law on the subject, the burthen of maintenance falls on the mother.

2. To what extent, and under what regulations, are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards?—Not at all.

3. To what extent, and under what regulations, are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?—None are so supported, except foundlings.

Orphans, Foundlings, or Deserted Children.

4. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they taken into establishments for their reception?—There are no such establishments. The Orphanotrophe, founded at Ægina, for children whose parents fell in the Greek war, is not maintained by the present Government; and the building is converted to other purposes.

5. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they billeted or quartered on householders?—They are never so quartered.

6. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they boarded with individuals?—No provision for orphans or deserted children. Three drachmas, about 2s. 2½d., a week is allowed by the Government to the person who nurses a foundling.

7. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—There is no law on the subject.

CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

There is no provision whatever for them.

IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

There are no establishments, nor any public provision for them. I have seen a crazy, half-naked woman, about the streets of this town for the last three years, who lives on the

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offal or scraps she can pick up or get by importunity ; when her conduct is violent, she is arrested and manacled by the police, but no lodging or sustenance is provided for her at other times.

4. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—There is no law on the subject.

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

It will be seen by the preceding answers that the case supposed does not exist in this country.

LABOURERS, &c.

1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month, or the year, with and without provisions, in summer and in winter?—The ordinary daily wages of an agricultural labourer without provisions are, in summer, 1s. 2½d., in winter, 11d. An agricultural labourer, hired by the year, and provided with food, receives generally about 9s. per month, and shoes. A carpenter, smith, mason, &c., receive per day 2s. to 2s. 3d.; tailors, shoemakers, &c., about 1s. 6d. to 1s. 9d.

2. Is piece-work general?—Masons and carpenters frequently work by the job; and task-work is common among agricultural labourers.

3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—Deduction being made for the enormous number of festivals observed by the Greek church, there remain but about 248 working days; and the earnings of an average labourer, including all advantages, may be about 12*l.* in the year.

4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?—I have no means of forming an estimate.

5. Is there any, and what employment for women and children?—Carding cotton wool, spinning with the distaff, weaving coarse cloth in small hand-loom, knitting; assisting in harvest-work, when they receive half the wages of men.

6. What can women, and children under 16, earn per week, in summer, in winter and in harvest, and how employed?—About 6d. a day in harvest, in gathering and binding sheaves, picking grapes, currants and olives; something less in winter, at the work mentioned in previous answer.

7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8 and 5 years respectively, (the eldest a boy,) expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?—Perhaps about 23*l.*

8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children, and if so, on what food?—They do so, living temperately, as these persons almost all do; using both maize and wheaten bread, olives, pulse, vegetables, salt fish, and occasionally meat on great festivals. Their usual drink is water, but the men take wine also moderately.

9. Could it lay by anything, and how much?—They certainly may lay by something, and it is understood they do so.

10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?—They have generally gardens about a rood in extent.

11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations?—The labourers themselves.

12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale?—I am not aware of any rental in this neighbourhood.

13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—There is no restriction as to the quantity they may take; large tracts of national lands lying unoccupied, which they may cultivate, paying to the Government two-thirds of the produce.

14. 15. & 16. The proportion of annual deaths, births and marriages to the whole population? 17. The average number of children to a marriage? 18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births? 19. 20. & 21. Proportion of children that die before the end of their first, tenth and eighteenth year?—I have been unable to procure from the public authorities any information upon these points, there being no returns.

22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—Females of the poorer classes generally marry between the ages of 15 and 18, males from 25 to 30.

23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—The want of a marriage portion on the part of the female, or of a house on that of the male.

24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried; 2d, the married, save?—Habits of saving are general.

25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—Either in the purchase of goats, sheep, or pigs, which feed on the hills and wastes, paying 1d. a head annually to Government; or the money is hoarded and buried, a common practice under the Turkish dominion, and not yet abandoned.

With reference to the question respecting dietaries, the only information I can supply regards prison allowance, which is 24 lepta per diem, 2½d., equal, at ordinary prices, to the purchase of 3 lbs. of wheaten bread.

British Consulate, Patras,
 12 April 1834.

G. W. Crewe,
 His Majesty's Consul in the Morea.

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EUROPEAN TURKEY.

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REPLIES to the QUERIES of the POOR LAW COMMISSIONERS, circulated amongst
His Majesty's Consuls.

VAGRANTS.

1. To what extent, and under what form, does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?—The average number of vagrants is calculated at 1 in 1,500. They are accustomed to stroll about the country and the streets of cities. In the latter they solicit alms of passengers, and also at the dwellings of the inhabitants.

2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country, seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging, and by whom afforded, and under what regulations?—There is no stated provision or institution for the relief of such persons, who are wholly dependant for relief on the benevolence of individuals, but they are received in many religious establishments and khans, where they may remain several days, and where food is given to them.

DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

1. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they, or any part of their families, billeted or quartered on householders?—There are few or no destitute able-bodied men, as all such persons when disposed to work generally find employment, and as there are no institutions or regulations for their relief, necessity compels them to work. Billeting or quartering such persons on householders is a custom wholly unknown in this country.

2. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they boarded with individuals?—There are no regulations on this subject.

3. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there district houses of industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families, and supplying them with food, clothes, &c., and in which they are set to work?—No such institutions exist in this country.

4. To what extent, and under what regulations, do any religious institutions give assistance to the destitute, by receiving them as inmates, or by giving them alms?—There are many religious establishments in which they find temporary relief, but there are no regulations in the country relating to the destitute poor; the relief afforded to such persons is voluntarily bestowed by the benevolent, by pecuniary or other donations.

5. To what extent, and under what regulations, is work provided at their own dwellings for those who have trades, but do not procure work for themselves?—There are no regulations on the subject. Artisans work at their shops or dwellings, as may be.

6. To what extent, and under what regulations, is work provided for such persons in agriculture, or on public works?—As regards individuals employed in public works, the rate of labour is fixed by the local authorities; there are no regulations as respects the landholder and the day-labourer; they mutually agree on the terms.

7. To what extent, and under what regulations, are fuel, clothing or money distributed to such persons, or their families; at all times of the year, or during any particular seasons?—There are no regulations on the subject; persons under such circumstances depend on the bounty of individuals.

8. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they relieved by their children being taken into schools, and fed, clothed and educated or apprenticed?—At Constantinople, and throughout the country, there are schools attached to mosques, where children of all descriptions are taken and instructed gratis in reading and writing, and in the principles of their religion, but are not fed or clothed.

9. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are the relatives of the destitute compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking charge of part of their families?—There are no regulations on the subject, but it is unusual for persons to abandon their destitute relatives.

10. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they assisted by loans?—There are no regulations on the subject.

IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

1. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there almshouses or other institutions for the reception of those who, through age, are incapable of earning their subsistence?—There are no almshouses or institutions for their reception.

2. To what extent, and under what regulations, is relief in food, fuel, clothing or money afforded them at their homes?—There are no regulations on the subject.

3. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they boarded with individuals?—Individuals are not obliged to board them by any regulations.

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4. To what extent, and under what regulations are they quartered or billeted on the householders?—There are no regulations to quarter or billet them on householders.

5. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are their relatives compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking part of their families?—There are no regulations on the subject. The assistance or relief afforded is voluntary.

SICK.

1. To what extent, and under what regulations are there district institutions for the reception of the sick?—There are no such institutions.

2. To what extent, and under what regulations are surgical and medical relief afforded to the poor at their own homes?—There is no medical relief afforded to the poor at their homes, unless it is voluntary.

3. To what extent, and under what regulations are there institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick?—There are no regulations or institutions for affording any relief to the sick.

4. To what extent, and under what regulations is assistance given to lying-in women at their homes, or in public establishments?—There are no public establishments for lying-in women, nor any regulations for affording them assistance at their houses. The charitable accoucheurs or midwives attend gratuitously in case of need.

5. To what extent, and under what regulations are there any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick?—The only mode of affording assistance to the sick is by voluntary charitable donations.

CHILDREN :

Illegitimate.

1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall; wholly upon the mothers, or wholly upon the fathers; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations?—There are no regulations for the support of illegitimate children. Such cases seldom occur; and when they do, so much shame and infamy attaches to the mother (Mahomedan woman) as the child is seldom allowed to live, and is strangled at its birth, but more frequently they have recourse to methods for procuring abortion.

2. To what extent, and under what regulations are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards?—There are no regulations whereby relatives to mothers or fathers are compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards.

3. To what extent, and under what regulations are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?—There are no regulations for the support of illegitimate children at the public expense.

Orphans, Foundlings, or Deserted Children.

4. To what extent, and under what regulations are they taken into establishments for their reception?—There are no regulations or establishments for their reception.

5. To what extent, and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?—There are no regulations for billeting or quartering them on householders. Orphans are assisted by their relations or by charitable persons. Cases of foundlings hardly ever occur, and when they do, the magistrate or authorities of the district provide for their support. Parents who have deserted their children, on their discovery are compelled to contribute to their support.

6. To what extent, and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—There are no regulations on the subject.

7. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are their relatives compelled to support them?—There are no regulations to compel any degree of relationship to support them.

CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

1. To what extent, and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception?—There are no regulations or establishments for their reception.

2. To what extent, and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?—There are no regulations for billeting or quartering such persons. They are either assisted by their relations, or seek for subsistence by asking charity in the streets and at the dwelling-houses.

3. To what extent, and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—There are no regulations for boarding them with individuals.

4. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are their relatives compelled to support them?—There are no regulations to compel any degree of relationship to support them. The assistance given is voluntary.

IDIOTS

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IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

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1. To what extent, and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception?—There are madhouses and prisons for their reception. In these establishments they are badly fed and miserably clothed, and without medical assistance. Their relations and friends are allowed to afford them any relief they are able.

2. To what extent, and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?—There are no regulations for billeting or quartering them on householders.

3. To what extent, and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—There are no regulations for boarding them with individuals.

4. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are their relatives compelled to support them?—There are no regulations to compel any degree of relationship to support them. The assistance rendered is voluntary.

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

You are requested to state whether the receipt, or the expectation of relief, appears to produce any, and what effect,

1st, On the industry of the labourers? 2d, On their frugality? 3d, On the age at which they marry? 4th, On the mutual dependence and affection of parent, children and other relatives?—As no institution exists, nor any certain expectation of relief, certain effects cannot be expected.

5th, What, on the whole, is the condition of the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, as compared with the condition of the person subsisting on alms or public charity? Is the condition of the latter, as to food and freedom from labour, more or less eligible? (See p. 261 and 335 of the Poor Law "Extracts.")—The condition of the able-bodied self-supporting labourer is far preferable, inasmuch as he derives a certain subsistence, whereas the beggar is dependant on the casual benevolence of his countrymen.

LABOURERS, &c.

1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month, or the year, with and without provisions, in summer and in winter?—The general amount of wages of an able-bodied skilled labourer in the districts nearest to the capital is about 1*l.* sterling per month with provisions, and 1*l.* 10*s.* per month without provisions. The able-bodied common labourer gets about 12*s.* per month with provisions, and without, about 1*l.* sterling, during nine months out of the year; in the winter, when they are employed, it is about one-third less. In the districts further in the interior the rates are a little more than half.

2. Is piece-work general?—In the districts nearest to the capital it is more general than in the interior.

3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—About 18*l.* sterling a year in the districts nearest to the capital; in the other districts about 8*l.* sterling.

The wages of artisans are about double those of the common labourer.

4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?—About 13*l.* sterling in the districts nearest to the capital; in the others about the half. There are public charity-schools for children, with religious teachers; these of course afford education to children free of expense. The lower class of labourers spend less.

5. Is there any, and what employment for women and children?—Women are employed in spinning, weaving, in making different sorts of cotton cloths, carpets, &c. and sometimes in the field. Children are employed as apprenticed labourers and as shepherds.

6. What can women, and children under 16, earn per week in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed?—Women employed in the way stated in the preceding article can earn about 2*s.* per week, and children under 16 about the half.

7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8, and 5 years respectively, (the eldest a boy,) expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?—The average amount of her earnings in a year would be about 4*l.* sterling, a male child aged 14, about 2*l.* sterling; those under the age of 14 are generally employed in household work at their own homes.

8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children, and if so, on what food?—Such a family can subsist on their aggregate earnings; their food principally consists of bread, rice, greens, dried beans and peas, olives and onions, and meat about once a week.

9. Could it lay by anything, and how much?—They do lay something by, out of which a large portion is paid for taxes and other impositions. It is impossible to state how much, as their savings vary very considerably.

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10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?—All labourers have not land annexed to their habitations; some have a garden, others a field, and others no land at all.

11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourer's habitations?—The habitation of a labourer, generally speaking, belongs either to himself or to his wife.

12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale?—As the labourer's habitation is his own, he does not pay any rent, but he pays taxes and impositions, which absorb nearly all his savings. The average value of their houses is from 5*l.* to 30*l.* sterling.

13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—It seldom happens that land is let to labourers. The landholder either has it worked for his own account, or allows the labourer for his labour a portion of the produce. The prices of land in the districts nearest to the capital are,—average land at about 10*s.* per acre; bad land at about 7*s.* per acre; in the interior about half.

14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?—The proportion is about 2,000 to 100,000, times of extraordinary plague, &c. excepted, or 1 in 50.

15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?—The proportion is about 3,200 to 100,000, or 1 in $31\frac{2}{5}$.

16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?—The proportion is about 1,500 to 100,000, or 1 in $66\frac{6}{10}$.

17. The average number of children to a marriage?—The average number is four to a family.

18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?—There are few or no illegitimate births, for the reasons explained under the article "Children, Illegitimate," No. 1.

19. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year?—The proportion is about 17 to 100, or 1 in $5\frac{9}{10}$.

20. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 10th year?—The proportion is about 25 to 100, or 1 in 4.

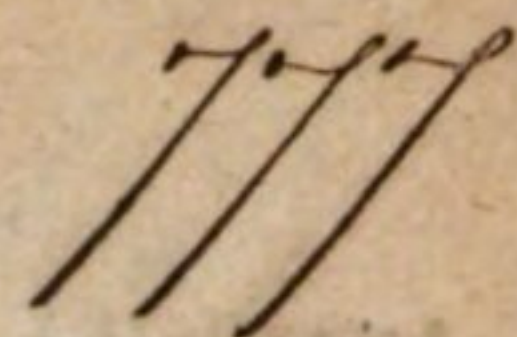
21. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 18th year?—The proportion is about 30 to 100, or 1 in $3\frac{3}{10}$.

22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—The males generally on an average marry at the age of 25, and the females at 17.

23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—Great poverty and wretchedness are the only causes by which marriages are delayed.

24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried, 2d, the married, save?—The extent of the savings of both sexes are small; it is impossible to state how much.

25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—Some invest them in gold trinkets, others hoard them.



UNITED STATES.

NEW JERSEY.

LETTER from Mr. Senator *Southard* to Sir *Charles Vaughan*.

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UNITED STATES.

New Jersey.

Sir,

Washington, 29 April 1834.

I TAKE pleasure in sending you a pretty full statement in regard to the poor laws in New Jersey. It is probably more voluminous than you desire; but I do not venture to make it shorter, lest I might leave out something which you desire to see.

The system of New Jersey was derived from England, and has been only so far altered as was necessary to reconcile it to our institutions and habits. In practice it is burthen-some or otherwise, according to the skill and fidelity with which it is managed. Our officers for the care of the poor are elected annually by the people, in township meetings; and as they have to bear the burthen, they are generally careful to select discreet men. The practice of having poor-houses with farms adjoining them has extended rapidly within a few years, and it is probable that there will soon be one in each township or county.

By a wise superintendence of the paupers, requiring them to be regular and temperate in their habits, and compelling them to labour, under proper direction, as much as their comfort and health will mercifully justify, the expense of their support is greatly diminished, and in some instances altogether avoided. I do not doubt that it ought to be so in all cases, if skill and economy prevailed. Such of them as are really objects of charity, and worthy of kindness, are rendered more comfortable in this mode than in any other which has been tried in our State.

I am, &c.

(signed) *Saml. L. Southard.*

NEW JERSEY POOR LAWS.

THE system of poor laws in New Jersey is closely assimilated to that of England, and is derived from the same common source, the celebrated statute of Elizabeth; with a few modifications (and those principally in the practical administration of the system), the statutory enactments are nearly the same on both sides of the Atlantic. Const's edition of Bolt's Poor Laws, Burrow's Settlement Cases, and Burn's Justice, are as often referred to in the Supreme Court of this State as in the courts of Westminster, whenever disputes respecting pauper settlements arise for adjudication.

To our state of society, to our sparse population, the great demand for labour, and the facility of procuring a livelihood, we chiefly owe it that a system so much complained of in England is here not felt to be onerous.

In this township (Morris, in the county of Morris), containing about 100 square miles, and a population, by the census of 1830, of 3,536, the average number of paupers annually supported by the town for the last eight years is 25, and the average annual expense to the town for their maintenance is 715 dollars, or a little upwards of 161 *l.* sterling. This statement is taken from the books of the township committee, who settle with the overseer of the poor, and may be relied on as correct. The township of Mendham, also in this county, and adjoining this township, containing a population of 1,315 persons, has this year, 1834, but one single pauper to support. A number of the agricultural townships in this State present the same result. In the mining and manufacturing districts pauperism increases in a greater proportion to the number of inhabitants.

In this township, notwithstanding the increase of population, the number of paupers, and the cost of maintaining them, are regularly decreasing. This fact, remarkable in the annals of pauperism, is accounted for by the operation of moral causes co-operating with an improved administration of the system.

The moral causes are the increase of the means of primary instruction of the people, and the happy influence of temperance societies in banishing dissolute, and consequently improvident, habits among those classes which furnish the most numerous subjects of these laws.

The improved administration of the system consists in,

1st, The more careful selection of overseers of the poor; appointing men to this office of intelligence, industry, firmness and humanity; men who will investigate the cases which

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come before them; not easily duped, and who will not recommend unworthy and improper applicants for relief. More depends upon the character and qualifications of an overseer of the poor than a mere statesman or theoretical inquirer into the system would suppose.

2, In the collection of paupers into poor-houses. While they were maintained in the houses of those willing to receive them, they considered themselves, and were regarded by others, rather in the light of pensioners than paupers.

3, In attaching farms to these poor-houses, on which the paupers may labour so far as their strength and health will permit; the lighter labours of husbandry are not found injurious to their health, and contribute mainly to their support, while the idle and profligate are deterred from seeking the poor-house as a refuge for indolence. This township has for some years past employed their paupers on a farm which they have purchased, and this circumstance will account for the small sum they raise by tax for the support of the poor. The greater number of inmates, at present, are idiots, whose physical powers, under a humane and skilful overseer, are sufficient to provide, or nearly so, for their own maintenance. The plan of having county poor-houses, where large numbers of paupers are collected, with farms of proportionate extent attached to them, have in some counties (Warren and Sussex) been found to be more economical than township poor-houses; probably because the division of labour can be carried to a greater extent. This plan of farms attached to poor-houses has in every respect fully answered the expectations of its projectors; no better proof can be given of this than the fact, that after repeated experiments, it has always been found to diminish the poor-rates, and has already been adopted by most of the counties in the northern and eastern parts of this State. Upon the whole, the pauper system of this State cannot be regarded as a failure, as the statistics of each county on this subject will prove; and that it is not regarded by the people with disapprobation, is evidenced by this, that while almost every statute in our code has been repealed or modified by a capricious and mutable legislation, the main provisions of this statute, though very early adopted, have remained unchanged; and it may well be doubted, whether in the country from whence we have derived our statutes on this subject the defects attributed to the system should not rather be laid at the door of the parish officers charged with the practical administration of these laws.

NEW JERSEY POOR LAWS.

1. The several counties in this State are divided into townships, each of which is, for some purposes, a distinct political incorporation, possessed of powers and charged with duties particularly specified in the statute. The support of the poor within the township is one of these duties. The inhabitants of every township are obliged to appoint officers for the management of paupers. 2. To provide funds for their maintenance.

Appointment of Overseers of the Poor.

The inhabitants of each township entitled to vote are, at their annual town meeting or other meeting duly held, empowered by a majority of votes to elect one or more overseers of the poor for that township.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 324 s. Pennington's Reports, 6. 136. 272; 1 Halsted's Rep. 118.

If the township neglects at their annual town meeting to choose such an officer, or if when chosen he dies, refuses to serve, removes from the township, or becomes incapable of serving before the next annual meeting, the electors of the township (inhabitants) are to be convened and choose another. If the electors neglect for 15 days after such omission to choose, or after the death, removal, refusal, &c. of the officer chosen, the township committee appoint a person to fill the vacancy.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 342, s. 13; 1 Green's Rep. 320.

Any person duly appointed overseer of the poor and refusing to serve forfeits \$ 15, to be recovered by action of debt.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 345, s. 20.

Overseers are to take an oath of office, administered by a justice of the peace and filed by the clerk of the township.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 345, s. 20.

Support of the Poor, how provided for.

At the town meeting, the inhabitants qualified to vote are empowered to vote, grant and raise such sum or sums of money for the maintenance and support of the poor within their township as to them, or a major part, shall seem necessary.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 341, s. 11.

2. The money thus voted is assessed by the township assessor upon the inhabitants and estates within the township, agreeably to the law for the time being for raising money by taxation for the use of the State.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 341, s. 11; p. 319, s. 12.

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Besides the money raised by tax for the support of the poor within each township, and which forms by far the larger portion of the fund for their support, the following statutes add to it by escheats and penalties, by fees for pedlars' licences, and by unclaimed estrays. When any person dies seised of personal estate within this State, without making any will thereof, or leaving any representatives capable of inheriting the same, any proper person may take out letters of administration upon the estate, and after the expiration of seven years, must pay the whole sum due and interest to the overseers of the poor of the township in which the intestate died, to and for the use of the poor of said township; and after the expiration of the said seven years, all persons, though otherwise entitled to the estate, are for ever barred.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 76, s. 1, 2, 3.

Penalties which go to the Overseers for the use of the Poor.

Penalties for killing deer out of season, setting traps for deer, &c., one half to the prosecutor, the other half to the overseer of the poor.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 28, s. 11.

Fine of \$ 14 for fornication.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 248, s. 15.

Penalty of \$ 20 for giving or selling spirituous liquors at vendues.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 271, s. 1.

Fine of \$ 10 for recommending improper persons to the court of general quarter sessions for tavern licences.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 281, s. 3.

Penalty for housekeepers entertaining vagrants.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 36, s. 5.

Penalty of \$ 6 for concealing estrays.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 290, s. 3.

Penalties under the Acts for the regulation of hawkers, pedlars, &c.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 294-297. Laws of New Jersey, passed 21st December 1824, 27th February 1830 and 17th February 1831.

Penalty on owner of slaves who suffers them to go about begging.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 371, s. 10.

Penalty of \$ 40 for selling a slave to person unable to maintain him.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 371, s. 11.

Penalty of \$ 30 for the owner of a slave neglecting to have him taught to read.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 372, s. 16.

Various penalties under the Act for the suppression of vice and immorality, labouring on Sunday, cursing and swearing, drunkenness, &c.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 378-385 552, s. 1; 664, s. 2.

Penalty for fixing nets and weirs across the Raritan River.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 452, s. 1.

Penalties under the Act to prevent horse racing.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 550. 553.

Penalties under the Acts to regulate the fisheries in the river Delaware.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 541-544, 569. Laws of New Jersey, passed 28th November 1822 and 15th February 1833.

Penalties under the Act for the inspection of flour and meal.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 565. 568.

Penalties under the Act to regulate the re-packing of beef and pork for exportation.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 514. 518.

Estrays claimed by no one are to be sold for the benefit of the poor.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 289.

Fees arising from pedlars' and hawkers' licences also appropriated to the use of the poor.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 295.

These fines and forfeitures, which it is the duty of the overseer to collect (New Jersey Revised Laws, 295), as well as estates escheating to the use of the poor, must be paid by the overseer to the trustees of the county poor-house (in all counties where county poor-houses have been erected).—New Jersey Revised Laws, 765, s. 5.

Poor-houses, how Built, &c.

The overseer of the poor of any township may, with the approbation and consent of the major part of the inhabitants of the township, being householders, given at any town meeting duly called, build, hire or purchase any house or houses within the township out of the money provided for the relief of the poor, where the poor are to be maintained and employed, and the benefits of their labour to go for their support; and where a township is too small or poor to procure a house, it may join with another township, with the consent of the major part of the inhabitants of both, and unite in procuring a house for the reception of the poor of both such townships. Any pauper refusing to be lodged in the poor-house to be struck off the poor-list, and to receive no support from the township.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 43, s. 21; 4 Halsted's Rep. 276.

The board of chosen freeholders of every county may purchase or build a poor-house for their county, which is wholly under their directions. The poor are to be kept in such poor-house at the expense of the county, where they are to be employed, and materials to be procured for their employment also, at the expense of the county; and the money required for this purpose is to be raised as other money is raised for county purposes.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 323, s. 30, 31, 32.

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Two or more counties may unite and procure a poor-house at their joint expense for the reception of their paupers.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 323, s. 33. And the corporations of such counties to procure materials for their employment.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 324, s. 34. The expense of this arrangement is to be adjusted and apportioned by the said corporations between their respective counties in equal moities, or by the rate of tax which each shall be assessed to pay for the support of government, or in such other proportion as the said corporation shall deem just and proper; and the sum so ascertained to be paid by the county is to be raised by the county in such manner as the money for other county purposes is raised.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 324, s. 35. Each member of the board receives for his services \$1 per day for attending to these duties, while so employed.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 324, s. 36.

If the board of freeholders of any county, at their annual meeting, refuse to go into the measure of procuring a poor-house for the county, being requested so to do by the chosen freeholders of any township who have been authorized to make such request, by a vote of their town meeting, such refusal shall be entered on the minutes of the board; after which, the township making such request may go and procure a poor-house for themselves, and be exonerated from contributing to a county poor-house, or the expense thereof, which may after such refusal be built by the board of freeholders of the county, unless by the consent of the majority of the inhabitants of that township, expressed by a vote at town meeting, or unless such board of chosen freeholders pay to said township the full value of all the lands, buildings, improvements, &c. which have been provided by the township for that purpose, in which case, the overseers of the poor are to convey the lands, &c. to said board of chosen freeholders.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 695, s. 5.

The board of chosen freeholders above named are two judicious freeholders, chosen by each township in the county at their annual town meeting.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 342, s. 12. These freeholders (two from each township) compose the board of chosen freeholders for the county; they are incorporated, and manage most of the public concerns of the county.—New Jersey Revised Laws 317. 655. 694. Laws of New Jersey of 1830-31, passed 2d February 1831.

The statutes referred to above point out, 1st, The officer charged with the care of the poor, his appointment, &c.; 2d, The source from whence funds for the maintenance of the poor are raised, and the manner in which they are lodged; they are next to consider who are the paupers entitled to relief. They may be divided into,

I. Those entitled to Relief, but not from the Township.

They are, 1st, Paupers who have relations bound by law to maintain them, which if they refuse to do, they may be compelled by the court of quarter sessions, who may allow any sum not exceeding \$2. 50. per week. The father and grandfather, mother and grandmother, children and grandchildren, (of every poor, old, blind, lame and impotent person, or other person not able to work,) being of sufficient ability, shall relieve such poor person as aforesaid.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 764, s. 3.

2d, Bastards, whose putative father or whose mother is bound to maintain them by statute.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 171 s.; 1 s. Both of these statutes referred to under this head are transcripts from the English statutes, and the New Jersey decisions upon and practice under them correspond very nearly with the decisions and practice of the courts of that country. The next class of paupers are,

II. Those entitled to Relief from the Township.

They are persons who have gained a settlement by one of the following modes, or being casual poor accidentally overcome by sickness in a township where they do not belong are entitled to relief there, the township where they belong reimbursing the expenses to the town which administered relief.

1. Settlement by Birth.

The settlement of the parent is the settlement of the child; if the parent's settlement is unknown, the place where the child is born is *prima facie* his legal settlement.—1 Pennington's Rep. 289; 3 Halsted's Rep. 370. Bastard children are, however, settled in the last legal settlement of their mother.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 36, s. 4.

2. Settlement by Parentage.

The parent's last legal place of settlement is the settlement of a legitimate child.

3. Settlement by Marriage.

The settlement of the husband becomes immediately, by the intermarriage, the settlement of the wife.—3 Halsted's Rep. 370.

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4. Settlement by Residence and Notice.

A person may gain a settlement on coming into any township, provided that such person, within 40 days after his or her coming into such township, shall give notice to the overseers of the poor (in writing) of the same, of the place where he lives, number of his family, &c., which notice is recorded in the town-book by the township clerk; in case such person is not removed by warrant, under hand and seal of at least one justice of the peace, by said overseers within 12 months after notice served, he shall be deemed to be legally settled in such township.—New Jersey Laws, 35 and 36, s. 2. (This clause does not, however, extend to persons coming into townships under certificates acknowledging them to have settlements elsewhere.—1 Pennington's Reports, 125.)

5. Settlement by Apprenticeship and Service.

Every person who shall have served an apprenticeship under indenture, and every indentured servant legally and directly imported from Europe, or brought in from the neighbouring States (servants from gaols, workhouses and hospitals excepted), shall obtain a legal settlement in the township in which such apprentice or servant shall first serve one full year; and if such servant or apprentice shall serve one full year in any other place, he shall obtain a legal settlement in the township where the service was last performed.—Revised Law, New Jersey, 35, s. 1, and page 36, s. 3; 1 Coxe's Rep. 289. 389; 1 Pennington's Rep. 130. 422. 442. 445; 1 Halsted's Reports, 169; 3 Halsted's Rep. 257; 4 Halsted's Rep. 39.

6. Settlement by Estate.

Every person who shall become seised of any freehold estate of the value of 50*l.* in any city, town corporate, township or precinct, and shall dwell upon the said estate, or in the city, town corporate, township or precinct in which such estate doth lie, for one full year, shall thereby obtain a settlement in such city, town corporate, &c.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 35, s. 1; Pennington's Rep. 1038; 3 Halsted's Rep. 319.

7. Settlement by Residence of Mariners and Foreigners.

All mariners coming into this State, and having no settlement in this or any of the neighbouring States, and every other healthy person directly coming from Europe into this State, shall be legally settled in the city, borough, township or precinct in which he or she shall first settle and reside for the space of one year.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 35, s. 1.

8. Settlement of Slaves and Children of Slaves.

Slaves not manumitted according to law must be maintained by their owners; but if their owners are insolvent and unable to maintain them, the legal settlement of the master is the settlement of the slave.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 375, s. 26; Pennington's Rep. 14. 136. 415; 3 Halsted's Rep. 52. 64.

Manumitted slaves are settled in the same township where the master was settled at the time of the manumission; after manumission, the slave may gain a settlement in the same manner as the whites.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 375, s. 25; 3 Halsted's Rep. 64.

Children of slaves born after the 4th of July 1804 (who are free after a few years' service), not bought out to service by trustees or overseers of the poor, shall, after the males arrive at the age of 25 years and the females at 21 years, be deemed settled in the township or place in which they were born; such children may, however, gain a settlement in any other place in the same manner as the whites; and the place where they last served with their master or mistress, for the space of seven years, shall be their settlement.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 765, s. 6.

Children of slaves born free bound to service by trustees or overseers of the poor, obtain a settlement under such indenture the same as whites.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 765, s. 7.

Children of slaves born free and their issue are capable of gaining settlements, in like manner as other persons.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 765, s. 8.

9. Those who have no settlement which can be discovered, and casual poor, who are taken sick away from the townships where they are settled, are entitled to relief in the townships where they are found; and the sums thus expended by the townships where they are taken sick is to be refunded by the township in which their legal settlement is.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 39, s. 9; Pennington's Rep. 78; 1 Halsted's Rep. 116. 120; 3 Halsted's Rep. 166.

No persons, except those coming within some one of the qualifications mentioned above, are entitled to a settlement in any of the townships in this State; and in order that the townships may not become burthened by those who have no legal claim to relief from them, our statutes further enact, that,

1. Servants procured from the gaols, workhouses or hospitals of the neighbouring States and brought here, acquire no settlement by virtue of such hiring and service.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 36, s. 3.

2. Bastards, though born in a township, are not settled there, but are removed to the place of settlement of the mother.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 36, s. 4; Pennington's Rep. 130, 131. 870. 1016; 3 Hal. 371.

3. Slaves not under the age of 21 years nor above the age of 40 years, if sound in mind and not under any bodily incapacity to obtain a support, may be manumitted either by deed or last will and testament; but the slave under 21 years or over 40 years cannot be

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manumitted, unless the owner or other person gives bond, with two freeholders' security, that the slave shall not become a charge to the town.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 372, s. 22, 23.

4. When ships arrive from foreign parts, having passengers on board, the overseers of the poor of the place where the vessel arrives, or any justice of the peace, may require of the master or commander of the vessel a bond, with security in \$200, conditioned for the maintenance of any passenger sick, infirm or incapable, in the opinion of such justice or overseer, of providing for his support.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 655, s. 1. A penalty of \$100 for each offence may be recovered from such commander who permits any such passenger to land without having first given such a bond.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 656, s. 2.

5. Overseers of the poor may, with the approbation of two justices of the peace, bind out any poor child or children who have no parents, or whose parents shall apply to the overseers for relief, or the child or children of any poor person who shall bring up their children in sloth, idleness and ignorance, and who for three months after the advice and direction of the overseers shall refuse or neglect to bind them out.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 41, s. 18; Southard's Rep. 555.

6. President of the board of trustees of every poor-house, with the consent of a majority of the trustees, may bind out poor children.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 763, s. 1.

7. Two justices of the peace may bind out the child of any beggar, vagrant, vagabond, common drunkard or common prostitute, or any person who shall not provide for such child.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 475, s. 5.

8. Estates of persons absconding, leaving their families a public charge, may be seized and sold by the overseers of the poor, for the maintenance of the family thus deserted.—New Jersey Revised Laws, s. 19, 20.

9. Vagrants, vagabonds and beggars are to be apprehended and sent to their settlement by a pass warrant, and if they return they are to be whipped.—Revised Laws of New Jersey, 48, s. 33; page 49, s. 34; page 473, s. 1, 2, 3, 4; page 763, s. 2. 1 Green's Reports, 290.

10. A housekeeper or inhabitant who shall take into, receive or entertain in their house any vagabond, vagrant, sturdy beggar or any idle, strolling disorderly person, who has not gained a legal settlement in some township within this State, and shall not give notice in writing, within the space of 10 days after his receiving such person, to the overseer of the poor, shall, on being legally convicted of such offence before any justice, forfeit 20 s., one-half to the poor, the other half to prosecutor; and if such person shall fall sick, the inhabitant entertaining him must support him, and if he die must be at the cost of his funeral.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 36, s. 5; 2 Halsted's Rep. 431.

To prevent any unqualified persons from obtaining a settlement, a power is given to the overseers, acting under the authority of two justices, to remove improper persons to the townships to which they belong.

1. If any overseer of the poor has any reason to believe that any person who hath not obtained a legal settlement in any township in this State is likely to become chargeable, he shall apply to two justices of the peace, who, by their warrant directed to a constable, are to bring such person before them, and examine him, on oath or affirmation, as to his last place of legal settlement, which when ascertained, they are to order such person to remove there by a certain day by them to be named; and if said person refuses or neglects to obey such order, they are to issue their warrant to a constable, directing him to convey said person to a constable of the next township, and so to the nearest and most direct way, from constable to constable, until he reach his place of settlement; for which services said constable receives such compensation as a justice of the peace and the overseer shall deem reasonable.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 44, s. 23; Pennington's Reports, 314. 475. 1058; Southard's Rep. 186; 1 Halsted's Rep. 405; 2 Halsted's Rep. 439; 4 Halsted's Rep. 276; Coxe's Rep. 75. 390.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 764, s. 4.

2. Any person returning after removal is to be punished by whipping or imprisonment, and sent back again, unless he give bond, with two sufficient securities, that he will not become chargeable to the town.—New Jersey Revised Law, 43, s. 24.

3. Overseers of the town to which such pauper is removed by virtue of this Act are bound to receive such pauper; if he refuses he forfeits 5 l. to the use of the poor.—New Jersey Revised Law, 45, s. 25.

4. No settlement, however, is gained by a removal by virtue of this Act, but the settlement of the pauper remains as it was before the removal.—New Jersey Revised Law, 44, s. 22.

5. Persons who remove from one township into another, and bring with them the certificates under the hands and seals of the overseers of the poor of their legal settlement, attested by two or more credible witnesses, and subscribed by two or more justices of the peace of the township from whence they remove, acknowledging the persons therein mentioned to be inhabitants legally settled in the township or city mentioned in the certificate, then such person, on the delivery of such certificate to the overseers of the poor of the township to which he removes, may reside there and follow any lawful employment; said certificate must be delivered to the clerk of the township to be filed.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 38, s. 6.

6. Persons under certificates as above becoming chargeable must be removed, together with their families, apprentices, &c., to the townships from whence their certificates were brought, and the overseers of that township are obliged to receive them.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 38, s. 7; Pennington's Report, 477; but every servant and apprentice who

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has gained a settlement in the township to which his master removed, and in which he resided by virtue of the certificate aforesaid, cannot be removed as aforesaid.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 39, s. 7; Coxe's Rep. 389.

7. No person required to bring such certificate shall by any act of his gain a legal settlement in the township during the time he resides there by virtue of said certificate.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 39, s. 8.

8. The above clauses relating to the obtaining temporary settlements by certificates does not extend to any person who has not already, or shall not hereafter obtain a legal settlement in some part of this State.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 39, s. 8.

Appeal from Order of Removal.

1. Every person aggrieved by warrant of removal may appeal to the next general quarter sessions of the peace of the county wherein such removal shall happen.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 46, s. 26; Cox's Rep. 75; Pennington's Rep. 477. No justice who resides in the township where the dispute happens shall sit in court on such appeal.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 46, s. 26; Pennington's Rep. 314. 477. No appeal is to be proceeded in by the court unless reasonable notice of the appeal is given by the overseer appealing to the overseers of the place from whence the poor person shall be removed.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 46, s. 26.

2. On such appeal defects of form are to be amended by the court, without charge to either party, and the appeal to be then proceeded in; and if the said court of quarter sessions shall not rectify such order or proceedings, and they be removed into the Supreme Court, then that court to amend them, on the same terms.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 46, s. 27; Pennington's Rep. 131. 313; 1 Halsted's Rep. 405.

3. To prevent vexatious removals and frivolous appeals, the court is empowered, when it determines in favour of the appellants, to award them a sum sufficient to cover the expense they have been put to from the time of the undue removal to the determination of the appeal; they are also to award costs, at their discretion, to the party in whose favour they determine the appeal.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 46, s. 28; Coxe's Rep. 76; 2 Halsted's Rep. 4.

4. The sum of money so awarded may be sued for in any court of record in any county in this State, by the person in whose favour the money is awarded. And a copy of the award and order, signed and sealed by the clerk of the court is sufficient evidence for the recovery of the money awarded.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 47, s. 27.

5. Although the appeal from the order of the removal be not made to the next court of quarter sessions, as heretofore enacted, but be made to the second term of said court, if the reasons given to said court for the delay be satisfactory, the appeal may be heard in same manner as if it had been made to the first term.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 49, s. 35; Coxe's Rep. 75; 1 Halsted's Rep. 405.

Mode of granting Relief to a Pauper.

This may be in two ways:—1. In counties where no county poor-house is established; and 2. In counties where there are.

1. Where is no county poor-house, but only a township poor-house, or none at all.

When any poor person applies to the overseer for relief, the overseer is to apply to a justice of the peace of the county to which the township belongs, and said justice and overseer, or overseers, shall inquire into the state and circumstances of the party applying for relief. If it appears to the justice that the applicant is in circumstances requiring relief, he gives an order in writing to the overseer to make such weekly allowance to the necessitous person as in his discretion he may think he requires. The overseer is to make no other allowance but what the order directs. The order is the overseer's voucher for payment of the money, and is allowed in the settlement of his accounts.—New Jersey Revised Law, 40, s. 11; Pennington's Rep. 77. 6. 136. 475. 806. 1,042; 1 Halsted's Rep. 116. 119. 121; 2 Halsted's Rep. 431; 3 Halsted's Rep. 170.

Where there is no county poor-house, when any poor person applies to any overseer for relief, he convenes two justices of the peace of the county in which such relief is required, who issue their warrant to a constable to bring such person before them; they then proceed to examine the pauper, on oath, touching his last legal place of settlement; they may also issue subpoenas for witnesses, to give evidence respecting the place of settlement of the pauper, and if they adjudge the legal settlement of the pauper to be in the township where the relief is applied for, and deem such relief necessary, they make an order of removal to the county poor-house, commanding the overseers of the poor-house to receive him, which order of removal, and a copy of the evidence on which the adjudication was made, are to be delivered with the pauper to the steward of the poor-house. The expense of the examination and the removal is paid by the overseers of the township where the application for relief was made. But if it appears on examination that the legal settlement of the pauper is not in the county where the application was made, the justices are to make an order of removal to his legal settlement, in manner aforesaid.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 764, s. 4; Pennington's Rep. 471. 475. 805.

The goods and chattels of any pauper applying for relief are to be inventoried by the overseer before granting any relief, and afterwards sold to reimburse the township out of the proceeds all the expenses they have been at; all sales of which by the pauper after he becomes chargeable are void.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 41, s. 15.

Accountability of Overseers of the Poor.

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1. It is made the duty of the overseers to collect the various fines and penalties given the poor by statutes, and in some cases he is liable to a penalty himself for neglect.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 295, s. 7.

2. Overseer is to keep a book, wherein the names of all poor persons applying for relief, and ordered the same, are to be registered, with the day and year when they were first admitted to relief, the weekly or other sum allowed by the order for their relief, and the occasion or necessity which brought them there. No person to be entered on the books, or to receive relief from the overseers without such orders. If the overseer enters in the books, and relieve any such poor person without such order, he shall forfeit and not be allowed for the money and goods paid or distributed to such poor person. And they are required to enter into the said books all monies received, laid out and disbursed by him or them for the use of the poor, and all matters and things transacted by him or them relating to the said office. And said overseer shall lay said poor books before the inhabitants of the township at their annual or other town meetings, that they may examine and look into the state of the poor accounts, and make such further provision for them as may appear on inspection to be necessary.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 40, s. 12.

Monies collected by the overseer of the poor from fines and forfeitures, and estates which have been escheated to the use of the poor and come into his hands, he on receiving it is to pay it over to the trustees of the county poor-house, (if there is one in the county,) and therewith render a statement certifying on what account the money has been received, a copy of which statement is also to be sent to one of the trustees of the poor-house; the said payment and account to be rendered yearly on or before the first day of March.—New Jersey Revised Laws, 765, s. 5.

For the estates of persons absconding from their families seized by the overseer of the poor he is accountable to the justices of the peace at their quarter sessions.—New Jersey Revised Law, 42, s. 20. Overseers are also liable to account to the board of freeholders for monies in their hands; New Jersey Revised Laws, 321, s. 21; and when they account to the board of freeholders, or the trustees of the poor-house, their accounts will be published among the annual accounts of the board of chosen freeholders, in one or more newspapers circulating in the county.—Law of New Jersey, passed 2d February 1831.

Massachusetts.

STATE OF MASSACHUSETTS

VAGRANTS.

1. To what extent and under what form does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?—Mendicity is by no means prevalent; indeed very few instances thereof occur, and these are mostly confined to emigrants recently arrived. Beggars are liable to be taken up as vagabonds, and committed to houses of industry or of correction.

2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country, seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded, and under what regulations?—Persons of this description, where there are workhouses, are received therein; in those towns (town in this country is synonymous with parish in England) where there are no workhouses they are relieved by the overseers, at the expense of the towns of their settlement, if inhabitants of this State; if they are foreigners, or domiciled in other States, 70 cents, or about 3 s. 1 ½ d. sterling per week, are allowed out of the State treasury for each person of this description who is supported. Sometimes they are given small sums of money to induce them to proceed out of the towns.

DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are they, or any part of their families, billeted or quartered on householders?—If the word billeting be meant to signify the compulsory quartering of such persons upon householders, no such practice here exists.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—In towns which have no almshouses, &c., the poor are sometimes let *en masse* to the lowest bidder, and sometimes boarded by various persons, with whom the overseers contract on as favourable terms as possible; and they are generally compelled to work, either for the benefit of those by whom they are boarded, or of the town, according to the nature of the contract. There is no distinction made in the poor laws between the able-bodied and the impotent.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there district houses of industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families, and supplying them with food, clothes, &c., and in which they are set to work?—Such houses are now pretty generally established in all the larger towns of the State, where all who are able are compelled to work. As to the regulations of such houses, and the effects they have produced, I beg respectfully to refer to my Report relative to the poor laws of this country, and the Tables thereunto annexed, which I had the honour to transmit to Viscount Palmerston with my despatch of the 31st of December last, No. 23.

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4. To what extent and under what regulations do any religious institutions give assistance to the destitute, by receiving them as inmates, or by giving them alms?—I am not aware that assistance is afforded by any religious institutions; and from the result of my inquiries, believe that no such practice exists.

5. To what extent and under what regulations is work provided at their own dwellings for those who have trades, but do not procure work for themselves?—Few, if any instances exist; indeed, all here who are capable, and inclined to work, may find employment.

6. To what extent and under what regulations is work provided for such persons, in agriculture or on public works?—The same answer as the last is applicable to this question.

7. To what extent and under what regulations are fuel, clothing or money distributed to such persons or their families; at all times of the year, or during any particular seasons?—The custom of furnishing relief to the poor at their own houses is generally and justly reprobated, and does not prevail to any great extent. In Boston, where fuel is often enormously dear, coals and wood are distributed by the overseers to poor families. In the country wood is abundant. Very few, except the aged, the sick, and the impotent, are relieved at their own houses at any other times than during the winter.

8. To what extent and under what regulations are they relieved, by their children being taken into schools, and fed, clothed and educated, or apprenticed?—Every child has a right to receive instruction gratuitously at the public schools, which all the towns in the State are compelled to establish and support. As to food and clothing, these are furnished in conformity with the general provisions of the poor laws, relative to which I must refer to my above-mentioned Report. Children are, in a few instances, apprenticed by the overseers, and by the directors of houses of industry, &c.; the males till 21, females till 18 years of age.

9. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are the relatives of the destitute compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking charge of part of their families?—By statute of 1793, "the kindred of poor persons, in the line of father or grandfather, mother or grandmother, children or grandchildren, by consanguinity, living within the commonwealth, of sufficient ability, shall be holden to support such paupers in proportion to such ability; and the Court of Common Pleas is authorized to assess such kindred, and may order such paupers to be placed with such of their kindred as is judged proper.

10. To what extent and under what regulations are they assisted by loans?—I know of no instance of such assistance.

IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

The poor laws of this State making no distinction between the able-bodied and the impotent, as has been before observed, the preceding answers are applicable to this class of questions.

SICK.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there district institutions for the reception of the sick?—In Boston there is an hospital, called the "Massachusetts General Hospital," supported by voluntary contributions, and by several very large testamentary bequests, where all descriptions of sick and hurt persons belonging to the State are received; some on the recommendation of contributors and directors, gratuitously, others pay \$3, or 13 s. 6d. sterling per week for board, medical attendance, &c., and some as high as \$10 per week.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are surgical and medical relief afforded to the poor at their own homes?—There is no law in existence by which surgical and medical assistance are specifically required to be administered; it is, however, afforded under the general provisions of the poor laws. Medical practitioners are very numerous, and it is the general practice for the youngest to attend the sick poor gratuitously.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick?—There are no distinct provisions or regulations relative to the sick poor.

4. To what extent and under what regulations is assistance given to lying-in women at their homes, or in public establishments?—There is a small establishment in Boston for the reception of lying-in women, where they are attended, gratuitously in some instances, and in others \$3 per week are charged; but the number annually admitted is very small. Poor lying-in women are always attended gratuitously by the younger physicians; indeed, such attendance is never refused.

5. To what extent and under what regulations are there any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick?—See Answer to Question 3.

CHILDREN:

Illegitimate.

1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall; wholly upon the mothers, or wholly upon the fathers; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations?—Both father and mother are liable. The language of the statute rendering them so is singular; it enacts, that "when any woman who has been delivered of a bastard, or being pregnant of a child, which, if born alive, may be a

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bastard, shall accuse any man of being the father thereof before any justice of the peace upon examination, on oath, and being put upon the discovery of the truth respecting the same accusation in the time of travail, shall thereupon accuse the same person of being the father of the child of which she is about to be delivered, and shall continue constant in such accusation, and shall prosecute him as the father of such child before the court of general sessions," (by subsequent statute the jurisdiction is transferred to the Common Pleas), "in the manner prescribed, in which she shall be a competent witness, her credibility being left to the jury, he shall be adjudged reputed father, and charged with the maintenance of such child, with the assistance of the mother, as the justices of the court shall order."—Stat. 1783.

The following points have been decided by the Supreme Court relative to the construction of this Act:—

1st. That the Court has no authority to order a putative father to pay lying-in charges, *eo nomine*, but if mother disabled by her lying-in from attending to her child, and be obliged to procure assistance, that the statute would authorize an order for the payment of a larger sum for the first week than for any succeeding week.

2d. That the mother has a right to the control of the child, and is bound to maintain it as its natural guardian.

3d. That such natural guardianship of mother devolves on her future husband on her marriage, *durante conjugio*, but ceases on its dissolution.

As the mother is not compelled to make any declaration relative to her pregnancy before the birth of the child, all the latter part of the statute seems nugatory. Very few instances occur of mothers complaining to the courts; the matter, in a very great majority of cases, being arranged by the parties out of court. There are no women here in such a degraded state as to render the publicity of their shame a matter of indifference, and all parties are, in general, anxious for concealment. The practice of procuring abortion is very prevalent, for which the law has provided no adequate remedy.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards?—Not at all.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?—Same as other paupers.

Orphans, Foundlings, or Deserted Children.

4. To what extent and under what regulations are they taken into establishments or their reception?—Only one or two very limited establishments exist, which are alike applicable to orphans and foundlings. No establishment for the reception of deserted children exists.

5. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?—To no extent.

6. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—Same as other paupers.

7. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—Same as other paupers. See Answer to Question 9, under "*Destitute Able-bodied*."

CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception?—No such establishments for cripples. No establishment for deaf and dumb in Massachusetts. There is a very excellent one in Connecticut. There is an excellent institution for the indigent blind, where they are supported and educated; it has only been recently established by subscription. One individual gave the house, worth \$30,000, on condition that \$30,000 towards its support were subscribed within a year, which was done. The number of blind received and maintained is now 20.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?—Not at all.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—Same as other paupers.

4. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—See Answer to Question 9, under head "*Able-bodied*."

IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception? 2. Are they billeted or quartered on householders? 3. Are they boarded with individuals? 4. To what degree of relationship are their relatives compelled to support them?—Poor idiots are treated and provided for the same as other paupers. See letter of Dr. Woodward, No. 1.

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Massachusetts.

Besides the lunatic hospital at Worcester, the Massachusetts General Hospital receives lunatics, on the same terms as other patients, at a separate establishment in Charlestown, two miles from Boston. As to the former, I have the honour to refer to the accompanying copy of Dr. Woodward's (the superintending physician) Letter to me, marked No. 1, and to the Report, marked No. 2.

As to the three last questions, the answers before given to the same, with reference to other paupers, are applicable.

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

You are requested to state whether the receipt, or the expectation of relief, appears to produce any, and what effect; 1st, On the industry of the labourers; 2d, On their frugality; 3d, On the age at which they marry; 4th, On the mutual dependence and affection of parent, children and other relatives?—The number of persons who receive permanent relief as paupers is so small, that it is impossible to estimate the effect which such relief, or the expectation thereof, has produced, relative to the matters which are the subject of the four first questions. The proportion of those who receive relief does not in the whole amount to five per cent. upon the population, and of these a very great majority only receive casual and temporary assistance. The permanent poor consist entirely of the aged and impotent. These facts will appear evident on reference to the tables annexed to my Report, before mentioned.

5. What, on the whole, is the condition of the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, as compared with the condition of the person subsisting on alms or public charity? Is the condition of the latter, as to food and freedom from labour, more or less eligible? See p. 261 & 335 of the Poor Law "Extracts."—The few subsisting on alms and public charity are in every respect in a worse condition than the self-supported labourers, who, in general, live much better than the majority of English farmers. Very few earn less than 4s. 6d. sterling per day. They and their families are amply supplied with meat, fish or poultry every day. I have carefully perused the whole of the volume referred to, and am satisfied that most of the observations contained therein are perfectly correct as regards England, but very few are applicable to this country. There are here very few permanent charitable funds, and what few there are have been too recently established to have become liable to mal-administration.

LABOURERS, &c.

1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month, or the year, with and without provisions, in summer and in winter?—Overseers and managers of large factories receive from 1,500 to 3,500 dollars per annum. First-rate mechanics from 2 to 3 dollars per day; carpenters, masons, &c. 1 ½ dollar, or 6s. 9d. sterling per day; labourers, 1 ¼ dollar in Boston, and 1 dollar in the country per day. Agricultural labourers, in harvest time, from 1 to 1 ½ dollar per day; those boarded and lodged, from 14 to 18 dollars per month, for the six summer and autumn months, and some the same all the year; others from 10 to 12 dollars during winter, per month. Domestics in private families from 10 to 18 dollars per month, during the whole year.

2. Is piece-work general?—Piece work is not general; when performed, the labourer earns about the usual wages.

3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—I am of opinion, and so are many of the best judges whom I have consulted, that labourers earn on an average from 250 to 300 dollars, or from 56l. 5s. to 67l. 10s. sterling per annum. Able mechanics more than double those sums.

4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?—It is almost impossible to form a just estimate. Some spend all they earn, and very few less than \$200 per annum. They are at no expense for schooling or religious teachers, unless they prefer sending their children to private schools, which few, even of the better classes, do.

5. Is there any, and what employment for women and children?—Women are chiefly employed in the management of their domestic concerns. Some braid straw, and others work at the factories; children are generally employed at school; very few in agriculture, and scarcely any under 14 at the factories.

6. What can women, and children under 16, earn per week, in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed?—Women never do any harvest work. At the factories they earn from 2 ½ to 5 dollars per week.

7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8 and 5 years respectively, (the eldest a boy) expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?—From what is above stated, it will be seen that this question does not admit of an answer. There may be a few labourers' families in which all the members contribute something to the general stock, and by such families from 350 to 450 dollars may be earned.

8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children, and if so, on what food?—Certainly; there are very few who do not eat meat, poultry or fish twice or three times a day.

P. L. (F.)

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Massachusetts.

9. Could it lay by anything, and how much?—Many lay by from 50 to 100 dollars per year. The cashier of the savings bank at Boston assures me that there are many hundreds who do so, and that three-fourths of the deposits are made by Irish emigrants; a singular fact.

10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?—Land in this State is generally poor and plenty. Except emigrants, there are very few to whom the word "labourer," in its usual English sense, is applicable. Most of the agricultural labourers are small farmers of their own land, and also work occasionally for others. No estimate of the quantity of land can be formed; it seldom exceeds 50 acres.

11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations?—There are so few labourers' habitations, properly so called, that it is difficult to answer this question; the smaller houses are generally owned by shopkeepers, innkeepers, &c.

12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale?—It is impossible to answer this question correctly; the smallest houses pay from 25 to 75 dollars rent.

13. Whether any lands let to labourers, if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—No definite answer can be given to this question.

14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?—I think $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. would be a pretty correct average.

15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?—About $\frac{1}{8}$ per cent. more than the deaths, but no means exist of forming a correct estimate.

16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?—There are no means of ascertaining such proportion.

17. The average number of children to a marriage?—About five.

18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?—It is impossible to form any opinion upon this subject; scarcely one illegitimate birth in ten is publicly known, for the reasons before stated.

19. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year?—No records of births being kept, this and the two following questions cannot be answered as respects the whole State. As to the city of Boston, some opinion may be formed from the accompanying Abstract of the Bill of Mortality.

20. Proportion of children that die before the end of their tenth year? 21. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 18th year?—See Answer to Question 19.

22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—I should think females from 18 to 22; males from 21 to 26.

23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—Early engagements to marry are very common; but the men are generally cool and calculating, and often delay fulfilling such engagements from three to seven years, or until they feel capable of supporting a family; I know of no other cause by which marriages are delayed. The poor laws have no effect as to this matter.

24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried, 2d, the married, save?—Both unmarried and married often save from 50 to 100 dollars per annum; but the majority of both spend all they earn.

25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—Sometimes they are lent to their friends or relations, at 6 per cent., but most commonly invested in the savings bank.

Boston, 13 May 1834.

George Manners,

H. M. Consul in Massachusetts.

It has long been in contemplation to alter the poor laws, and particularly to abolish the State allowance, which measure has been recently recommended by a committee of the legislature; such allowance being justly considered as operating to encourage idleness. Some have proposed the total abolition of all poor laws, but, for the reasons stated in my Report, before mentioned, I think this would prove a very unwise experiment. It is, however, very desirable that no one capable of work should be supported in idleness. I have, as yet, been able to procure the dietaries of very few institutions, but have taken measures to obtain a more extensive list, which when completed I will have the honour of transmitting in a supplementary despatch.

G. M.

GENERAL

GENERAL ABSTRACT of the BILL OF MORTALITY for the City of *Boston*, from 1 January 1833, to 1 January 1834; agreeably to the Records kept at the Health Office.

1833.		Under 1 Year.		1 to 2.		2 to 5.		5 to 10.		10 to 20.		20 to 30.		30 to 40.		40 to 50.		50 to 60.		60 to 70.		70 to 80.		80 to 90.		90 to 100.		Un- known		Still- born.		Total.	
		M	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.				
January	-	9	14	2	9	6	7	0	2	2	3	6	9	9	5	10	1	3	2	2	3	3	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	6		117	
February	-	11	8	3	7	11	3	1	0	2	3	4	13	10	8	2	3	5	6	2	5	3	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	4		118	
March	-	10	12	1	3	1	3	0	2	3	2	9	6	8	11	2	5	3	0	1	4	1	4	0	1	0	0	0	2	11		105	
April	-	11	12	5	5	4	5	1	2	3	3	6	13	3	7	4	2	3	5	1	3	3	3	1	0	1	0	0	0	12		118	
May	-	7	5	1	6	8	3	1	1	3	1	6	11	6	3	2	2	2	3	1	4	2	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	11		93	
June	-	9	5	2	5	7	2	3	2	1	1	6	9	6	5	5	1	6	3	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	6		89	
July	-	9	11	4	7	7	4	3	3	1	2	4	5	6	6	5	1	1	3	2	5	2	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	7		102	
August	-	14	21	10	11	11	6	3	0	1	0	6	11	9	11	5	2	4	1	5	5	3	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	14		156	
September	-	21	26	13	21	5	4	6	4	4	6	9	13	11	2	10	4	1	4	2	3	1	4	1	1	0	1	0	0	9		186	
October	-	17	12	7	4	6	6	3	0	1	5	13	7	7	14	5	2	2	1	2	3	2	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	6		128	
November	-	7	12	7	2	6	5	2	1	5	6	16	8	8	3	10	6	3	0	4	2	3	4	1	0	1	0	0	1	6		129	
December	-	12	10	2	11	10	7	0	1	2	4	12	11	9	5	5	6	5	2	3	5	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	10		135	
		137	148	57	91	82	55	23	18	28	36	97	116	92	80	65	35	38	39	26	41	23	28	7	12	3	1	1	4	102		1,476	

THE following are the Diseases, as far as they have been reported to the Health Office, which have occasioned the Deaths in the City during the past Year :

Apoplexy	- - -	19
Accidental	- - -	18
Abscess	- - -	4
Asthma	- - -	3
Brain, diseases of	- - -	4
Bleeding of the lungs	- - -	3
Bowels, diseases of	- - -	4
Burns	- - -	10
Bursting blood-vessel	- - -	3
Child-bed diseases	- - -	17
Cholera-infantum	- - -	14
Cholera-morbus	- - -	5
Convulsions	- - -	36
Consumption	- - -	240
Croup	- - -	43
Canker	- - -	13
Canker in the bowels	- - -	11
Canker-rash	- - -	3
Cancer	- - -	11
Colic	- - -	1
Colic, bilious	- - -	3
Debility	- - -	12
Dropsy	- - -	24
Dropsy of the brain	- - -	52
Dropsy of the chest	- - -	7
Diarrhoea	- - -	3
Dysentery	- - -	38
Drowned	- - -	10
Diseases unknown	- - -	85
Delirium tremens*	- - -	3
Erisipelas	- - -	3
Epilepsy	- - -	1
Fevers unknown	- - -	11
Fever, nervous	- - -	4
— lung	- - -	59
— slow	- - -	4
— typhus	- - -	62
— brain	- - -	7
— scarlet	- - -	61
— bilious	- - -	5
— rheumatic	- - -	3
— worm	- - -	3
Fracture	- - -	2
Gout	- - -	1
Hooping-cough	- - -	28
Heart, diseases of	- - -	13
Hip, disease of	- - -	1
Inflammation of the bowels,	- - -	23
— of the lungs }	- - -	19
— of the stomach, }	- - -	
— of the brain	- - -	
Influenza	- - -	1
Infantile diseases	- - -	100
Intemperance	- - -	40
Introsusception	- - -	1
Jaundice	- - -	5
Kidney, disease of	- - -	1
Liver complaint	- - -	12
Leprosy	- - -	1
Marasmus	- - -	2
Measles	- - -	2
Mortification	- - -	4
Old age	- - -	57
Pleurisy	- - -	8
Palsy	- - -	12
Quinsy	- - -	2
Rheumatism	- - -	1
Rickets	- - -	1
Still-born	- - -	102
Salt-rheum	- - -	1
Scald	- - -	1
Scrofula	- - -	4
Scirrhus	- - -	1
Sudden	- - -	5
Spasms	- - -	3
Spine	- - -	4
Suicide	- - -	14
Suffocation	- - -	2
Stomach, disease of	- - -	2
Throat distemper	- - -	23
Throat, putrid sore	- - -	3
Teething	- - -	30
Tumor	- - -	2
White swelling	- - -	4
Worms	- - -	4
Wounds	- - -	1
Total	- - -	1,476

Population of Boston: 1810, 33,250; 1820, 43,298; 1830, 61,392.

BILLS OF MORTALITY for the City of *Boston* :

1811	-	-	742	1817	-	-	907	1823	-	-	1,154	1828	-	-	1,233
1812	-	-	677	1818	-	-	971	1824	-	-	1,297	1829	-	-	1,221
1813	-	-	786	1819	-	-	1,070	1825	-	-	1,450	1830	-	-	1,125
1814	-	-	727	1820	-	-	1,103	1826	-	-	1,254	1831	-	-	1,422
1815	-	-	854	1821	-	-	1,420	1827	-	-	1,022	1832	-	-	1,761
1816	-	-	904	1822	-	-	1,203								

(By order of the Mayor and Aldermen.)

Samuel H. Hewes, Superintendent of Burial Grounds.

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.

CANARY ISLANDS.

CANARY ISLANDS.

My Lord,

Santa Cruz, 4 April 1834.

I HAVE the honour to acknowledge the receipt of the circular letter, dated 30 November 1833, signed by Mr. Bidwell, inclosing printed questions to be answered respecting the condition and management of the poor, the sick, and the helpless. These questions are for the most part inapplicable to the state of society as it exists in these islands; and as I should be obliged to place "nil" against most of the questions, I have drawn a Memorandum, in which is given, with reference to the different sections in the printed paper, information on the various points stated.

I shall not fail to keep in mind the wish of His Majesty's Government to collect intelligence on all statistical matters, and take care to note whatever can be procured, though my means are limited to what can be gathered from conversation, and some facts obtained from public offices as a favour.

I am, &c.

(signed) *Richard Bartlett.*The Right Hon.
Viscount Palmerston.

MEMORANDUM.

MENDICITY; VAGRANTS; DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED; IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

Mendicity does prevail to a great extent in the Canary Islands. There is no legal provision whatever for the relief or support of the poor included in the denominations stated above; casual charity is the only resource; but as the natives for the most part remain in the places where they were born, there are very few who have not some relations and acquaintance, from whom they receive occasional assistance. From the nature of the climate, the wants of the poor, when not suffering from sickness, are very limited; having food sufficient to satisfy their hunger, they are scarcely affected by the privations so sensibly felt by the poor in northern climates. "Goffro," (which is maize, barley or wheat, toasted and ground by the hand between two stones,) mixed with water or milk, potatoes and other vegetables, with sometimes a small piece of salt fish, constitute the general food of the peasantry throughout the islands. In the towns the artisans live better, obtaining bread, potatoes, salt fish, and sometimes butchers' meat.

SICK.

In Santa Cruz there is one hospital for the poor, but the accommodation is very limited, (24 beds), in no degree proportional to the wants of the population.

In the town of Laguna is one also, larger than Santa Cruz, and tolerably maintained. At Las Palmas, the capital of the island of Canary, is the largest and best hospital in the islands; near that town also is the hospital of St. Lazarus, exclusively for lepers, of which there are considerable numbers. This hospital is well kept up, and the building in a good state of repair, with a garden walled round. The unfortunate inmates are said to be comfortably provided for.

CHILDREN, ILLEGITIMATE; ORPHANS, FOUNDLINGS, DESERTED CHILDREN.

There are no legal regulations as to illegitimate children; their support therefore falls on the mother. There is a foundling hospital at Laguna in Teneriffe, and another at Las Palmas in Canary; in each a turning box, and a great number of children are by this means disposed of. In the hospital of Santa Cruz is also a turning box; the infants left are understood to be sent to Laguna. Children placed in the box have usually some mark by which they may be recognised, and they are given up to parents when claimed. There is no other provision for children.

CRIPPLES, DEAF, DUMB AND BLIND,

Live with their parents or relations, or subsist by casual charity. No provision.

IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

No particular establishment; live with their relations. When violent, they are placed in the hospitals or gaols.

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Communications.

CANARY ISLANDS.

DIETARIES

In the hospital of Santa Cruz the patients have for breakfast, slices of bread in weak broth; for dinner, besides bread, "fideos," (a common sort of vermicelle, of which much is made in the island) in broth, with a small quantity of meat; for supper, slices of bread and broth, the same as for breakfast. The allowance of bread is calculated at the rate of a pound for each person. This statement may be considered as applicable to all the hospitals in the island.

LABOURERS; ARTISANS.

Almost all the land in the Canary Islands is cultivated by agreement between the owners of the land and a class of persons called "medianeros (middlemen), intelligent husbandmen; the conditions are simple: that the medianero shall cultivate the land, and find half the seed, he retaining half the produce; the other half is delivered to the landlord in kind.

The wages of artisans are about 3s. a day; of day labourers from 14d. to 18d. a day. Piece-work is not common. At Santa Cruz semstresses are paid 6d. a day, with food, and 10d. without. Peasant women sometimes obtain a few "quarts" (8 are equal to 2½d.) for field-work.

Labourers must live on what they can earn or beg; but, as has been observed, they are satisfied with the commonest food, and their other wants are very limited, from the nature of the climate. The landlords are the owners of the labourers' cottages; the rent about 3s. a month.

Women marry from 15 to 25, and men at all ages. The women are very prolific. Many illegitimate children are born; and great numbers, both legitimate and illegitimate, are said to die young. There are no means of giving answers to the questions numbered from 14 to 22 in the printed paper.

The peasantry are a robust and hardy race, laborious and frugal. There is a great deal of family affection among them. Considerable numbers emigrate to the Havanna and Puerto Rico ostensibly, but it is believed that they are taken to Caraccas and other American countries, once dependencies of the Spanish crown.

Santa Cruz, Teneriffe,
4 April 1834.

(signed) Rd. Bartlett,
Consul.

MEXICO.

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.

MEXICO.

REPLIES to the QUERIES of the POOR LAW COMMISSIONERS circulated amongst
His Majesty's Consuls.

VAGRANTS.

1. To what extent and under what form does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?—Mendicity is chiefly confined in Mexico to aged, infirm and disabled persons. In cases of this description it is tolerated. Able-bodied persons are not allowed to beg. Magistrates have the power of sentencing sturdy vagrants and mendicants to the public works, or to service in the army.

2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country, seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded, and under what regulations?—There exists no regulation upon this subject, as far as I can learn, in any part of the Mexican Republic.

DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

The ten queries relating to destitute able-bodied persons may be best answered by stating that throughout the Mexican Republic the demand for labour exceeds the supply; consequently, that no person willing to work need be out of employment. In a few places, where manufactures have declined, owing to the competition of imported goods, some distress prevails; but this arises from an unwillingness on the part of the people to change their habits, occupations and place of abode, and not from a dearth of employment, either local or general. Those who choose to devote themselves to other industrious pursuits easily find a living. Owing, doubtless, to this state of things, it has never been thought necessary to introduce legislative or municipal regulations for the maintenance of able-bodied persons.

IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there almshouses or other institutions for the reception of those who, through age, are incapable of earning their subsistence? or, 2. Is relief in food, fuel, clothing or money afforded them at their homes? or, 3. Are they boarded with individuals? or, 4. Are they quartered or billeted on the householders? or, 5. Are their relatives compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking part of their families?—In Mexico, and some other considerable towns of the Republic, there are houses of refuge for aged and infirm persons and orphans, supported by charitable bequests and donations. That of the city of Mexico is richly endowed, but its funds have from time to time been taken possession of by the government. The intentions of its founders and benefactors are accordingly but imperfectly fulfilled, and the establishment has been for some years very badly managed. Pains have, however, been lately taken to effect a reform, and it now affords an asylum to 80 aged and infirm persons of both sexes, and to 200 boys and girls. The latter are taught trades and domestic industry, and find no difficulty in providing for themselves when of an age to leave the establishment.

There are no regulations for supplying relief of any kind to aged or destitute persons at their own houses, or for quartering them on householders, or compelling their relations to provide for them.

SICK.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there district institutions for the reception of the sick?—In Mexico, and other large towns, there are hospitals for the sick, into which applicants of all classes are indiscriminately admitted. These establishments are supported by charitable bequests, with the assistance in some places of a trifling local duty upon articles of general consumption. They all possess sufficient funds, if properly administered, to answer the object of their institution; but, owing to bad and dishonest management, they have most of them fallen into such disrepute that none but the very poorest classes of patients have recourse to them. The hospital of "Jesus," founded by Cortez, and continued by his descendants, as directed by his will, formed an exception to this observation; but it no longer exists, having been closed last year in consequence of the confiscation of the property of the family by a decree of the Congress.

In the country towns and villages there are no establishments for the relief of the sick.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are surgical and medical relief afforded to the poor at their own homes? or, 3. Are there institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick?—There are no permanent regulations of the kind alluded to in these

two queries. In times of unusual sickness or epidemics, subscriptions are occasionally raised, and temporary arrangements made for affording medical and other assistance to the poor at their own houses.

4. To what extent and under what regulations is assistance given to lying-in women at their homes, or in public establishments?—There is a department in the poor-house of Mexico set apart for lying-in women, and I imagine the same to be the case in other of the larger towns. Owing to the general mildness of the climate, such establishments are less required in this than in most other countries.

5. To what extent and under what regulations are there any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick?—I do not understand that there are any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick than those above described.

CHILDREN :

Illegitimate.

1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall; wholly upon the mothers, or wholly upon the fathers; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations? or, 2. Are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards? or, 3. Are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?—By the laws of Spain, still in force in Mexico, the father is obliged to maintain his illegitimate offspring, but he cannot oblige the mother to part with the child until it has been nursed three years. Where no father is ascertained, the mother is obliged to support her child: in some cases, the obligation extends to the grandfather and grandmother in both lines. Great indifference, however, prevails as to the enforcement of these laws; and children, even at an early age, if abandoned by their parents, easily find employment in domestic service, or as apprentices or assistants to tradespeople.

Orphans, Foundlings, or Deserted Children.

4. To what extent and under what regulations are they taken into establishments for their reception?—In Mexico, and other towns where such establishments exist, orphans and deserted children are received into the houses of refuge above described.

In Mexico, there is also an hospital expressly for foundlings.

5. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders? or, 6. Are they boarded with individuals? or, 7. Are their relatives compelled to support them?—There are no regulations for quartering them upon householders, or boarding them with individuals, or compelling their relations to support them.

CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception? or, 2. Are they billeted or quartered on householders? or, 3. Are they boarded with individuals? or, 4. Are their relatives compelled to support them?—Answers the same as to the four last preceding queries.

IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception? or, 2. Are they billeted or quartered on householders? or, 3. Are they boarded with individuals? or, 4. Are their relatives compelled to support them?—There are two hospitals in Mexico, one for male, and the other for female pauper lunatics; but neither in Mexico, nor in any other part of the country, do there exist regulations for quartering idiots and lunatics upon householders, or boarding them with individuals, or compelling their relations to take care of them.

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

There being no system of poor laws in the Republic of Mexico, the queries under this head do not directly apply to this country. But it may not be out of place to observe, that the general facility of obtaining a livelihood; the high rate of wages, compared with the price of the necessaries of life; indifference to comfort and decency of appearance,—a consequence of the fineness of the climate, which may almost be said to render the lower orders independent of clothing, fuel and shelter,—all tend to produce in the Mexican population habits of idleness, profligacy and improvidence beyond what is observable in most countries: accordingly, their industry is limited to that which is necessary to providing a bare subsistence; the only stimulus to greater exertion being the desire to find the means of gratifying their vicious propensities.

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.

MEXICO.

Frugality they have none. They marry whenever the fancy takes them; generally young.

From the foregoing observations, it will be readily understood that the condition of the self-supporting labourer in Mexico is, from choice, but not from necessity, in no way better than that of the person subsisting on charity.

On the contrary, the inmate of the hospital or poor house has to a certain degree the advantage in being provided with suitable apparel, a regular supply of food, better lodging, together with the comfort derived from habits approaching to order and civilization.

For the same reason of there being no system of poor laws in this country, there is nothing to be said upon the subject of a maladministration of charitable funds similar to that described in the volume published by the English Poor Law Commissioners; but in the management of the charitable institutions which do exist in Mexico, abuses of all sorts undoubtedly prevail.

DIETARIES, &c.

In the "hospicio de pobres," or poor-house of Mexico, the allowance of food is as follows: To grown-up persons, in the morning, either a cup of chocolate or a measure (containing something less than a pint) of maize porridge; dinner, eight ounces of meat and a measure of soup; supper, a measure of stewed beans or peas; wheaten bread for the whole day, 18 ounces. Children, in the morning, a small cup of chocolate or a measure of porridge sweetened; dinner, six ounces of meat and a portion of soup; supper, an allowance of stewed beans or peas; bread for the whole day, 14 ounces. The average daily expense of food for each individual, between grown-up persons and children, is about $7\frac{1}{2}d.$ of our money.

Formerly the allowance, particularly of meat, was more liberal; but in consequence of the reduced state of the funds of the establishment, it was found necessary to diminish it.

LABOURERS, &c.

1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month, or the year, with and without provisions, in summer and in winter?—The wages of an able-bodied agricultural labourer vary, according to the locality and time of year, from 2 rials to $3\frac{1}{2}$ rials, without provisions; that is to say, from 1s. to 1s. 9d. a day of our money, the latter being the highest rate paid in the immediate neighbourhood of Mexico; but in every case the rate of wages far exceeds what is necessary for the support of the labourer and his family, according to the habits of persons of that class in this country; the surplus is spent in drunkenness and debauchery on Sundays and holidays. Among the Indian population, a good deal goes to the purchase of ornaments for their favourite saint, and other religious or superstitious offerings.

2. Is piece-work general?—Piece-work is not usual in field labour; but among artisans and tradesmen, such as tailors, shoemakers, smiths and carpenters, it is general, and the rate of remuneration high for the labour performed. In the mines a great part of the work is done by task.

3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—In all the settled parts of the country, an agricultural labourer, who is constant at his work, may be sure to earn on an average throughout the year from a dollar and a half to two dollars a week; 6s. to 8s. of our money. If in remote places, the rate is lower; the price of food is low in proportion. Artisans at least double that amount, with a certainty of constant employment whenever inclined to work.

4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?—It is difficult to answer this question, owing to the great difference in the price of provisions; but I am sure I may safely say, as a general rule, that the labourer or artisan who chooses to work constantly will earn, except in times of extraordinary scarcity, at least twice as much as is necessary for the expenditure of his family in food and clothing, suited to the habits of the Mexican people. Schooling for children, where there is any, and such as it is, is generally provided gratuitously; in the towns, out of the funds of the municipality; in country places, by the curate of the parish.

5. Is there any, and what employment for women and children?—There is no want of employment for women, either in the towns or in the country, nor for children above 10 years of age.

6. What can women, and children under 16, earn per week, in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed?—It would be very difficult to answer this query with precision; but it may be sufficient to say that women, with or without children, and with or without the assistance of the latter, can always earn enough for their support.

7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8 and 5 years, respectively (the eldest a boy), expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?—Also difficult to answer with precision.

8. Could

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MEXICO.

8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children, and if so, on what food?—Most certainly. The common food of working-people in Mexico is maize, or Indian corn, prepared either as porridge (atole), or in thin cakes (tortillas), and beans (frijoles), like the white bean so much in use in France, with the addition of chile, a species of hot pepper, of which they eat enormous quantities by way of seasoning. In the towns, wheaten bread forms a part of the food of the lower classes, and meat occasionally.

9. Could it lay by anything, and how much?—Such a family could certainly lay by something; but it never enters into the head of a Mexican to save.

10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation? 11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations? 12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale? 13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—It is not customary for common labourers in this country to hold any land. Sometimes Indians who possess small patches of land of their own go to work at the large farming establishments in harvest or sowing-time, when wages are at the highest rate. At the "haciendas," or large farms, houses, or rather huts, are given free of rent to the labourers belonging to the establishment. The practice of building houses to let to labouring people does not seem to prevail in any part of this country.

14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population? 15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population? 16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population? 17. The average number of children to a marriage? 18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births? 19. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year? 20. That die before the end of their 10th year? 21. That die before the end of their 18th year? 22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females? 23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—No registers are kept in this country, from which it would be possible to answer these queries with any thing like accuracy; but, as a general observation, it may be said that population increases very slowly in Mexico, owing partly to the number of violent deaths, which is great beyond belief, among the lower orders, particularly in the large towns, and partly to the great proportion of deaths in infancy, owing to the careless habits of the poor, and the frequent occurrence of small-pox and other epidemic complaints, particularly among the Indians. Besides which, owing to causes which I will not attempt to determine, the average length of life in Mexico is not near as great (perhaps not by a fourth) as in the northern countries of Europe.

24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried, 2d, the married, save? 25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—I know no class of persons in this country at all addicted to saving. There are no savings-banks or other institutions to encourage the labouring classes to save.

Mexico, 26 July 1834.

N. Pakenham.

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.

MARANHAM.

MARANHAM.

VAGRANTS.

1. To what extent and under what form does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?—To a very limited extent, and is confined almost exclusively to cripples, the aged and the impotent.
2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country, seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded, and under what regulations?—None.

DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

There is no provision for this class of persons.

To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are the relatives of the destitute compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking charge of part of their families?—Parents are obliged to support their children whilst they are too young to support themselves, but beyond this no one is compelled to relieve his relatives.

To what extent and under what regulations are they assisted by loans?—None.

IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

There is no provision for this class of persons.

SICK.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there district institutions for the reception of the sick?—The hospital of the “Mizericordia,” established in this city, is the only receptacle for the sick in this province (as noted in the General Remarks, p. 694), and it will not accommodate more than 30 to 40 invalids.
2. To what extent and under what regulations are surgical and medical relief afforded to the poor at their own homes?—The municipal body or corporation of this city pays a small salary to a surgeon to attend on the sick at their own houses, and it is his duty to visit every destitute sick person that asks for his advice.
3. To what extent and under what regulations are there institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick?—None.
4. To what extent and under what regulations is assistance given to lying-in women at their homes, or in public establishments?—None, except what is given voluntarily on the part of the medical men of the city.
5. To what extent and under what regulations are there any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick?—There are no other compulsory modes.

CHILDREN:

Illegitimate.

1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall; wholly upon the mothers, or wholly upon the fathers; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations?—On the mothers.
2. To what extent and under what regulations are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards?—They are under no obligation.
3. To what extent and under what regulations are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?—The public is not compelled to contribute to their support.

Orphans, Foundlings, or Deserted Children.

4. To what extent and under what regulations are they taken into establishments for their reception?—A few orphans are received into the “Recolhimento,” to be educated and supported, but the number is very limited. The trustees of the “Mizericordia” have lately established a Foundling Hospital in this city, and support it with their funds. Into it are received all foundlings; but, though they appear to be well treated, the greatest part of them die immediately. Parents who wish to abandon their children deposit them in the Foundling Hospital.
5. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders? or, 6. Boarded with individuals? or, 7. Are their relatives compelled to support them?—None.

CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

There is no provision for these classes of persons.

IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

There is no provision for these classes.

EFFECTS

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

As there is no compulsory relief given to the poor in this province, the questions do not apply to it.

LABOURERS, &c.

Foreign
Communications.

MARANHAM.

1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month, or the year, with and without provisions, in summer and in winter? 2. Is piece-work general? 3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—Nearly all the labour in this country is performed by slaves, and they are generally employed by their owners. In the few cases where slave labourers are hired for agricultural purposes, the usual wages are six milreis, or about 17 s. sterling per month, besides their food. Stonemasons, carpenters, cabinet-makers, tailors, &c. can find full employment throughout the year, and gain on an average 400 reis, or about 1 s. sterling per day, but out of this they have to support themselves. Piece-work is not general.

To the six following questions I can only give a general answer. There are (as before remarked) few free labourers here, and these few regulate their expenses by their earnings, so that it is impossible to say what is their average expenditure. The necessities of life in this fine climate are few, and easily obtained; and the lower class of people are generally very indolent, working only as much as is necessary to enable them to obtain those few necessities.

White women and children never work.

In the country black women and children are employed in agriculture, and in town in washing and other domestic avocations.

An industrious family might find full employment either in town or country, and from their earnings might save greatly; but I can find no data on which to ascertain what might be the average specific amount of their earnings, spendings or savings.

10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation? 11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations? 12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale? 13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—In town the owners of such houses are generally shopkeepers, and others of that class. To these houses little or no land is attached. In the country the peasantry generally build their own houses on some planter's property, and as land is of small value there, they are but little restricted as to the quantity they may annex to their habitations. The rent of a small house in town, suitable for a mechanic, is 40 milreis, or 5 l. 13 s. 4 d. per annum. Their sale price may be about 350 milreis, or 50 l. sterling. These houses are generally built of wood, and are not durable.

14 & 15. The proportion of deaths and births to the whole population?—Deaths, $\frac{1}{25}$, or four per cent. Births, $\frac{1}{20}$, or 5 per cent. I can find no data on which to form anything like correct answers to these questions, there being no general register kept in this city of the deaths, births, and marriages in the province; I have, however, got the best information I could on the subject, and on it form the answers given.

16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?—No means of ascertaining the proportion, but it is small, compared with other countries.

17. The average number of children to a marriage?—Five.

18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?—No means of ascertaining; but the proportion of illegitimate to legitimate births is very great here, compared with most places in Europe.

19, 20, 21. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year, 10th year and 18th year?—For the entire province I can give no answer to these questions; but I give annexed an extract from a table published of the deaths in this city last year (1833), and it may be considered as the average of the whole province for several years back.

A G E S.	Males.	Females.	TOTAL.
Below 5 years - - -	169	167	336
From 5 to 10 years - - -	21	15	36
- 11 to 20 - - -	54	59	113
- 21 to 30 - - -	91	61	152
- 31 to 40 - - -	84	43	127
- 41 to 50 - - -	69	35	104
- 51 to 60 - - -	38	23	61
- 61 to 70 - - -	17	11	28
- 71 to 80 - - -	9	8	17
- 81 to 90 - - -	4	4	8
- 91 to 100 - - -	5	4	9
TOTAL - - -	561	430	991

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 Communications.
 —
 MARANHAM.
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22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—This I cannot ascertain; but I know that the females generally marry very young, and the males seldom until they have passed their 30th year.

23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—The principal cause of delay is the facility with which illicit intercourse is carried on between the sexes; to which intercourse, from the moral depravity of the people, little odium attaches.

24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried; 2d, the married, save?—Amongst the lower classes very little is saved.

25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—The few that save generally invest their savings in slaves, small cottages, and gold trinkets.

GENERAL REMARKS.

The only charitable institutions in this province are the "Mizericordia," and the "Recolhimento," both established in this city. The "Mizericordia" consists of an hospital for the general reception of the sick poor; an hospital for the reception of those afflicted with leprosy; a foundling hospital for the reception of foundlings. Its revenue is about 20,000 milreis, or about 2,835 *l.* sterling, arising from subscriptions, donations, and interest on legacies. The general hospital usually contains from 30 to 40 invalids, belonging to different parts of the province, supported entirely at the expense of the institution; besides which, medical advice and medicine are given gratis, daily, to all poor persons who apply for it at the hospital. The qualifications for admittance are poverty, combined with some curable disease. The incurable are not admitted.

Into the Leprosy Hospital only lepers are admitted, and of these the number is considerable, chiefly Africans. To this branch of the hospital government contributes 2,000 milreis, or about 300 *l.* sterling, per annum. In the Foundling Hospital is a box for the reception of such children as parents wish to abandon, without discrimination of colour or rank.

The "Recolhimento" is an establishment for the education of indigent female orphans, but it seldom contains more than 12 to 15 of these, there being considerable difficulty in gaining admittance into it. The government contributes 1,000 milreis, or about 150 *l.* sterling, a year towards its support, and about an equal sum is raised by contributions. As remarked under its proper head, mendicity exists but to a very limited extent in this country, and alms are seldom asked except on a Saturday. On this day almost every shopkeeper and housekeeper appropriates a certain sum for distribution amongst the blind, cripples and aged, that come regularly round to receive it. Thus the impotent and indigent are saved from great privations, and the evil effects of compulsory contributions are avoided. Persons capable of labouring never ask alms in this country, neither would they be relieved if they did. I have not been able to ascertain what is the average expense of supporting the sick in the hospital of the "Mizericordia," but I find that any person (not a pauper) who sends his slave or other dependant there pays at present 800 reis, or about 2 *s.* 4 *d.* per diem for his food, medical advice, and medicine; I would therefore conclude that this must be considered the average daily expense of each patient. For the support of the uncondemned prisoners in the gaol government allows 100 reis, or about 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.* sterling per diem; and for those condemned to the galleys, 80 reis, or nearly 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.* per diem. On these respective allowances the prisoners have to support themselves; and, by several of them messing together, they can on these allowances get a sufficiency of wholesome food, say rice and farinha, with occasionally a little fish or jerk beef.

Maranhã, 14th August 1834.

John Moon,
 His Britannic Majesty's Consul.

N O R W A Y.

VAGRANTS.

1. To what extent and under what form does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?—Vagrants are not tolerated in the country districts, comprising about nine-tenths of the population of the kingdom; and in the country, as well as in towns, every one is bound, when called upon, to show, by passport or certificate, whence he comes and whither he is bound. Mendicancy is by law prohibited, but is nevertheless existing to some extent, especially in the larger towns, where persons of the lowest class are frequently seen hanging about the doors of the better houses, and, under pretence of offering some trifling articles for sale, seeking to interest the compassion of the inhabitants or passers by.

2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country, seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded and under what regulations?—Vagrancy being, as already noticed, prohibited in the country, all persons who upon inquiry cannot make good that they can maintain themselves all the year round, either out of their property or their lawful calling, are obliged to take year's service. By law, servants should never be hired for a shorter period than a twelvemonth. Employing labourers by the day, though often done in and about towns, is consequently illegal.

DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are they, or any part of their families, billeted or quartered on householders?—

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—

No relief is given to destitute able-bodied for their own persons; but if they have a helpless family to maintain, and cannot by their utmost industry procure for them the necessaries of life, they are assisted from the poor-rates. Whoever can, and will not work, is conveyed to the nearest workhouse, and there put to forced labour; and in that case also, such of the family as cannot support themselves, are allowed parochial relief, and billeted or quartered on land and householders in the parish.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there district houses of industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families, and supplying them with food, clothes, &c., and in which they are set to work?—From what has been stated, it will have appeared that district houses of industry in the country are not absolutely necessary, nor are there indeed any such. In most market-towns there are poor-houses, and in the diocesan towns they have work-houses, which are found to answer their purpose well, and new ones are establishing. The assistance given to the poor in towns, in as far as the applicants are not admitted into the poor-houses, or sent to the work-house, is given in money.

4. To what extent and under what regulations do any religious institutions give assistance to the destitute, by receiving them as inmates, or by giving them alms?—There are no religious institutions in Norway, giving assistance to the poor.

5. To what extent, and under what regulations, is work provided at their own dwellings for those who have trades, but do not procure work for themselves?—The poor are seldom or never provided with work at their own houses; indeed, persons who can work at a trade, become rarely burthensome to the public; and if they do, they are assisted preferably with money.

6. To what extent, and under what regulations, is work provided for such persons in agriculture or on public works?—No work is provided for them in agriculture, or on public works.

7. To what extent and under what regulations are fuel, clothing or money distributed to such persons or their families; at all times of the year, or during any particular seasons?—The needful assistance is generally given in money. During severe cold or in very sickly seasons, food and clothing is sometimes distributed; this was particularly the case in this town during the prevalence of the cholera morbus last year.

8. To what extent and under what regulations are they relieved by their children being taken into schools, and fed, clothed and educated or apprenticed?—Their children have free access to the parish schools as day scholars; but they are rarely, for the sake of education, taken from their parents.

9. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are the relatives of the destitute compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking charge of part of their families?—From some old ordinances it would seem, that relatives are under some obligation to provide for the destitute of their family; but there is no positive law on this subject. In towns, such assistance is in most cases given gratuitously; and in the country, regard is had to relationship in the billeting or quartering of paupers on the house or landholders.

10. To what extent and under what regulations are they assisted by Loans?—They are not assisted by loans.

Appendix (F.)

IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

Foreign
Communications.
—
NORWAY.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there alms-houses or other institutions for the reception of those who, through age, are incapable of earning their subsistence?—

2. To what extent and under what regulations is relief in food, fuel, clothing or money afforded them at their homes?—

3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—

4. To what extent and under what regulations are they quartered or billeted on the householders?—

5. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking part of their families?—

Impotent through age, cripples and others who cannot subsist themselves, are in the country districts billeted or quartered on such of the inhabitants (house and landholders in the parish) as have the means of providing for them. By them they are furnished with clothing and food, and they are in return expected to perform such light services as they can. In the distribution, respect is had to the extent or value of the different farms, and to the number of the indigent, which varies greatly in different parishes. In some they have so few poor, that one pauper only falls to the lot of five or six farms, who then take him in rotation; whilst in other parishes they have a pauper quartered on every farm or estate all the year round, and on the larger ones several. In some instances, such objects are furnished with food and clothing in their own cottages, even in the country; and in towns, this mode of providing for them is generally preferred, except as respects impotent old females, who, on a vacancy offering, are admitted into poor-houses, or such, either males or females, who being still able to do some sort of work, are placed in the work-houses.

SICK.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there district institutions for the reception of the sick?—

2. To what extent and under what regulations are surgical and medical relief afforded to the poor at their own homes?—

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick?—

4. To what extent and under what regulations is assistance given to lying-in women at their homes, or in public establishments?—

5. To what extent and under what regulations are there any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick?—

In most bailiwicks (Arntor) they have district-houses for the reception of the sick; and in the capital of every diocese they have a general hospital. The district-houses in the country are principally intended for the reception of indigent persons affected with chronical or disgusting diseases, such as erysipelas, scabeis, syphilis, herpetes, lepra, squamosa, &c. Every bailiwick has its medical officer, appointed and paid by government, who is bound to give his gratuitous assistance and advice to the poor; and the cost of the necessary medicines is defrayed out of the poor-rates. Duly qualified and examined midwives are also stationed in every bailiwick, who attend poor lying-in women at their own houses, without fee or reward; and to the General Hospital, as well as the Lying-in Hospital in this city, the poor have free access.

CHILDREN :

Illegitimate.

1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall; wholly upon the mothers, or wholly upon the fathers; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations?—

2. To what extent and under what regulations are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards?—

3. To what extent and under what regulations are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?—

Both the parents of illegitimate children are bound in equal proportion to provide for the support of their offspring. The children remain with the mother, and the father cannot, under plea of wishing to have them under his care, avoid contributing his share towards their maintenance. If nothing can be got of him, he may be put to hard labour to indemnify the public for their temporary advance. Soldiers are deducted part of their pay, if they have no other means to provide for their bastards. The commander of the corps fixes the quantum, and as respects non-military, the magistrate of the district. The liability ceases on the child's attaining its fifteenth year. On the mother's side illegitimate children have in general full family rights, but the relatives, with the exception of the parents, are under no obligation to maintain them. On the public they have the same claim as other indigent children.

Orphans.

Orphans, Foundlings, or Deserted Children.

4. To what extent and under what regulations are they taken into establishments for their reception?—

5. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?—

6. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—

7. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—

ORPHANS.

In Christiania they have an orphan-house; but most orphans are in towns quartered on and apprenticed to tradespeople, who are expected to teach them their business, and receive from the parish some compensation for their board and lodging. In the country they are in like manner billeted on the peasants.

Foundlings.

Foundlings and deserted children are not met with in Norway, or so rarely, that no separate provision has been made for them.

DESERTED CHILDREN
whose Parents are known.Foreign
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CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception?—

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?—

3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—

4. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—

CRIPPLES.

There are no establishments for their reception; no distinct regulations, but they are dealt with as other impotent paupers.

DEAF and DUMB.

At Drontheim they have an establishment for the reception of deaf and dumb; such as cannot gain admittance there, are treated as other paupers.

BLIND.

There are no establishments for their reception, no distinct regulation for their maintenance, but they are provided for as other helpless poor.

IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception?—

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders?—

3. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—

4. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—

LUNATICS.

There are several establishments for lunatics; one at Christiania, one at Arendal, one at Christiansand, one at Stavanger, one at Bergen, and one at Drontheim; they are all on a small scale, and are more depôts for the temporary or constant confinement of lunatics than establishments for their recovery, with the exception of the Asylum at Bergen, founded a few years since.

IDIOTS.

Idiots are billeted and quartered on house and landholders, and provided for as other paupers.

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

1st. On the industry of the labourers?

2d. On their frugality?

3d. On the age at which they marry?

4th. On the mutual dependence and affection of parent, children and other relatives?

5th. What, on the whole, is the condition of the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, as compared with the condition of the person subsisting on alms or public charity. Is the condition of the latter, as to food and freedom from labour, more or less eligible? [See p. 261 and 335 of the Poor Law "Extracts."]

Although it is generally admitted that the expectation of parochial relief has a more or less hurtful influence on the working classes, in paralysing in some measure their exertions to provide by industry and frugality for their sustenance, little of this evil is as yet perceived in Norway. It is still considered disgraceful to have recourse to assistance from the poor-rates, and most that become burthensome in this respect are brought to it by particular circumstances. Age, sickness, an overburthensome family, drunkenness or other vicious habits are generally the more immediate causes. On the age at which they marry it has no perceptible influence in the country, owing to the regulation there in force, in virtue of which no one can marry, without showing to the satisfaction of the clergyman, that he is permanently settled in such a manner, as to offer a fair prospect that he can maintain a family

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a family all the year round; nor does it seem to weaken the mutual affection and dependence between parents, children and relatives. To destitute able-bodied the provision holds out no prospect of exemption from labour as regards the country districts. In towns this may now and then happen, owing to supineness of the managers or overseers of the houses of industry, and want of suitable labour to keep the inmates fully employed. But the utility of these institutions having been generally felt, and public attention having of late years been greatly directed towards them, they are getting better managed. Compared with the self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, the condition of the pauper is by no means eligible. Not the disgrace only attending his situation, but the coercion also in which he is placed, especially in towns, deters the able-bodied of the lower classes, except in extreme necessity, to apply for parochial relief.

LABOURERS, &c.

1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month or the year, with and without provisions in summer and in winter?—

2. Is piece-work general?—

3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—

The wages paid to able-bodied male labourers in this town and neighbourhood is 30 skilling = $10\frac{1}{2}d.$ a day during the summer, and 24 skl. = $8\frac{1}{2}d.$ a day during the winter months. In Norway, the towns, as compared to the whole kingdom, are few in number, and of no great magnitude, about 9-10ths of the population residing in the country, and following agricultural pursuits. With the exception of the civil and military officers, whose calling obliges them to reside in the country, and a very few families of distinction, these 9-10ths of the population are peasants, and their dependents. The last returns published here state the number of landowners at 139,091; of these, 59,464 were freeholders, 30,921 copy and leaseholders, and 48,706 cottagers. The farms or estates, independent of the wastes and forests, being generally of no great extent, the owner shares for the most part the labours of the day in common with his domestic servants, which are always hired for a year certain, and with his cottagers (hunsmand), the former dining at his table, and receiving the necessary clothing, and a gratification of

a few dollars at the close of the year. The cottagers are charged a small rent for the land they occupy, and on the produce of which they and their children subsist. This rent is not paid in money, but in a certain number of working-days for the landlord under whom they hold, the number of days being proportioned to the extent and value of the land. The few day-labourers met with in the country are found in victuals, and besides paid in money from to 12 or 16 skilling a day = $3d.$, $4d.$ and $5\frac{1}{2}d.$ An average day-labourer, obtaining an average employment all the year round, may in this neighbourhood earn about 65 dollars a year, equal to about $11l. 10s. 9d.$ Tradespeople are generally paid by the piece; if not, they are allowed by their masters $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 dollars a week, equal to about $5s. 4d.$ and $7s. 2d.$, with food and lodging, and are found with the needful tools.

4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?—Generally speaking, the yearly expenditure consumes the whole of the above earnings, but now and then an industrious labourer, serving a liberal master, makes shift to save enough to purchase and furnish a small house. In the country, as already observed, the labourers consist of domestic servants and cottagers. The latter subsist on the produce of the land they cultivate, contrive to purchase a cow or two, sometimes a horse and some sheep, and improve their little farms. For schooling of children, and religious teachers, labourers pay nothing, or very nearly so.

5. Is there any, and what employment for women and children?—In the country women assist in hay-making, in laying and in taking up potatoes, and in general harvest work. In towns they earn something by carding, spinning and sewing, and by washing, and occasionally assisting in families. In laying and taking up potatoes children are also employed.

6. What can women and children, under 16, earn per week, in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed?—In summer, and during harvest, and occasionally in winter, a woman can earn 20 skilling, or one dollar, equal to $3s. 6d.$ the week; and a child aged 14 and above, during part of the time eight skilling a day or 48, equal to about $17d.$ the week.

7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8 and 5 years, respectively, (the eldest a boy), expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?—The wife, it may be assumed, earns about 20 skilling a day during half of the year, is 25 dollars, equal to about $4l. 8s. 9d.$; and of the children aged 14, 11, 8 and 5, the two younger ones can earn nothing, but the two older ones about five dollars each the year, or both of them 10 dollars = $1l. 15s. 6d.$, making the yearly income of the wife and children equal to about $6l. 4s. 3d.$

8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children, and if so, on what food?—Except in case of illness, or other mishap, such a family can subsist on their aggregate earnings; viz.—

The father's	-	dollars	-	65
The wife's		"	-	25
Two of the children's		"	-	10

Dollars 100 = £.17. 15.

The

The labourers live on very simple food, salt herrings, oatmeal porridge, potatoes, coarse oatmeal bread, may be once a week a piece of bacon or salt beef; and along the coast and the rivers and lakes on fresh fish. Corn-brandy is in general use.

9. Could it lay by any thing, and how much?—With order, and in the service of a liberal master, they may, and frequently do, lay up a little.

10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?—It is impossible to name an average quantity. In the country the cottagers (hunsmaend) have in general what will furnish them and their family with the means of subsistence; they keep one or more cows; some of them a horse, a few sheep and goats, and cut the necessary wood for repairing their habitations, for fencing and for fuel in the forests of the landlord under whom they hold, without any charge to them.

11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations?—In towns their habitations are generally owned by the labourers themselves; in the country they are more frequently the property of the landlord on whose ground they are situate; but if the occupant has children, one of them is generally put in possession on the death of the father.

12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale?—In the country the rent, as already observed, is paid by work done by the labourer during a number of days for his landlord, the number of days being proportioned to the quantity and value of the land attached to his habitation. The price on sale of labourers' habitations in towns varies from 1 to 200 dollars, and the rent is in proportion.

13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?—This has been answered above.

14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?—As 1 to 54.

15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?—As 1 to 28.

16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?—As 1 to 119.

17. The average number of children to a marriage?—Of married pair there were according to the last returns I have seen 181,260; but I have no means for ascertaining the average number of children to each marriage.

18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?—As 14 to 1.

19. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year?—	} The population of Norway in 1825, since which there has been no census, was 1,051,318, whereof died the year following 19,609; and of these	
20. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 10th year?—		
21. Proportion of children that die before the end of their 18th year?—		
	Under 5 years of age	6,817
	Between 5 and 10	- 602
	Between 10 and 20	- 761

22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—As respects the country districts it is impossible to name the average age of marriage; for, while on the one hand, as already observed, no one is allowed to marry, unless he can make it appear that he can maintain a family all the year round, by agriculture, handicraft labour, or by fishing, which tends to retard marriage, such, on the other hand, who possess competent means, either in landed property or otherwise, marry early, 20 for males, and 16 for females, being the minimum of age at which marriage can be legally contracted. In towns the average age of marriage is for males 30, and for females 25.

23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—The causes by which marriage is delayed are, in the country, the just-mentioned control; and in towns want of means of supporting a family, or the holding an advantageous situation, which would have to be given up on the party marrying.

24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried, 2d, the married, save?—Among labouring people there is little difference observed in this respect between the married and the unmarried.

25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—The little which, under favourable circumstances, labourers are able to save, is spent, as already observed, in building or purchasing and furnishing an habitation; or it is invested in a saving bank, of which they have one in most towns. At this place such a bank was established in 1822. The bank allows to the contributors 4 per cent. per annum on the sum deposited; the interest, if not taken out, being at the end of the year added to the principal. They lend out on security at 5 per cent., and discount good bills at 6%. It numbers at present about 2,800 accounts. Its capital stock, which has hitherto been gradually increasing, was on 1 January 1833 doll. 215,571, 1 January 1834, doll. 269,400, and on 1 March last 284,421, and its net earnings, being the surplus gained by loans on security and by discounting, were on 1 January 1833, dollars 14,251, on 1 January 1834 dollars 17,237, and on the 1 March last dollars 18,118.

DIETARY of the HOUSE OF INDUSTRY at *Christiania*, called "Christian August's Minde," for such of its Inmates as are allowed Victuals at the rate of 10 skilling, equal to 3 ½ d. a day.

Breakfast.

16 lod, equal to about 8 oz. rye bread, and a pint of small beer.

Dinner.

Sunday:—1 quart pea-soup, with 2 ½ oz. salt meat free of bones, and 4 oz. rye bread.

Monday:—1 quart boiled barley grits, and a pint milk or beer.

Tuesday:—1 quart barley grits soup, being barley grits boiled in water with salt meat; 2 ½ oz. salt meat, and 4 oz. rye bread.

P. L. (F.)

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Wednesday

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Wednesday:—1 quart menage soup, being grits boiled in water, and made savory with vinegar and sugar.

Thursday:—1 quart white cabbages, or pea-soup, 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. salt meat, and 4 oz. rye bread.

Friday:—1 quart milk-porridge, and for the rest the same as Wednesday.

Saturday:—1 quart of porridge, called “ollebröd,” made of boiled beer, milk and water, flour and a little sugar; 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. salt herrings, and 8 oz. rye bread.

Supper.

4 oz. rye bread, or in lieu thereof a pint of beer. Such as wish to exchange part of their bread for tobacco, are allowed so to do.

The above is the diet of labourers set to work within doors, in carding, spinning, weaving, &c.; such as are put to hard labour out of doors, and require more food, or can earn more, are allowed similar victuals, but in greater quantity, being rated, as the case may be, at 12 sk. 4 $\frac{1}{4}$ d., 14 sk. 5 d., 16 sk. 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ d., or 18 sk. 6 $\frac{1}{4}$ d.

In this and the following dietaries, wherever a quart is mentioned, is meant a Norwegian pot, which, for brevity's sake, is assumed to be equal to an English quart; but this is not quite correct; for a Norwegian pot contains only 58.8971 English cubic inches, whereas an English quart holds 70.5 English inches, and the quantity allowed to the prisoners is consequently somewhat less than is stated above.

DIETARY of the PRISONERS in CHRISTIANIA WORKHOUSE, or HOUSE OF CORRECTION.

Sunday:—1 quart (2 pints) pea-soup, and 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. bacon, free of bones.

Monday:—1 $\frac{1}{2}$ pint boiled barley meal, and 1 quart milk, and 1 quart potatoes.

Tuesday:—1 quart barley-grits soup, and 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. salt meat.

Wednesday:—1 quart beer porridge; 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. salt herrings.

Thursday:—as on Sunday.

Friday:—1 quart barley grits boiled in water, and 1 quart milk.

Saturday:—the same as on Wednesday.

They allow besides to every prisoner daily 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. of rye bread, and five days in the week 1 quart of beer.

The convicts in the Castle of Christiania, of which they have at present 257, being felons condemned to hard labour in irons during their life-time, or thieves and lesser criminals, condemned to like labour, also in irons for a shorter period, are allowed daily in money 2 skilling, about $\frac{3}{4}$ sterl., and 2 lb. soft rye bread (2 lb. rye bread); and besides, while employed in labour for Government, 4 skilling, about three-halfpence; and in as far as they can be spared from public labour, and work for individuals, 8 skilling, being about 2 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. sterling.

DIETARY of the CHRISTIANIA PRISON.

(Arrest-Huus.)

The allowance for each Prisoner being at the rate of 12 skilling = 4 $\frac{1}{4}$ d. sterling a day.

Breakfast.

Bread for 3 skilling, about 1 d.; beer for 2 skilling, being nearly $\frac{3}{4}$ d.

Dinner.

Sunday:—1 quart pea-soup, and 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. bacon, free of bones.

Monday:—1 quart boiled barley grits and a pint of milk, or, in lieu of the milk, a pint beer and $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. moist sugar.

Tuesday:—1 quart broth or bouillon, and 2 oz. meat, free of bones.

Wednesday:—1 pot, so called, “sweet soup,” or “menage soup,” or, in lieu thereof, grits boiled in milk and water; and 4 oz. salt herrings, and a pint of potatoes.

Thursday:—as Sunday.

Friday:—1 quart grout, being flour boiled thick with water, and a pint of milk, or, in lieu of the milk, a pint of beer and half oz. of moist sugar.

Saturday:—“ollebröd,” being a porridge composed of beer, milk, water and flour, and a little sugar, and 4 oz. salt herrings.

Supper.

Bread and butter for 3 skilling, about one penny.

(Translated from the Norwegian.)

PROJECT of a LAW for the ADMINISTRATION of the POOR in the Country and Towns, drawn up by the Commission, instituted in virtue of the Supreme Decision of the 3d November 1829.

PROJECT of a LAW for the ADMINISTRATION of the POOR in the COUNTRY.

CHAPTER I.

Of what constitutes an Administrative District of the Poor.

§ 1. Ordinarily a parish constitutes a district of administration of the poor. When a parish includes both a town and rural district, or a district in the country forms part of the parish attached to the church of the town, without appertaining to the jurisdiction of the latter, the country parish constitutes a distinct district of administration of the poor.

Mines or other works, with the pits or fabrics and estates attached to them, which are either occupied by the proprietor personally, or are parcelled out among the officers and labourers employed, have likewise a separate administration of the poor for themselves distinct from the poor administration of the parish in which the works and their appurtenances are situated.

A *ladested* * is attached ordinarily to the parish in which it is situated, in as far as a single township in a parish or a *ladested*, or a single mine, or iron work, or fabric have constituted of themselves a distinct district of administration of the poor hitherto, they are to continue so until the districts concerned shall agree to unite for the administration of their poor.

In like manner the union which may now exist between single mines and that of any particular work, the poor administration of a district shall continue as long as those concerned do not come to an understanding for their disunion.

Whenever the State has formed, or may form a public establishment in a country district, the mode of proceeding relative thereto, as to the poor administration, shall assimilate to that of mines, in case the union with the country district is not formed by a mutual agreement as to the administration of the poor.

CHAPTER II.

As to the Directors of the Poor Administration.

§ 2. The administration of the poor in every district is to be superintended by a commission, consisting of the minister of the parish, the *lensmand* or *lansmand* † of the district, and as many chosen men as the *amtmand* ‡ may think necessary, in accordance with the representation of the minister of the parish, and proportionate to the extent of the poor administration. The number of these men to be fixed, so that every parish shall have at least one elected man in the commission.

§ 3. These men who are denominated overseers, are to be elected by those persons in the parish who are entitled, by the constitution, to vote at a meeting held by the *lensmand*. The election to be valid for four years; those going out may be re-elected, but they are not bound to accept the election until after the expiration of four years from their secession. No one who is 60 years old or above, is bound to abide by his election. The validity of hindrances and reasons urged, on account of which those elected refuse to abide by their election, or demand their dismissal before the expiration of the stated period, to be decided by the *amtmand*. The overseers are, as long as they continue in office, to be exempted from keeping watch for the properties on which they reside, and from attendance upon the courts.

The poor district to be divided into as many branch districts as there are overseers, and each overseer to have his district assigned to him by the poor commission.

§ 4. In *ladesteds*, which have their poor administration in common with the land district in which they are situated, one or several overseers (§ 3) for the *ladested*, to be nominated by those entitled to vote at an election held by the *foged*, § according to the number fixed by the *amtmand*, which as such, are members of the collective poor commission.

§ 5. As to mines. With the exception of *Róraas*, where the direction of the poor administration remains the same as hitherto, the poor administration to be superintended by the minister, who likewise is president; the proprietor of the mine or the person accredited by him as his representative, the *lensmand* and one of the officers of the mine named by the proprietor. In the other mines or iron works which have distinct administrations of the poor, the management to remain as hitherto.

§ 6. The overseer to have under him the superintendants of the “*Lægd*,” || or quartering of

* *Ladested* is a small town not possessing a separate municipal administration.

† A subordinate officer chosen from among the peasantry, who combines the duties of a tax collector, high constable, &c.

‡ *Amtmand*, the chief executive functionary in each *amt* or province. His powers and duties much resemble those of a French prefect.

§ *Foged*, an officer in the country, whose duties are chiefly those of collector of taxes.

|| A *Lægd* is a certain portion of property bound to furnish a pauper for a certain time with lodging, food and clothing, the owner enjoying the benefit of his labour. Such a pauper is called a *Lægdslem*, a *Lægdslimb* is said to be a *Lægd*, and a *Lægdyder* is the owner or occupier of a property subject to *Lægd*.

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of the poor; the number of which superintendants is to be fixed by the poor commission in proportion to the number of "Lægds" or quarters a person can inspect conveniently. Such a number of lægds to compose a lægd's district. The first time, a farmer in each lægd's district is to be nominated by the poor commission, or superintendants of the lægd, who is to retain such appointment for the period of a year, after which the office is to be assumed annually in rotation by the farmers in the order in which the registered number of their farms or premises follow each other upwards. The age of 60 years exempts from this office. It must not be assigned either to an overseer, or other member of the poor commission.

§ 7. The incumbent of the parish, and in case of a vacancy or hindrance, the officiating minister, to be president of the poor commission and treasurer of the administration of the poor. If the benefice comprises several districts of administration of the poor, he is president and treasurer of each single commission. As respects mines, either the proprietor or the person he may nominate thereto, is treasurer and secretary.

CHAPTER III.

As to the Place of Settlement of the Poor.

§ 8. Every one who may require relief, shall receive it of the poor administration in the district where he resides, provided he has resided there regularly during the last five years. If this is not the case, the district in which he last resided during five successive years, is the one in which he is to acquire a settlement, and in case he has not resided so long constantly in any one place, then his native place.

By constant residence is to be understood, that he has had his home in the district during the whole of the stipulated period. However, the place of settlement of the wife in wedlock is regulated by that of the husband; children in wedlock, under the age of 18, by the father's; and in case of his death by the mother's; and illegitimate children, under the same age, by the mother's—always as long as the husband, father or mother live; but after their death, by the constant personal residence of the widow or child approximating nearest to five years. In the absence of so long a residence in any one place, the individual's proper place of settlement is his or her place of nativity. Instead of the place of nativity, when the birth only occurred there by chance, while the mother, at the same time, had her constant residence in another district, this, or if she has no stated place of abode, then the place of her nativity becomes the place of settlement and relief.

In those cases in which the proper places of settlement cannot be discovered, the individual is to be provided for in the district in which he has resided longest during the last five years. In as far as any one, in reference to the laws hitherto in force, has acquired the right to be relieved in a given place, by means of a shorter residence there than five years, this continues to be his place of settlement, until he has resided constantly for five years in another district.

§ 9. The time during which a person is confined in a place of punishment, is not taken into the account or considered, when the question is as to the place of settlement or relief, excepting when the individual is the father of a family—a wife in wedlock—or a widow with a family; in which cases, the individual is considered to have resided there, where the family have resided during the term of the punishment.

§ 10. Persons enlisted in the military service, their wives and children are provided for, in case of relief being required, from the military chest, and consequently do not acquire a settlement during the period of their continuing in the service. As a result hereof, the military authorities have a right to refuse permission to men who have enlisted to enter the married state. When these are dismissed from the service, and they or their family are in want of relief, the proper district to afford the relief to be that on which it would have devolved, supposing the enlistment and period of service of the individual or father of the family to be wholly disregarded, as if they had never occurred.

§ 11. A foreigner who becomes distressed without having resided during five years at any one place in the kingdom, has the needful relief given him until he is removed out of the district where he was resident at the time his necessity occurred; the expenses of his conveyance out of the kingdom, or to his home, to be borne by the national treasury; the competent department of the government to decide how far the reimbursement of the expenses for conveyance and relief afforded can be advisedly demanded from the place to which he belongs; and in case this shall be proper, to take the needful measures on the occasion.

§ 12. In case the necessity of relief to a single person or family arises at a place which is not that of his settlement, a reimbursement for the assistance afforded at the first named place can be demanded at the latter, in case the poor commission in the same has been informed, without delay, as to the relief advanced. Nevertheless, the assistance which is rendered essential, in consequence of a misfortune which has occurred casually, such as sickness, without the individual or family requiring relief, when the said simple cause of necessity is removed, shall neither form the object of reimbursement by another district, nor shall it empower the poor commission of that place to enjoin the individual or family to depart to their place of settlement.

§ 13. No person who does not apply for relief, shall be sent away from the poor district in which he is resident, for the assumed reason that, in process of time, he may possibly become a burden to the district. Nor may relief be rendered to or forced upon any one, but must first be asked for by the necessitous, before the latter can be regarded as a pauper; however, a person is to be regarded as such, either if he has been guilty of begging personally, or by his wife or children, either with his knowledge, or even without his being privy to it; if in

the latter case, the sole reason has been that the father of the family obviously had not been able to, or would not, provide them with the needful.

§ 14. The single person or family which remove from his or their home to another parish shall bring a circumstantial certificate of their removal from the minister of the place where he or they may have resided, containing the particulars of his or their baptism, confirmation, marriage, last receipt of the sacrament, their previous deportment, and the avowed object of their removal.

This certificate is to be delivered by the new comer, under the pain of incurring a penalty of one specie dollar per week in default thereof, at latest on the first performance of divine service in the parish church, where he or they take up a fresh residence, to the minister of the parish there; after which it is to be received in charge by the same, as forming a supplement to the ministerial register, and retained as long as the residence in the place lasts; the time of residence in the place to be computed from the day of delivery, or the last day of the time in which it should have been so delivered. In case of further removal from the district, the certificate to be delivered to the person or head of the family, provided with the needful endorsement as to deportment, taking the sacrament, increase of the family there, &c. On removal from the parish to another place in the benefice, the single parishes of which have distinct administrations of the poor, or from one poor district to another, in a benefice in which there are separate administrations for ironworks and the mines, the new comer, under penalty of incurring the above fine in default thereof is to announce his removal to the minister of the parish, who signs the alteration in the ministerial register.

§ 15. In case it can be inferred with certainty from the certificate of removal brought by the party, or by means of other vouchers, where the person's or family's proper place of settlement is, the direction of the poor in the place where the individual or family became chargeable is entitled to remove by the lensmand the person or persons craving relief, if sickness does not prevent it, to his or their proper place of settlement, at the expense of the same. On the other hand, if no such certainty exists to serve as a guide, the pauper must not, upon mere conjecture as to the correct place of settlement, be sent to another poor district, but his or their removal must be delayed, until the needful certainty, either by correspondence or other means, or by the admission of the fact from the proper place of settlement, has been obtained.

§ 16. Disputes respecting the proper place of settlement and reimbursement between the administrations of the poor in different districts in the same amt, to be decided by the amtmand; but those between the districts in different amts, by the competent government department.

§ 17. In case a constant labourer in a mine or fabric having a distinct administration of the poor, is discharged, after having served three years, but less than five years, and in the course of the two following years he becomes chargeable, the half of his cost for the succeeding five years shall be made good by the mine or fabric to the poor district which grants relief.

CHAPTER IV.

Of the Poor Commission.

§ 18. The poor commission is ordinarily held only once a year, at the period which each commission finds most convenient for regulating the relief to the poor during the succeeding year. The time fixed for holding the general poor commission must not be altered, after it has been once fixed, unless two-thirds of the members of the commission find it necessary to do so. It is left to the majority of the commission to decide the extent of the poor administration, or, if other circumstances render it necessary, that several meetings should be held every year, which will also determine at what time they are to be held, and what matters, besides those of annual recurrence, shall be despatched at those meetings.

§ 19. The president to fix the day on which the yearly meeting is to be held, and to cause the same to be notified, at least 14 days previous thereto, in the several churches of the benefice, at the conclusion of divine service, for the information both of the other members and of every other person who may have any proposition to make to the commission.

§ 20. Every one who is specially desired by any member of the poor commission to attend the sitting of the latter, is bound to obey, provided the reason for which he has been summoned to attend, is previously reported, under penalty of being fined from half to three specie dollars in default thereof. The member of the commission who is absent at a meeting, without the notification of a legal hindrance (the validity of which is to be adjudged by the commission) to be fined three specie dollars.

§ 21. At every meeting the minutes of the proceedings, in such form as the amtmand may decide, are to be kept by the president; he shall be provided in like manner with a copy book and account book, equally approved, and a register, containing a specification of the several paupers, their admission to relief and dismissal. These documents, as well as the materials for writing, &c. are to be at the expense of the poor fund.

§ 22. In the yearly meeting, the needful measures for providing relief during the following year, which year is to be computed from the first day of the ensuing month, are to be settled; for which purpose, all those who are desirous of admission in future to, or participation in, the provision for the poor, either for their own person or family, will have to attend such meeting, in order to account for their need, the causes of it, &c.

§ 23. In the yearly meeting, the first proceeding is, to discuss the observations which any member may have to make with reference to the provision for the current year, in consequence of the measures adopted in the last yearly meeting. The president will then proceed

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with a detail of the occasional assistance which he has been obliged to give at different times in the course of the year; the other casual charges which the poor fund may have had to meet; the casual receipts which have accrued to the same, and the amount of the existing cash balance. A summary of this detail, in as far as regards the relief granted from time to time from the poor fund, and other its casual charges and the cash balance, is to be inserted in the minutes, with the remarks which any member of the commission may have to make relative thereto. After the members of the commission have stated and made a calculation of the decrease found to exist among those relieved, and deliberated as to whether any alteration should take place in the amount of assistance fixed at the last yearly meeting, it is to proceed, after investigation of the fresh cases of relief solicited, to determine which among the poor are to be selected to receive relief in future, and as to the mode and extent of the relief to be afforded them; after which, the needful re-regulating of the "lægd," or out-quarterings of the poor (§ 26.) assessments (§§ 44 and 45) shall be considered, whether any part of the existing cash balance shall be invested, and all such other matters as may still remain to be disposed of. As a guide to the regulation and assessments before alluded to, an exact list of the farmers who, according to § 44, are rateable, should be produced at every yearly meeting by the lensmand or officer.

§ 24. All measures to be determined at the meetings by a majority of votes; in case the votes are equal, the president to have the casting vote. Every member is entitled to enter a written vote on the minutes. When the proceedings are concluded, the minutes are signed by all the members, and remain in the custody of the president.

§ 25. The superior superintendence of the direction of the poor to be vested in the amtmand, to which end he is authorized to examine the minutes of the commissions; to demand the explanations he may find requisite, in order to carry on the chief superintendence, both as respects the benefit of the district, the efficiency of the relief afforded, and the regular course of the administration; also to give the commission instructions and admonitions, to which attention must be paid, unless they are relinquished upon due representations, or superseded by higher authority. In like manner, at their visitation, the bishop and dean are to cause the minutes of the administrations of the poor to be laid before them, and to demand explanations, in order to ascertain whether spiritual assistance is afforded to the poor, and they are bound, in default thereof, to give information to the amtmand, and to make the needful report in the return made of their visitation. The chief superintendence of the administration of the poor heretofore exercised on the part of the stift amtmand* is to cease.

CHAPTER V.

On the Modes of Relief.

§ 26. The main principle to be observed every where in affording relief is to maintain "lægd," or the out-quartering of the paupers, wherever they have existed or can be introduced, taking care to avoid the separation of families. The regulation of "lægd," when it has been once established amongst the farms, should be as durable and as little liable to alteration as possible; so that a fresh arrangement should be made only in instances where there exists a considerable decrease or increase in the number of the paupers quartered out, or a marked alteration in the condition of the occupiers upon whom they are so quartered. In the event of a fresh arrangement, it is desirable that the existing paupers hitherto provided for should, in as far as may be consistent with justice towards the parties upon whom they are quartered, continue to have "lægd" upon the same farm or farms where they have hitherto been relieved. Families not belonging to the class of peasants are bound to have paupers quartered upon them in "lægd," in case they cultivate land; however the overseer of the district is competent to grant permission to them, as well as to other "lægd's ydere," to let out the "lægd," when he finds that they individually are unable to provide for the pauper on their own lands, and the letting-out can be effected without considerable inconvenience to the latter. Necessitous, fatherless or deserted children are to be provided for by "lægd" in preference; in those cases which admit of it, after a reasonable distribution of the burden, this should be effected permanently with one and the same farmer, either without any indemnity, besides exemption from other "lægd," or against compensation by a contribution from the poor fund.

In other respects it is left to every poor commission to decide upon such mode or modes of providing for the poor as the same may think best suited to the wants of the poor and the interests of the "lægd's ydere," only that relief in kind is to be preferred to assistance in money, when the annual receipts of the funds applicable to the support of the poor independently of rates are not so considerable, that the poor could be supported by them, with the addition of the "lægd."

§ 27. When a new regulation of "lægd" takes place, or new "lægd" is established, a statement in writing of the "lægd," or out-quartering intended is to be issued by the commission, or by the overseer on its behalf, containing the name of the pauper to be out-quartered, and the farm or farms on which he shall receive "lægd," and in case it is on several, the rotation, and for what period, on each. In case the "lægd" is only to be during the winter, or during a certain part of the year, this likewise is to be stated. In like manner the houseless and others, who are provided with relief in kind from particular farms, are to be furnished with a
 note,

* A stift is a large province which includes several amts, and is presided over by an officer who is called a Stift Amtmand.

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note, setting forth the quantity the individual has to demand of each farm, and the time at which he is entitled to demand the same. In default of the furnishing of these contributions in proper time, they are to be enforced by execution, through the lensmand. The assistance in money which, according to the orders of the commission is to be received from the poor fund, is only to be inserted in the minute of the proceedings, for the government of the president, who issues it himself, or else through the overseers.

§ 28. The burials of those who receive constant relief, as also of those who, without having had such provision, have left nothing from which the expenses can be defrayed, are to fall on the poor fund in case no person can be obliged to pay them (§ 50.), or will undertake them voluntarily. The nearest neighbours, upon their being desired by the superintendent of the "lægd," as respects those quartered out, or by the overseer, as respects those who have not been quartered out, are bound, without compensation, to cause the corpse to be carried to the grave, and to bury the same; the expense of digging the grave to be defrayed by the poor fund where there is no sexton on whom it is incumbent to provide graves for the poor without any compensation.

§ 29. When the poor commission may deem it adviseable, particularly in years of scarcity, in order to employ the house poor,* or to avert destitution, to provide raw materials for manufacture, or to purchase and distribute or lend corn to those who, without such aid, might soon become a burthen to the poor administration, it is entitled, with the approbation of the amtmand, to call in for a single year one-fourth part of the outstanding capital of the poor funds, and to apply the same with the cash balance in hand that may not be required for the regular relief of the poor; for the above purpose, however, in capitals thus resorted to, the legacies, the appropriation of which in such a manner would be inconsistent with the intention of the testator, must not be included. On the other hand, the commission must not, with a similar view, or for the establishment of poor houses or infirmaries for the poor, for which the appropriation of not exceeding one moiety of the poor funds can be applied with the approbation of the amtmand, levy any rate upon the district, without the consent of the farmers or that of the foremen in the Thinglang,† for the time being if then existing.

§ 30. When any person or family require relief, and a decision on the case is necessary before the poor commission meets, the applicant has to address himself to the district overseer, who, after having investigated his or the family's circumstances, and the state they are in, and assured himself of the applicant's distress, sends him, (in as far as sickness may not prevent) to the president of the commission, with his opinion as to the amount and kind of relief which should be provisionally granted, either by contribution from the poor fund, or in a vacant "lægd," or with grain or other assistance in kind, of which last the commission, especially by the rating of the farms which have not been subjected to "lægd," ought to have some at its disposal in cases of casual want.

In case the president approves of the proposal of the overseer, assistance or relief is granted accordingly; but if the contrary is the case, he may reduce the proposed contribution and fix the mode of relief, but he must neither increase the former nor refuse the same altogether, unless the lensmand of the parish agrees in his opinion. The consent of the lensmand is likewise required in case the president wishes to grant provisional relief to a person or family whom the overseer has not considered to stand in need of assistance. The president may afford relief, once for all, from the poor funds, to the extent of half a specie dollar, without obtaining the assent of any one.

§ 31. In general the administration of the poor is not bound to provide for sick house-servants; as it is incumbent on the master to support those he employs till their period of service expires, after previous legal notice; nevertheless the poor commission, or if that is not assembled, the president may, upon representation from the overseer, grant the needful assistance to the farmer, whose means do not admit of the supporting of a servant without receiving some assistance.

CHAPTER VI.

Of the Superintendents of the Lægd and Overseers, including the Inspection over and Discipline of the Poor.

§ 32. The superintendents of the lægd, have each in his lægd's district, to take care that the paupers quartered out, conduct themselves in an orderly (§ 35) and becoming manner towards those by whom they are supported, and that they willingly do such work as they are able for the benefit of the lægd ydere; and on the other hand, that those on whom they are thus quartered, furnish them with the needful food, lodging and clothes, and proper assistance in case of sickness. In like manner they have to take care that the removals in the lægd take place at the regular time. When a pauper who is quartered out, dies, the superintendant of the lægd has to superintend the burial, and to desire as many of the "lægd's ydere" as may be necessary, to attend to the burial of the corpse. He receives and lays by the clothes or other trifling things for daily use, that the deceased has left, and hands them over to the pauper who may take the place of the deceased. In case the deceased has left other articles of any value, they are to be delivered by the superintendent of the lægd, at the place fixed by the president of the commission, for the benefit of the poor funds.

§ 33. In

* House Poor, in the original Hunsarme. The translator is not sure as to the technical meaning of this word; it is usually applied to the poor who are ashamed to beg, and probably means persons receiving occasional relief while residing in their own houses—casual poor.

Thinglang, a particular territorial division, subject to the jurisdiction of one court.

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§ 33. In case the "lægd ydere" or the paupers neglect their duty, the superintendent of the "lægd" is entitled to admonish the party concerned of the same, and if this reproof be disregarded, he is bound to report the same to the overseer to whom the lægd belongs.

§ 34. With respect to the house poor in the district, other poor that are not quartered out, and children who are provisioned out or quartered out, the special superintendence to rest with the overseer of the district, and consequently these are without the pale of the lægd superintendent's charge.

§ 35. In case the house poor and other poor who are not quartered out, conduct themselves improperly, are guilty of idleness, drunkenness, incivility, obstinacy, or quarrelsomeness, the overseer is entitled to give them a serious reprimand, and in case this is unattended with any effect, to propose in the poor commission the reduction of the allowance granted to the offender to the lowest scale possible. Should this prove equally devoid of effect, or the allowance not bear any reduction, he may, in conjunction with the president of the commission, report the case, at the same time stating the names of the witnesses to the sorenskriver,* who on the next general or monthly sitting of the court, after a brief inquiry, by an unappealable sentence, shall punish the guilty with imprisonment not exceeding 20 days, upon bread and water.

In case of a like report from the superintendent of the lægd, of such improper conduct on the part of the pauper quartered out as treated upon by § 33, the overseer shall give the said offending pauper a severe reprimand, and in case this likewise proves devoid of effect, the mode of proceeding to be the same as has been stated already in reference to the house poor.

§ 36. In case the person with whom a poor child has been quartered out, or any other party do not supply adequate relief, (§ 32.) or ill use the child or pauper so quartered upon them, and is regardless of the admonitions of the overseer, an appeal to the sorenskriver is to take place, and in other respects, the mode of proceeding is to be the same as is enacted in § 35; when all the conduct complained of, can be proved for which purpose, in default of other witnesses, the combined evidence of the superintendent of the lægd and of the overseer, is to be deemed sufficient, the offending party to be fined according to his circumstances and the nature of the case, from two to 20 specie dollars, and in case of ill usage, to be imprisoned on bread and water for from five to ten days; and in the event of a repetition of the offence, for from 10 to 20 days. The poor commission is entitled to change the place of abode of a child which is neglected or ill used, at the expense of the person with whom the child had been quartered, and is likewise entitled to compel the lægd yder, who acts thus towards a pauper "in lægd," and does not alter his conduct after being warned or punished, to furnish the compensation in kind to the other "lægd's ydere" while these last provide for the pauper, during the time the first named should have done so.

§ 37. It is the duty of the overseer to take care that none in his district receive any assistance or relief longer than is necessary; and to exert himself according to his means, to ease the burthens of the poor administration, by promoting diligence among the house poor, and others who are not quartered out and amongst the growing children; which last, however, must not be deprived of the time necessary to attend school.

§ 38. As soon as a poor child is confirmed, and is fit for labour or other employment, the relief is to cease. In case the confirmed person has not procured a situation, or other lawful means of support, it is the special duty of the lansmand, among the members of the poor administration, to take care that the individual obtains a servitude.

CHAPTER VII.

Of Mendicity and the Poor Constables.

§ 39. None may beg, but every person who is in such want, that he cannot provide for himself and those belonging to him, shall apply for aid to the competent poor commission (§ 22) or to the overseer. In case any one is guilty of begging, for the first offence he is to be seriously admonished by the overseer of the district in which he has begged, who is likewise to point out to him what consequences will follow a repetition of the offence. In case he offends afterwards he is to be punished according to the enactment set forth in § 35, and afterwards, in case of a repetition of the offence, with from two months to a year's confinement in the house of correction. When children who have not left home beg at the instigation of the father or mother or foster father, or with their consent, the offence is to be visited on those who have instigated or assented to it, as if they had begged in person; the child is likewise to be punished, if it has attained the legally accountable age. A person is not to be accounted a beggar who asks only for food, when it appears that his want of sustenance is so great, that unless he tried to procure immediate relief, he would be exposed to perish of hunger, provided he immediately afterwards applies to the overseer of the district for relief, or in case the poor administration is unable to relieve all the poor in years of scarcity, save in a very scanty manner, and the hungry mendicant then confines himself to the soliciting of food.

§ 40. When the poor commission deems it necessary under its direction, one or more constables paid from the poor funds are to be appointed in the parish, who are assiduously to search out and arrest beggars, and in case a beggar belongs to the parish, he is to be conducted

* Sorenskriver, an officer in the country whose duties are chiefly those of a registrar and judge in the lowest court.

conducted to the competent overseer, who will provide the needful as enacted by § 39; if belonging to another case, to the lensmand, who will act in the same manner as the president in the case of § 39, by administering either punishment or admonition, after which the offender, through the medium of the intervening lensmand is to be sent to his place of settlement, with a letter to the poor commission there, containing a statement of what has occurred. If the punishment has been labour in the house of correction, a statement of what has occurred is to be transmitted by the inspector to the poor commission of the place bound to afford the offender relief, as his proper settlement.

§ 41. All the expenses incurred to punish paupers and mendicants within the parish, to be defrayed from the poor fund. The expense of arresting strange mendicants, their punishment and conveyance to be made good by their place of settlement.

CHAPTER VIII.

Of the Receipts of the Poor Fund and Administration of the Accounts.

§ 42. The ordinary resources of the poor fund are,—

- (a.) Interest of legacies, outstanding capitals, ground-rents or other annual payments.
- (b.) Stated annual tax of 12 skillings on each hunsmænd,* and each man servant, and six skillings each woman servant; however, the poor commission is competent to reduce or remit the duty to poor hunsmænd.
- (c.) A fixed annual duty on stills, equal to half what they shall pay to the National Treasury, according to the existing laws.
- (d.) The penalties which, in accordance with the laws, are adjudged and appropriated to the poor fund, and including all the penalties enacted by this law.
- (e.) The articles which may be possessed at the time of their death by the pauper admitted to receive constant relief, provided these persons do not leave spouse or children unprovided for.
- (f.) Communion and poor-box donations to the poor fund, and similar casual receipts.
- (g.) What may be raised by assessment for the poor fund.

§ 43. The receipts named under letters (a.) and (f.) in § 42, are to be received severally by the president of the poor commission; those under (b.) and (g.) are to be collected or enforced by the lensmand of the district, and that under letter (c.) by the fogd,† together with the duty payable to the State Treasury. The lensmand and fogd are to deliver the amount collected, with a statement annexed, to the president of the commission. As respects the receipts named under letter (d.) the competent functionaries, or court of reconciliation, are, at the expiration of every quarter, to furnish the president with attested copies of the resolutions taken, and the sentences or adjustments from which penalties have accrued to the poor fund; and announcing, in as far as respects the decisions, to what extent, as far as may be known, they are appealed against or not. In case the stipulated time of payment has expired without the penalties being paid, and in as far as respects any sentence not appealed against, the copies to be transmitted to the fogd, which functionary is to do what may be necessary and remit the amount collected, and in default of full payment, to send a certified copy of the minute of the act of execution to the president.

At the expiration of the twelve months' accounts, the president receives from the sórenskrivners, or courts of reconciliation, a suitable attestation, if in any quarter of the year no penalties have been adjudged to the poor fund. In case the competent functionaries or the court of reconciliation neglect to transmit the aforesaid documents, or to enforce the penalties in due time, they are to be individually responsible. In respect of the daily fines 1, 5, 15, of the law, no copies of sentences or adjustments are to be transmitted; but it is the duty of the fogd, when he enforces them, to remit the amount collected to the president of the commission, with a copy of the minute of the act of execution. The effects left by the poor referred to under letter (e.) (which does not include the clothes of paupers "in lægd," § 32.), to be received by the overseer, and deposited in a convenient place, under the directions of the president, who, as may be found most advisable, either distributes them to the poor who are then receiving relief, or causes them, when an opportunity offers, to be sold by auction by the lensmand for the benefit of the poor fund; whereupon that officer, after having collected the purchase-money, is to send it in, together with a certified copy of the auction minute, in as far as relates to the effects sold.

§ 44. In those parishes in which reside persons who, without being farmers, hunsmænd or servants, are established in a trade, or have an income which admits of their contributing something to the poor fund, such as men-servants in trade, assistants or clerks of iron-works, tutors, saw-masters, pilots and others, these persons are to be annually rated in money to the poor fund.

§ 45. Only in the extraordinary event that the means of relief adequate to the necessities of the poor, and the means of those on whom they are quartered out for the ensuing year, taking into the account the regulated lægd payments in kind, and the computed receipts of the poor fund, cannot be otherwise procured, is the poor commission entitled to levy what may be wanting, by equal assessment on the farmers, either in kind, or where this does not exactly accord with the object in view, in money. When the presidents in the

* Hunsmænd, a person who occupies a cottage and small portion of land belonging to the farmer, and is bound to work for him on certain conditions.

† Fogd, an officer in rural districts, whose duties are those of tax collector.

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the thinglångs shall be appointed, such an extraordinary levy may not take place without their consent, or, in case this is refused, without the approbation of the amtmand.

§ 46. Both the adjustment of "lœgd" and assessments on particular farms of contributions in kind to particular paupers, as also the general assessments to the poor fund treated of in §§ 44 and 45, should take place according to income and fortune.

§ 47. In every meeting of the poor commission at which the assessment or re-adjustment of lœgd has taken place, the lensmand concerned takes a copy of the minutes in as far as respects the first point, and notifies the same on the church of each hamlet at the conclusion of divine service, the first Sunday after the meeting. After this notification a copy is to be left with the lensmand for inspection during the period of four weeks.

In case any one considers himself unjustly dealt with by the assessment or regulation which has occurred, he is entitled to give in his complaint before the expiration of these four weeks, directed to the amtmand through the overseer of the commission, who, upon the expiration of the said four weeks, transmits the complaint or complaints which have reached him, together with his opinion on them, for the decision of the amtmand. This last is then authorized to make such reductions in the assessments, or alterations in the adjustment, as he may think just towards the complainants.

§ 48. Within three months after the expiration of every relief year, the president of the commission, under the liability enacted by law, transmits through the amtmand, for his revision, the account of the receipts and disbursements of the poor fund in the said year, annexing, as regards *the receipts*, designations, attestations, minutes of executions, letters from the fogd or lensmand, with remittances, and the copies of minutes of sales, as treated of in § 43; and as regards *the expenses*, an official certificate from the accountant of their correctness, and a certified copy from the minutes of the proceedings treated of in § 23, relative to the casual expenses of the year, and the observations which may have been made upon the same in the meeting. In the accounts it is to be stated how many poor are provided with lœgd or with assistance in corn, assessed equally upon the farmers.

CHAPTER IX.

Relating to some Rights and Privileges attaching to the Poor Administration.

§ 49. The poor commission has a right to refuse permission to a male receiving constant relief to contract matrimony, as long as he continues to receive relief; and furthermore, in case he renounce the same, in consequence of such prohibition, to require of him to make it appear that he and his family, in case he marry, will not become a burthen to the poor administration, or if he cannot do this (which is to be decided by the poor commission,) may make him give security that he shall not become chargeable.

§ 50. When the poor administration has been obliged to take under its charge a child whose father is living, it has the same claim against him, as by the laws is assigned to mothers of illegitimate children, or wives separated from their husbands. In case it has been obliged to take charge of or grant relief to necessitous persons, who have married parents, mother or grown up children, who have the means to support or assist, without being willing to do so, the poor commission may institute legal proceedings against such relation, for compensation for its advances.

§ 51. All official documents, services, &c. belonging to the poor administration, are to be granted and executed gratuitously.

§ 52. In like manner, as every administration of the poor retains the peculiar receipts, rights and privileges as hitherto belonging to it, so the general enactments in the ordinance of §§ 23 and 26, 25th May 1804, relative to exemption from the use of stamps; § 17 of the law of 14th July 1827, as to the expense of poor children attending school, and the law of the 13th September 1830, respecting the exemption from payment of postage, will remain valid in future. All the estates or property of the poor administration are exempted from taxes, imposts, quartering of soldiers and other burthens.

§ 53. The competent poor administration may draw up plans and regulations to be submitted for the royal decision, instead of the enactment in this law, principally relating to relief, superintendence and receipts (chap. 5, 6 and 8) which cannot be conveniently carried into effect in the case of mines and fabrics, which have their own peculiar poor administration. In respect to the mode of relief in Ladesteder, which have their poor administration in common with a land district, the mode to be adopted to be fixed by the competent poor administration.

§ 54. All the laws and ordinances relating to the poor administration in the country in force hitherto, are hereby declared null, whenever they shall be found inconsistent with the enactments contained in the present law.

P. M. Ottesen.
M. Sigwardt.
P. Holst.

Christiania, 21st July 1832.

PROJECT of a LAW for the ADMINISTRATION of the POOR in TOWNS.

CHAPTER I.

Of what constitutes an Administrative District of the Poor.

§ 1. Every town constitutes a separate and associated district of administration of the poor, to which is attached that part of the contiguous land district, which appertains to the secular jurisdiction of the town.

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A ladested, which has had its own poor administration hitherto, distinct from the remaining part of the parish in which it is situated, still forms a peculiar district, for which the present law is to be in force; however, it rests with the ladested and parish to unite, if they think fit, in an agreement, so as to form a single poor administration; in which case the code of laws in force for the poor administration in the country will remain applicable to the union. The public poor administration of Kongsberg will remain in future separated from the private poor administration of the said town. The mining establishments situated in towns are to be regulated according to the enactments of the law, applicable to the poor administration in the country.

CHAPTER II.

As to the Directors of the Administration of the Poor.

§ 2. The administration of the poor in every district to be superintended by a commission, consisting of the chief magistrate as president, the minister or ministers, the superintendent of the police, and the paid physician, where these functionaries are appointed as fixed members, and as many overseers chosen from the inhabitants as the amtmand may think requisite, upon the representation of the magistracy and in proportion to the extent of the poor administration.

§ 3. In the ladesteder, which have their own poor administration, the functionary which has the direction of the police is to be president, and he, together with the minister of the parish, to be fixed members of the poor commission, to whom is to be added the number of overseers, which the amtmand may deem necessary.

§ 4. The overseers of the poor to be elected for four years by those who, according to the constitution, are eligible to vote, in a meeting to be convened at the end of the year, by the magistracy and foremen of the town; but in case hereafter the foremen themselves shall be elected, then they are to choose the overseers. When the four years after the first election, instituted in conformity with the present law, have elapsed, half of the overseers chosen by lot go out of office, or in case the original number is an odd one, the half with the addition of one, whereupon a like number are to be elected in their stead. Two years afterwards the remaining overseers of the first election secede, and as many more are elected to assume their places; and afterwards the retirement and selection every second year, is to take place in the like order. As long as the overseers are exclusively elected by those entitled to vote according to the constitution, note is to be taken of the two who have most votes at the election, next to the overseers actually chosen, in order to their coming into office in case of any vacancy, by death or other accident. In case any person has thus become overseer at another time than that of the election, he is to remain in office until the second election takes place after his assuming office; and if this should occasion the necessity of more retirements than would regularly occur at the next regular election, lots are to be drawn between those overseers who have been such for two full years.

§ 5. A person more than 60 years old, or who is chamberlain, superior guardian, foreman of a town or royal functionary, is not bound to accept his election as overseer. A retiring overseer can be re-elected, but is not bound to serve until four years after he has quitted office. The overseers of the poor are exempted from other municipal duties, in case the magistracy can get them executed by others. In case any person considers that he has a legal excuse for not serving as overseer, or that he is entitled to demand his dismissal from office, the point is to be decided by the magistracy; or in case fixed electors are introduced in future by them, if the excuse urged is declared valid, and there be no substitute, an election of a new instead of the retiring overseer is to take place.

§ 6. In the capital towns of the Stifts, and at Drammin, a distinct and paid cashier is to be attached to the poor administration, who is to give security, and is likewise clerk of the poor commission. In the other towns, the commission is to elect the cashier from amongst the overseers by a plurality of votes. The poor commission collectively, are security for the cashier, in case he should be deficient; and is, in consequence, entitled to inspect the management of the cash, to decide upon the amount the cashier shall have in his custody at any time, and the manner in which the remaining money should be safely kept.

§ 7. At the request of the poor commission, the magistracy is to appoint the needful number of ward masters, whose term of office is three years, after which time they are entitled to retire. Nobody who is or has been chamberlain, principal guardian, foreman, churchwarden or royal functionary, can be appointed to this office; all other persons may be chosen even if they are not citizens of the town.

CHAPTER III.

As to the Place of Settlement of the Poor.

§ 8. Every one in want of relief shall receive it of the poor administration in the district where he resides, provided he has resided there regularly during the last five years. If this is not the case, the district in which he last resided during five successive years, is his place of settlement; and in case he has not resided so long constantly in any one place, then his native place. By fixed residence, is meant to be understood, that he has had his home in the district during the whole of the stipulated period. However, the place of settlement of the wife is regulated by that of the husband; children in wedlock under the age of 18, by the fathers; and in case of his death, by the mothers; and illegitimate children under the same age, by the mothers, so long as the husband, father and mother live; but after the death of these, by the constant residence of the widow or child, approximating the nearest to five years. In the absence of so long a residence in any one place, the person's place of

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settlement is his or her place of nativity. Instead of the place of nativity, when the birth only occurred there by chance, while the mother at the same time had her fixed residence in another district, this or if she has no place of residence, then the place of her nativity becomes the place of her settlement and relief. In those cases in which the proper places of settlement cannot be discovered, the individual is to be provided for in the district where he has resided longest during the last five years. In as far as any one in reference to the laws hitherto valid, has acquired the right to be provided for in a given place by means of a shorter residence there than five years, this continues to be his place of settlement until he has resided fixedly for five years in another district.

§ 9. The time which any one is confined in a place of punishment is not taken into the account, or considered when the question is as to the place of settlement or relief, excepting when the individual is the father of a family, a wife in wedlock, or a widow with a family; in which cases, the individual is regarded to have resided there, where the family has resided during the term of the punishment.

§ 10. Persons enlisted in the military service, their wives and children are provided for in case they require relief from the military chest, and consequently cannot acquire a settlement during the period of their continuing in the service. As a result hereof, the military authorities have a right to refuse permission to men who have enlisted, to enter upon the married state. When these are dismissed from the service, and they or the family are in want of relief, the proper district to afford this relief, would be that to which it would have devolved, supposing the period of service of the individual or father of the family to be altogether disregarded.

§ 11. A foreigner who becomes distressed without having resided five years at any one place in the kingdom, is to have the needful relief given him, until he is removed in the district where he was resident at the time his necessity occurred, the expenses of his conveyance out of the kingdom or to his home, to be borne by the national treasury. Whether or no the reimbursement of the expenses for conveyance and relief can be advisedly demanded from the place to which he belongs, is to be decided upon by the competent department of the government, which will take the needful measures in consequence.

§ 12. In case an individual person or family require relief at a place which is not that of his settlement, reimbursement for the assistance afforded at the first-named place, can be demanded from the latter, in case the poor commission in the same has been informed thereof without delay. Nevertheless, the assistance which is rendered essential, in consequence of a misfortune which has occurred casually, such as sickness, without the individual or family requiring relief; when this simple cause of necessity is removed, shall neither give rise to a claim for reimbursement, nor enable the poor commission affording the relief, to enjoin the individual or family to depart to their place of settlement.

§ 13. No person who does not demand relief shall be sent away from the poor district in which he is resident, because in process of time, he may possibly become a burthen to that district. Nor may relief be tendered to or forced upon any person, but must be applied for first by the destitute, before they can be regarded as applicants for relief. However, any person is to be regarded as an applicant who either has been guilty of begging personally, or whose wife or children have done so, either with his knowledge or even without his being privy to it, for the sole reason that the father obviously had not been able to, or would not, provide his family with the needful support.

§ 14. An individual or family removing from his or their previous home to a town, shall bring a minute certificate from the minister of the parish where they have previously resided, containing the particulars of his or their baptism, confirmation, marriage, receipt of the sacrament the last time, their previous deportment and the avowed object of their removal. This certificate is to be delivered by the new comer on the day, or at the latest on the day after his arrival in the town where he intends to fix his residence, to the superintendent of the police, under a penalty of one ort daily in default thereof; which functionary is, without delay, to furnish the minister of the parish with a certified copy of the certificate, to be made use of in the ministerial records, and afterwards to take charge of the certificate as long as the residence in the town may continue. The time of residence to be computed from the day of delivery of the certificate, or the last day of the time in which it should have been delivered. In case of removal from the town, the certificate is to be delivered to the person about to remove from thence, on whom it is incumbent to procure the needful indorsement of the minister of the parish as to his or their deportment, last receipt of the sacrament, increase of the family there, &c.

§ 15. In case it can be inferred with certainty from the certificate of removal brought with them, or by means of other vouchers, where the person's or family's proper place of settlement is, the poor administration in the place, where the necessity for relief occurred, is entitled to remove the pauper by means of the lensmand unless sickness prevents, to his or their proper place of settlement at the expense of the same. On the other hand, if no such certainty exists, the pauper must not, upon mere conjecture as to his correct place of settlement, be sent to another poor district, but his removal must be delayed, until either the needful certainty is attained by correspondence or other means, or the fact is admitted in the proper place of settlement.

§ 16. Disputes respecting the proper place of settlement, and reimbursement between the administrations of the poor in different districts in the same amt, are to be decided by the amtmand, but those between districts in different amts, by the competent department of the government.

CHAPTER IV.

Of the Poor Commissioners.

§ 17. In the capital towns of the Stifts and at Drammin the poor commission is to hold an ordinary meeting once every month, and otherwise as often as the president appoints. In the remaining towns the regular meetings for the year as to number and time are to be fixed by the president; and he is likewise to summon extraordinary meetings. The meetings to be held in the council chamber.

§ 18. At the meeting of the commission is to be discussed every thing relating to relief and the means of carrying the same into effect. Every overseer is to state at the ordinary meeting the decrease of the poor in his district, that has taken place since the last ordinary meeting, and to make such proposals as he may deem necessary with reference to the increase, decrease or discontinuance of assistance, and to report whether any and what persons, since the last meeting, have claimed relief, and the extent to which they have been temporarily assisted. In this case a minute investigation is to take place on the part of the commission with reference to these persons and their necessity, &c. for which purpose the paupers must attend personally, unless sickness prevents them, with their wives and children, even in case commission thinks them deserving of assistance, before they can be received into the number of those relieved.

§ 19. Every one who is specially desired by any member of the poor commission to attend the sitting of the latter, is bound to obey, provided the reason for which he has been summoned to attend, is previously stated, under a penalty of from half to three specie dollars. The member of the commission who absents himself from a meeting without assigning a lawful excuse, which is to be decided by the commission, is to forfeit three specie dollars.

§ 20. In the towns where there is no stipendiary clerk attached to the commission (§ 5) or the clerk of the town or magistracy may not be bound to officiate, the keeping of the minutes of the commission is to be superintended by the president gratis, either personally, or through the means of such an officer of the court subordinate to him, as he may direct, or by such individual member of the commission as he may induce to do so. The needful minutes authorized by the amtmand, must always comprise, besides the minutes of proceedings, a copy-book and minutes of accounts, and a register containing a list of all the paupers collectively, as also of their decrease and increase; the expense of these, as also of the materials for writing, is to be defrayed from the poor fund.

§ 21. The principal meeting of the year is to be held in the month of October, its object is to submit plans for and determine the expenses of providing for the poor during the ensuing year. At this meeting the lists of paupers are to be minutely gone through, for which purpose the wardmasters should attend with their population returns in order to furnish the needful explanations. Moreover a computation is to be made of the receipts of the poor fund for the year ensuing, independent of the poor rates, a deliberation is to be entered upon as to the possible savings, and how far the poor rates for the next year can be reduced, or whether it is necessary to increase them; whether the buildings and premises supported by the poor administration require to be repaired, and if additions are deemed necessary or adviseable; and what outlay they would occasion to the poor funds, and whether any improvement can be adopted in the mode of relief, &c. during the year ensuing. The foremen of the town are to be invited to attend this meeting, and to take part in the deliberations which relate to determining the expenses; these deliberations, as far as possible, should proceed without being mixed up with the other business of the commission. Should the foremen, against the opinion of the majority, oppose one or other item of expenditure or consider the poor rate as having been fixed too high by the commission, after computing the expenditure and remaining receipts of the poor funds, they may cause their opinion to be entered in the minutes of the commissions with the reasons on account of which they refuse their assent. After the withdrawal of the foremen, the commission is to form its decision on the points in dispute, and it is its duty to defer to the objections of the foremen against any particular item of expenditure, so far as the objects of the poor administration will allow. In case the final resolutions of the commission are in any part at variance with the proposals of the foremen, the dispute is to be settled by the sentence of the amtmand to whom is to be transmitted a certified copy of the minute of proceeding, so far as regards the opinions recorded by the said foremen, and the measures adopted by the commission in reference thereto. New establishments must not be determined on without the acquiescence of the foremen unless there exist means for them from the sources of receipt treated upon in § 47, or from legacies, or subscriptions. In towns, where no poor rate is required, the foremen are not to be re-summoned.

§ 22. As soon as this principal meeting is held, or in case, as stated above, a copy of the minutes has been sent to the amtmand, then as soon as his decision is received, the president is to state the amount of the poor rate for the year ensuing to the magistracy, on whom it is incumbent to take care that it be assessed without delay.

§ 23. Should two-thirds of the members of the commission consider another time of the year more convenient for the principal meeting, as enacted by § 21, than that stipulated by law, it is left at the option of the commission to hold its meeting at another time.

§ 24. All measures at the meetings are to be decided by a majority of votes, in case of the number being equal, the president's to be the casting vote. Every member is entitled to insert a written vote in the minutes. When the proceedings are concluded, the minutes are to be all signed by the members, but remain in custody of the president.

§ 25. The superior control of the poor administration is to be vested in the amtmand, to
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which end he is authorized to examine the minutes of the commissions, to demand the explanations he may find requisite in order to carry on the chief superintendence, both as respects the benefit of the district, the efficiency of the relief afforded, and the regular course of the administration. Also to give the commission instructions and admonitions; to which attention must be paid, unless they are recalled upon further representations, or superseded by higher authority. In like manner at their visitation, the bishop and dean are to cause the minutes of the poor administrations to be laid before them, and to demand explanations in order to ascertain whether spiritual attention is afforded the poor; and they are bound in default thereof, to give information to the competent amtmand, and to report the needful, in the return made of their visitation. On the other hand the control of the poor administrations on the part of the stift's direction expires.

CHAPTER V.

On the Modes of Relief.

§ 26. It is left to every commission to decide as to the modes of relief, which it may deem most adviseable, with reference to the wants and situation of the inscribed poor; however, the commission is to take all possible care that the least expensive mode by which the object in view may be attained, be preferred to the more costly, and that which leads to the greatest industry on the part of the poor, to the mere giving of alms or a residence in the poor house without employment; also that assistance in kind is to be preferred to assistance in money. Where circumstances and the convenience of the poor fund permit, the commission should take measures to establish a kitchen and stores of wood, to be sold to the poor in small quantities on the lowest terms. With respect to the kitchen, the members of the commission should convince themselves by frequent unexpected visits, that wholesome food is supplied to the poor.

§ 27. Where houses of industry exist already, or may be formed with the permission of the foremen (§ 21), or from the assets treated of in § 47, as many as possible of the able-bodied poor should be set to work. The needful measures as to the sort of work, purchase of materials, and the sale of what is manufactured, are to be taken by the poor commission, which is likewise to fix the daily wages, in relation to which reference must be had to the relief given, superintendence, &c. The labourers, while they are in the house, are to be subject to the strictest discipline on the part of the superintendent. Every person who is placed in such an establishment is entitled to leave it as soon as the fact is established that he is able, by working for private persons, or in some other way to provide for himself. The poor commission, and in particular the overseers, should exert themselves, as opportunity may occur, to procure work for the poor who cannot be employed in the house of industry, and who although able, cannot procure work for themselves; work so obtained, such persons are bound to perform at the usual daily wages, or for the customary provisions, under the penalties of § 37.

§ 28. In like manner care should be taken to provide such and as much work as their strength will allow, for the aged single poor which are received into the poor-rooms, provided that the result be not a greater expense than benefit to the poor administration.

§ 29. The poor commission is to decide in what manner and where the sick-poor are to be relieved during their illness; however, new infirmaries can only be provided with the assent of the foremen (§ 21), unless there exist the means of doing so, treated of in § 47.

§ 30. The commission is to decide how often, how much each time and to whom, are to be distributed assistance in money or in kind. In like manner it is left to the commission to determine the needful, in reference to the lodging and clothing of the poor, who could not obtain house-room or clothes but for the assistance of the poor administration. In case a pauper of this class makes away with the clothes received, or treats them improperly, he is to be punished as enacted by § 37, without any previous warning being required.

§ 31. Orphans or deserted children, if in want, are to be provided for by being placed out with decent people in the town or in the country, at the expense of the poor fund, and under the constant inspection of the competent overseer, or the person who is appointed by the poor commission for such purpose.

§ 32. The burial of persons admitted as fixed paupers, as also of those who without having been thus provided for, leave nothing from which the expense might be defrayed, is to be at the cost of the poor fund, in case no one is bound to bear the expense according to § 53, or will voluntarily take upon himself to do so. The corpse is to be carried by watchmen, firemen or any other persons who have been bound to do so hitherto, after a summons on the part of the competent overseer. A fixed yearly salary from the poor-chest should be given to the sexton for making and filling up graves.

§ 33. When want of relief or assistance from the poor administration occur to any person or family on a single occasion, and this aid cannot be deferred until the next meeting of the poor commission, the necessitous applicant is to apply to the overseer of the poor in whose district he resides; which last, after having investigated the case, is to fix and draw on the cashier or ward-master for the assistance which he may find it necessary to afford, until the next meeting is held.

§ 34. In general the poor administration is under no obligation to relieve sick servants, as it is incumbent on the master to provide for those he employs until their term of service expires, after legal notice has been given; nevertheless, the poor commission may grant the needful assistance to the master, whose means do not admit of affording the required relief without some aid.

CHAPTER VI.

Of the Overseers of the Poor and Ward Master's superintendence and discipline as to the Poor.

§ 35. The town is to be divided by the poor commission into as many districts as there are overseers, every overseer is to have his allotted district, whose poor he superintends generally, while the special superintendence belongs to the ward-master or masters subordinate to the overseer appointed by the magistracy. Each overseer's district in which more than one ward-master is appointed, is to be divided into as many wards, so that each ward-master has his peculiar ward.

§ 36. It is the duty of the ward-master to receive and to distribute, according to the directions of the commission, the aid in kind, in as far as the poor administration does not direct such distribution to be effected by others. The overseer is to take care that the distribution takes place at the proper time. The complaints of the poor on this score against the ward-master to be made to the overseer; who, after having caused an investigation to take place, in case he finds the complaint grounded, or has himself discovered any inequality in the distribution, refers the case for the consideration of the poor commission at its next meeting. The commission can then impose on the ward-master, after he has been called in, a fine of two to twenty specie dollars, and discuss whether it be necessary to propose his dismissal; nevertheless it is reserved to the party accused to have the matter, in as far as the fine is concerned, decided by a legal sentence.

§ 37. The ward-master is to see that the poor in the ward conduct themselves properly, both as relates to demeanor and work, and that they observe the directions of the commission or overseer. When he finds that a pauper conducts himself improperly and is guilty of idleness, drunkenness, incivility, obstinacy or quarrelsomeness, he is competent to give the party in question a serious reprimand, and in case this produces no effect, he is bound to report this conduct to the overseer, who after having convinced himself of the correctness of the report, can in the next meeting of the commission propose a reduction to the lowest possible scale of the allowance granted to the said disorderly pauper. Should this likewise prove devoid of effect, or the allowance not bear any reduction, the poor commission is entitled, after having investigated the matter, to adjudge the said disorderly pauper the punishment of imprisonment on bread and water for 20 days, or arrest for a period not exceeding two months.

§ 38. The ward-master is to keep an exact list of all the poor admitted to receive relief in his ward, and to report every alteration that occurs to the overseer, to be notified by him at the next meeting of the commission, in as far as it has any influence on the poor administration.

§ 39. It is incumbent on every poor commission, by instructions, to provide the ward masters with a set of rules and directions respecting the manner in which they are to demean themselves, in executing the duties of their office.

§ 40. It is the duty of the overseer to take care that none in his district receive any assistance or relief over and above what is necessary, or for a longer period than is requisite, and to contribute, according to his means, to ease the burthens of the poor administration by promoting diligence among the house poor in the district and the growing children, which last, however, must not be deprived of the time necessary for attending school. In reference to such children, the overseer should use his endeavours to get them placed out as apprentices with mechanics, or to learn trade, in which case the relief ceases.

As soon as a child under the care of the poor administration is confirmed, and has the needful capacity for service or any other employment, the superintendence is at an end. It is the duty of the police master to take care that the pauper, who has been provided for hitherto, takes a service or otherwise becomes engaged in some lawful calling or employment.

§ 41. The superintendence of the houses of industry, poor chambers and infirmaries in the towns, to be divided amongst the members of the commission, as may be arranged by an understanding between themselves, or as may be determined by a plurality of votes; nevertheless, the overseer is exempted from assuming this superintendence, if he is unwilling to undertake it.

CHAPTER VII.

Of Mendicity and Pauper Beadles.

§ 42. None may beg; but every person who is in such want that he cannot provide for himself and those belonging to him, shall apply to the competent poor commission (§ 33.) or overseer for assistance. In case a person is guilty of begging, the first time he is to be seriously warned by the competent overseer, who is likewise to point out to him what consequences will attend a repetition of the offence. In case he should be guilty afterwards, he is to be punished for the first time, according to the decision of the poor commission, with one of the punishments enacted by § 37, and afterwards, in case of relapse, by a judicial accusation and with from two months to a year's labour in the house of correction. When children under the age of 15, who reside at home, beg at the instigation of the father or mother, or foster-father, or with their consent, the offence is visited on those who have instigated or consented to it, as if they had begged in person; the child is to be punished likewise, if it have attained an accountable age. When a beggar, who belongs to another place than the town, has undergone his punishment, he is to be conducted by the lensmand to the place to which he belongs, with a letter, in which what has occurred is related, from

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the poor commission or the superintendent of the house of correction to the poor commission of his place of settlement.

§ 43. The collective charges which are incurred in punishing the paupers and the beggars belonging to the town are to be defrayed from the poor fund. The charges attending the arrests of strange beggars, their punishment and conveyance, are to be made good by the poor fund of the place to which they belong.

§ 44. In every town one or several pauper constables, as directed by the poor commission, are to be appointed, with a salary from the poor fund, whose duty it is assiduously to search out and apprehend beggars.

CHAPTER VIII.

Of the Receipts of the Poor Fund, and administration of the Accounts.

§ 45. The ordinary income of the poor fund consists of—

(a.) Interest of legacies, outstanding capitals, ground-rents or other annual receipts.

(b.) A fixed annual duty on distilleries, equal to half what they shall pay at any given time to the National Treasury.

(c.) The fines or penalties which, in accordance with the laws, are adjudged or appropriated to the benefit of the poor, and including all the penalties or fines which are imposed by this law.

(d.) The articles which may be possessed at the time of their death by paupers receiving constant relief, who do not leave any pauper in wedlock, or offspring unprovided for.

(e.) Communion poor-box and money donations to the poor fund, and other similar casual receipts.

(f.) What may be raised by assessment as a poor rate.

(g.) The share which falls to the trading town of the duty on wine and brandy imported from abroad, treated upon in § 47.

§ 46. The receipts named under letters (a.) (e.) and (f.) are demanded or received directly by the cashier of the poor administration. The receipt under letter (b.) is to be collected by the clerk of the tax receiver in the town, together with the duty on distilleries payable to the National Treasury, and are to be transmitted, with a statement, to the cashier through the poor commission. Respecting the assets named under letter (c.), the competent functionaries, or court of reconciliation, are, at the expiration of every quarter, to present the poor commission with attested copies of the resolutions taken, the sentences or adjustments from which penalties have accrued to the poor fund, and to announce, as far as respects the decisions, to what extent they have been appealed against, or not, as then known. In case the time of paying penalties has expired without their being paid, and in as far as respects any sentence against which there is no appeal, the copies to be sent to the competent byfogd,* to enforce the payment. This functionary is to do what may be necessary, and remit the amount collected to the commission, which is to hand over the money, as well as the copies, to the cashier, for insertion in his accounts. On closing the accounts for 12 months, the cashier receives from the competent law courts in the town and the court of reconciliation, a suitable attestation, in case, during any quarter of the year, no penalties have been adjudged to the poor fund. In case the competent functionaries or the court of reconciliation neglect to transmit the aforesaid certified copies, or to enforce the penalties in due time, they become individually responsible.

In respect of the daily fines, 1, 5, 15 of the law, no copies of sentences or adjustments are to be transmitted, but it is the duty of the byfogd, in case and when he enforces the same, to remit the amount collected to the president of the commission, with a copy of the minute of the act of execution. In reference to letter (d.), it is the duty of the president, as soon as a case of death has occurred, to register and take the effects left under his charge until the poor commission decides either upon their distribution to other paupers or sale by public auction, in which latter case the proceeds are handed over by the collector, through the poor commission, to the cashier, to be placed among the assets in his account, together with a certified copy of the minute of the sale, or such part of it as includes the effects of the poor administration so disposed of.

§ 47. On spirits of wine, brandy, rum, arrack, cordials and wine, imported from places abroad, is to be levied one skilling per pot for the poor administration, and paid along with the ordinary duty. The cashier of the customs to transmit the amount received with a statement attested by the inspector of the customs, at the expiration of every quarter, after deducting two per cent. salary for collecting, viz. the two-third parts to the poor commission of the place, to be handed over to the cashier, and one-third part to the individual in the capital town of the stift, named by the government, to superintend the fund accruing from this source; the object of which is, by degrees, according to the directions of the government in respect of place, time and amount, to avail in the forming of, or as contributions towards a stock of grain for the use of the poor administrations in the districts of the stift most in want.

When such a magazine is constructed, the government is to decide the needful in respect to the extent of the district which is to receive benefit from the same; the management of the magazine and the yearly appropriation of the store of grain for distribution, as gift or loan for seed. As often as any thing is received towards the above-named fund, the director is

* A Byfogd in a town much resembles as to his duties a sorenskriver in the country. He is register and judge of the lowest court.

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is to see that the amount be placed out at interest, on lawful security; in like manner when any portion shall be appropriated by order of the government, he shall superintend the recalling and repayment of the capital.

The director is to render an account annually of this fund to the competent department of the government, and is to be allowed a certain salary from the fund every year, according to the directions of the government.

In years of scarcity a sum equivalent to the receipts of the fund during the last year, may be applied to furnish grain in the most necessitous districts of the stift for food of persons and families receiving relief, or families as well as other persons in want, which the administration of the poor would be obliged otherwise to support; and in as far as adequate resources permit, to lend seed for sowing the same, to be repaid with the usual interest, to the poor administration of the place. The portion of the additional duty on wine and brandy assigned to the town, to be applied principally to the erection or enlargement of houses of industry, poor houses, infirmaries, regular stores of firewood, and other similar establishments, calculated for a long time to come.

§ 48. The poor rates to be assessed at the commencement of the year, according to the income and fortune of those on whom they are levied. The assessment is to be exposed for public inspection by the magistracy, during 14 days in the council chamber. In case it then happens that any one of the rate-payers conceives he has reason to complain of being rated too high, he has to address himself, with his complaint, before the expiration of the said 14 days, through the magistracy, to the foremen of the town; who, as constituting a superior commission of equalization, are bound to decide within the expiration of four weeks; after which, the result is reported by the foremen to the magistracy. If any reduction of the sum assessed should then take place, or if the rate itself cannot be obtained of any person on whom it is incumbent to pay it, the poor fund is to be indemnified for the amount, from the revenues of the town.

§ 49. As soon as those 14 days are expired, the magistracy is to send the statement of the apportionment to the competent collector of the rates, who is to demand the amount and receive the same from the rate-payers, with observations as to the persons who have preferred appeals, from whom the rate is not to be demanded until the magistracy have notified to the collector the result of the proceedings before the superior commission of equalization. The moiety of what is exacted of each is to be collected directly, and the other half in the month of June. What is not paid within four weeks after the collector of the rates has presented the statement or specification of the rate to the rate-payer which must take place without delay every term, is to be enforced by the collector; and as soon as a sum of 100 specie dollars is collected, he is to send the whole amount which has been collected up to that time, through the poor commission to the cashier.

§ 50. The poor commission is to take care that the needful funds for disbursement at all times are actually in hand and ready to be applied; but in case it should happen at the beginning of the year, on account of the poor rate for the first half year not being in cash sufficiently early, that the chest should at any time unavoidably require an advance from the town funds, the commission has to make timely application on the subject, through the magistracy to the foremen.

§ 51. Before the expiration of the month of March, the cashier, under the responsibility enacted by law, is to transmit, through the poor commission, his account to be examined, setting forth the receipts, and expenses of the preceding year, annexing, as regards the receipts, together with a certificate of the magistracy, attestations, minutes of executions and minutes of sales, as treated upon in § 46, or other needful supplements; and as regards the expenses, the orders or lists, according to which these have taken place. Before the poor commission transmits the account to the competent department of the government, it is to state by endorsement whether it has any thing in general to observe. How far a separate account should be rendered for the house of industry or other such establishment, or whether the like should be subordinate to the general statement of the poor fund, is to be decided by the poor commission.

CHAPTER IX.

Relating to some Rights attaching to the Poor Administration.

§ 52. The poor commission has a right to refuse permission to a male receiving relief to contract matrimony, so long as he continues to receive the relief; and furthermore, in case he renounce the same in consequence of such prohibition, to require of him to make it appear that he and his family, in case he marry, will not become a burthen to the poor administration, or in case that he cannot do this, which is to be adjudged by the poor commission, that he then give security for the same.

§ 53. When the poor administration has been obliged to take under its charge a child whose father is living, it has the same claim against him as by the laws is assigned the mothers of illegitimate children or separated wives. In case it has been obliged to take charge of or grant relief to necessitous persons who have married parents, mother or grown children, having the means to support or assist them, without being willing to do so, the poor commission is authorized to institute legal proceedings for compensation of its advances, from such unwilling relation.

§ 54. All designations and certificates which are granted, or official summonses or services which are effected for the poor administrations, are to be granted and executed gratuitously.

§ 55. In like manner every poor administration is to retain the peculiar rights, receipts and privileges assigned to this single poor administration, which hitherto may have been attached

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to the same, in this manner will remain valid in future, the general enactments in the ordinance of §§ 23 and 26 of 25th May 1804, relating to stamps, and exemption from the use of the same, and the law of the 13th September 1830 as to exemption from the payment of postage. All the estates or property of the poor administration are exempted from taxes, imposts, quarterings of soldiers and other exactions.

§ 56. All the laws and ordinances relative to the poor administration in trading towns in force hitherto, are hereby rendered devoid of validity, so far as they may be inconsistent with the enactments contained in the present law.

Christiania, 2d August 1832.

P. M. Ottesen.
M. Sigwardt.
P. Holst.

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By the most gracious commission of the 6th November 1829, it is prescribed to the undersigned to assemble in a commission, for the purpose of reviewing the project of a general law on the administration of the poor, compiled by Oftedahl, dean of the bishopric in Christiansand, together with the opinions expressed and received thereupon, and afterwards to draw up the project of a law for the poor administration. As soon as we received this order, the commission held a preliminary meeting, to take into consideration how far we could cherish the hope, with something like a prospect of accomplishing the object for which the commission was instituted, to be ready in so short time, that the proposal might be submitted to the sixth regular storting in the year 1830. It was, however, discerned at once, that this would be impossible, as well on account of the numerous and pressing official duties, which are imposed on each member of the commission, as to the great mass of prolix matter in the current laws, in the above law project, and in the opinions expressed on the subject by poor commissioners, amtmand and stifts directions, all which required of necessity to be first extracted and embodied, before even a commencement could be made in a proper manner with the actual labours of the commission. With the conviction that the poor administration, especially in the rural districts in Norway, is effectually and judiciously arranged, and that the same ordinances, if applied to the whole of the rural districts, which are so diversified in our far extended country, might give rise to perplexities, and render the poor administration additionally imperfect, rather than produce any improvement, and under an opinion that perhaps even the towns, with single exceptions, could without detriment await the period when the individual to whom it has been confided to compile a sketch of the civil code generally, including several special laws, amongst which that for the poor administration is expressly enumerated, was ready with his work, or at least the time when a law should be perfected applicable to foremen in the towns, which law would probably have much influence on the dispositions of a law for the poor administration in towns; the commission had desired to be able to confine its labours to the project of a law on the relation of poor communes to each other, in reference to the duty of providing for particular paupers, as an object which really requires general and fixed regulations, the absence of which hitherto has given rise to many quarrels between the poor administrations, and numerous removals backwards and forwards of the poor and beggars, giving rise to suffering to these, and unnecessary expense to the communes; but notwithstanding the commission, could its labours have been thus limited, would probably have been enabled so far to get ready, that the work might have been presented at the storting last held, we still felt it would be improper to relinquish any portion of the prescribed more ample province, and we have therefore exerted ourselves in order to bring the whole to a conclusion, by the application of all the time which has been left for the purpose. As the commission has been altogether obliged to participate in the view taken by a considerable portion of the authorities, who have expressed opinions of Dean Oftedahl's proposal, that it is quite essential that there should exist distinct laws for the poor administrations in towns and rural districts, as the direction, mode of relief, sources of income and other contingencies, must be widely different; and a legislation common to both, would only lead to unnecessary prolixity, repetitions, ambiguity and difficulty, we have considered ourselves bound to draw up a project for the country, and one for the towns, especially with reference to the fact, that the individuals who will be the dispensers of the laws, are not usually versed in the handling of them, and have a claim on the community on the score of their burthensome sacrifices, that these should not be increased on the part of the legislature by an injudicious mixture of legislative enactments, which partly concern them, and partly apply to others. With reference to this last point, the commission has deemed it a duty to make its project as short and as little complicated as possible; but at the same time, not without apprehension of not having hit upon the proper medium between the opposite claim which might be made of brevity and completeness. It has endeavoured, with reference to the first, to pass over all the enactments which could be regarded as clearly resulting from the nature of the case, or such as notwithstanding they might have more or less influence on the advantage of the poor administration, attach more particularly to other portions of legislation, such as the police, medical regulations, &c. It has equally endeavoured to avoid definitions and classifications of the poor, in the conviction that a sound judgment will be found, on all occasions which may occur, the best and most competent guide, and that definitions, however adequate they may appear to be, more frequently, especially in a matter like this, lead to uncertainty as to the applicability of the law, imperfection and contradiction, rather than to any real utility.

As the object is, that the laws should be general for the whole of the towns and rural districts in the kingdom, the commission has taken care accordingly to guard against enactments

ments which, while they might be very useful, and answer the object for which they were designed in one place, would have the contrary effect in another place, and has therefore endeavoured to leave the hands of the directors concerned at liberty to take such measures as they shall consider in the exercise of their best judgment, best suited to their district.

After having thus briefly adverted to the principles which it has endeavoured to follow in the compilation of the accompanying project, the commission now makes free to touch upon the grounds of the most important single enactments.

Ad. CHAPTER I.

Relating to Towns.

A question has been broached as to how far equity prescribed, that the towns, in future, should likewise receive among the number of those relieved, those poor who have exclusively had employment in a town, but were residing on the ground of a land district, because it was not in the power of the latter to prevent their so residing. The commune, which has had the advantage of their work during their healthy days or plenitude of their vigour, should, it would appear reasonable, provide for them in a period of necessity. The commission, however, has not presumed to propose such an alteration in the arrangement and course of proceeding existing hitherto, because it would be attended by a considerable increase of burthen to the towns, and it would be to make an exception to the general rule, viz. that the place of residence, not the place of trade or subsistence, is the place of settlement. Besides, the district situated nearest the towns derives a benefit from its contiguity, in preference to other districts, which somewhat assists to ease the burthen of more extensive claims for relief, and finally, because a burthen to which one is accustomed is less oppressive than a new one.

The object in all probability will likewise be better attained by degrees, by the construction of suburbs on the ground attached to the jurisdiction of the town, in the same manner as took place some years since at Kleven, above Holmestrand.

Ad. CHAPTER II.

In the project for the Rural Districts.

We have particularly wished that the ministers in the country could be relieved of the not a little burthensome occupation of being foremen, secretaries and cashiers in the poor commissions, as it certainly is very oppressive that they should have a considerable portion of their time taken up and abstracted from their proper and highly-important vocation, by these and so many other secular employments as are assigned to them by the laws; but, nevertheless, the commission has not been able to discern, by a different mode of proceeding, how the poor administration in most of the districts could be properly conducted; and besides, among all temporal employments the poor administration is that which approximates nearest to the avocation of the minister.

To have assigned the secretaryship, at the meetings of the commission, to the chorister of the principal church, it has been held would be improper, because in many places this duty would be but very indifferently performed by him, and because it cannot form a troublesome addition to the duties of the minister as member of the poor commission, that as he must be present at meetings, he should, during the time, further take down the proceedings and perform such other writing as may be required at other times; in general the minister would rather do this personally than have to call the chorister each time, who, as the teacher in a fixed school, should not be called away from attending to the duties of the same. As to what respects the business of the cashier and the keeping of the accounts, these might be confided in many places to the lendsmand, or to an individual overseer of the district; however, this could be only casual, and a general rule for the same would be, most assuredly, impracticable in many places; not to name the circumstance, that lendsmoend have so many calls on their time, and frequently have the money of others committed to their charge, for which reason they are less calculated for the purpose; and that the minister, as foreman and distributor of the contributions granted during the intervals between the meetings of the commission, must always have some money belonging to the poor administration in his hands. The other members of the poor commission in the country, it has been thought should be elected by those of the commune who are entitled to vote, so that each overseer should have his district in the parish of which he is a resident, not indeed because the commission takes it for granted that the poor administration cannot be well directed by a commission composed in the manner prescribed by the existing laws, but because it is most in unison with our present mode of thinking, that the affairs of the commune should be directed by persons which are elected by the members of the same. It is deemed unnecessary to state any special grounds as to the detailed enactments as to elections in towns and ladesteder. In what relates to the mines, reference has been had to the law as to them discussed at the last regular meeting of the storthing.

Ad. CHAPTER II.

For the trading Towns.

Here we have thought the ministers might be exonerated from the virtual administration, as there is always a judicial functionary attached, with whose official duties likewise the administration of the poor is more in accordance than with the avocations of the minister. But nevertheless it has been assumed, that the minister of the parish, with reference to the natural relation of his office to the poor, should be a member of the commission as well as the chief magisterial person, the stipendiary physician resident in the town, and the director of the police, which last functionary likewise, with reference to the nature of his office, will participate with advantage in the management.

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Ad. CHAPTER III.

For the Land and District Towns as to the place of Settlement.

Which chapter in both projects is to the same effect, with a single exception, respecting with whom the certificate upon a removal should be deposited, and an enactment exclusively relating to the mines. The commission has assumed that the place removed to should not be enjoined to assume the duty of relief until after five years fixed residence, partly as it is obvious that two or three years is too short a period to impose this burthen on a place which previously had no such obligation; and partly as a longer period would make the person in question or family more free and less exposed to chicanery. When the rule is the same for all, no inequality can be reflected by it on particular communes, supposing it is not to have a retrospective effect. The commission has next considered it to be more consonant with justice, and the principle that personal liberty and free agency should be limited as little as possible, provided the laws be observed; that no commune should possess the right to remove a person or family, because by a longer stay in the commune he or they might become a burthen to the same.

In drawing up enactments applicable to the various occurrences on which it shall depend, where a person or family be relieved, the commission has rather exerted itself to lay down short but comprehensive principles leading to fixed enactments, which acquire their equity by extending alike to all, than that they should exactly be drawn from equity in the concrete, which when assumed as a basis would render necessary a great number of casuistical enactments, and introduce intricacies and uncertainty.

In order not to separate families unnaturally, in case of a necessity for relief, it has been thought best to name the child's or wife's place of settlement or relief, after the father's, mother's or husband's, rather than that where the dependent person, considered as insulated, would have been provided for. In order to avoid frequent, and in many respects unreasonable, claims of reimbursement from the place of settlement when a person who works either as a menial servant, or in another capacity in a commune where he is not settled, but without being in want of regular relief, only requires to be relieved once for all, in consequence of sickness or other misfortune which has occurred and is passing away, it has been decided that in reference to reimbursement, a distinction ought to be made between such persons and those who become necessitous and need to be provided for constantly.

In like manner, the commission has exerted itself to prevent the frequent removal of poor persons to the most remote parts of the kingdom, on the mere supposition that a place stated is their proper place of settlement, devoid of regard for the sufferings which such removals, without the object which they have in view being attained, may have produced, and the expense which has been incurred by the commune. The enactment which appears at the close of the chapter with reference to discharged miners, has for its object, as far as possible, to prevent the proprietors of mines, in whose power it is to discharge persons or families whom they apprehend may become a burthen to the poor administration of the mine, from availing themselves of this right to the detriment of the poor administration of other districts, which have not an equal power to free themselves from the burthen (cfr. § 13.) It has been found that it cannot be allowed, in justice to other communes, that the duty of providing relief should cease within certain years after a mine has ceased working, as to the owner of the same. If it is premised that a mine should form a peculiar poor administration by the side of the district's, a person on becoming the owner of the mine, must assume the responsibilities and duties connected with the same, and should not, because he puts down or relinquishes the mine, have it in his power to throw upon another commune a duty which has been assumed by himself.

Ad. CHAPTER IV.

For the Country Districts respecting the Poor Commissioners.

The commission has considered it most proper that the general rule should be, that only one poor commission be held every year, in which every thing is to be regulated for the administration of the poor during the following year.

In the smaller parishes, and wherever the number of the poor is not considerable, and the modes of affording relief are accurately determined, it has been found hitherto, and we may hope will always be found, that one meeting is sufficient; and where this is the case, superfluous meetings ought not to be enjoined, because in many places they impose on several of the members trouble and loss of time. However, as the rule could not be applicable everywhere, it is requisite to give the commission permission to hold as many meetings every year as may be found necessary.

It has been deemed more proper to confide the superior administration of the poor to the amtmand, in preference to the direction of the stift, as the former has better opportunity of knowing the locality, resources, &c., and having a district of less extent than the latter, will be able to carry into effect such superintendence more effectually. In order to prevent partiality in the chief superintendence, it might appear to be advisable to let the dean share the office with the amtmand; but it has been deemed as a preponderating argument for the contrary, that inconvenience and procrastination in the superior superintendence would frequently arise from the remoteness of the places of residence of these functionaries from each other, as also from the circumstance that the dean himself is a member of the poor administration in the parish where he is minister, of which the bailiff must of course individually have the sole superintendence. On the other hand, it has been deemed proper that the ecclesiastical visitors should be allowed an opportunity during their visitations to see that the poor receive spiritual relief.

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Ad. CHAPTER IV.

For the trading Towns.

As the poor-rate is usually the most material source of receipt in towns in which poor administrations exist, and indeed is very oppressive to many towns, it is premised that the foremen of the town, with whom it rests principally to preserve it from unnecessary burthens, should have a vote when the question is as to the extent of the poor-rate, and respecting the necessity of the expenses to which it is to be applied; in such wise, however, that they do not, by a groundless protestation, prevent the poor commission from receiving the really essential means for keeping the poor administration effective; for this reason the amtmand is authorized to decide any disagreement on the subject between the commission and foremen. In the country, a similar interference on the part of the commonalty cannot happen, as long as the foremen are not appointed in the thinglangs, but there it is likewise less needed, as the relief is more simple, and either does not want a poor-rate, or at any rate an inconsiderable one, (cfr. § 29, in the project for the country.)

Ad. CHAPTER V.

In both projects—On the modes of providing for the Poor.

The commission has admitted that the poor direction should have its hands at liberty, as regards the choice of modes of providing for the poor, and that the law should only express the principles, in accordance with which, by general agreement, one mode of relief should be preferred to the other, where facility is given to the choice. These principles are to put the poor in a state of the greatest activity in order to lessen the burthen on the poor administration, and to prefer assistance in kind to that in money. The first, especially in the country, may present greater facility on the part of the contributors than money, and cannot be so easily misapplied by the poor. In rural districts it has been held, that the system of out quartering of the poor "in lœgd" as very advantageous, should be the principal basis of relief; because this mode of effecting the object is, on the whole, least expensive to the community, most beneficial to the poor, and the most convenient to the latter, as affording them an opportunity of being employed in the sort of labour they have been accustomed to, from better days, so far as their strength may admit. However, it has not been deemed proper to enjoin every commune to apply this mode of relief, as there are districts, such for instance as those of Salten and Lofoden, where it has not been applied hitherto, and where, according to the declarations made, it must be regarded as detrimental.

Ad. CHAPTER VI.

In both projects—As to the superintendence and discipline of the Poor.

In case a poor administration is to operate with vigour for the attainment of its object, it is not sufficient that it affords relief to the poor, but it is likewise imperative on it, that all possible attention be paid to their conduct, and that it has the right to adopt coercive measures towards them. It is with these considerations, that the present chapter has been drawn up. The reasons why, in rural districts as heretofore, the power of punishment has not been continued to the sorenskriver, while on the contrary the poor commissioners of towns have been endowed with authority to dictate and award such punishments as those of imprisonment on bread and water, are, that in the country it would be attended with too great trouble to get all the poor commissioners together, for the mere purpose of awarding punishment to a single pauper, and that the commissioners there, exclusively consist of members who have not the means of acting judicially with the needful security; while on the contrary, this is the case in trading towns, at least as to the president of the poor commission; and in towns where there is no difficulty of assembling the commission, it is supposed to be both the least expensive and quickest mode of proceeding to let the commission itself decide the case.

The commission has been involved in doubt as to whether it ought to fix the penalties, applicable to the members of the poor commission, and whether they should be sworn upon their coming into office, but the following preponderating arguments have presented themselves for a decision in the negative,—that men who are elected by the confidence of their fellow citizens, and called to employments which are only attended with trouble, should not be punished for every trivial misconception and omission on their part, and that intentional violation of important duties should be alone admitted as grounds for dismissal from the office, or other punishment according to the analogy of the law; which likewise applies to the fixed members of the commission, and that oaths ought only to be applied in cases where they are highly requisite, and otherwise may give rise to unnecessary apprehensions; especially considering that the upright man will attend to the duties which are incumbent on him, with as much zeal without the obligation of an oath as with it.

Ad. CHAPTER VII.

In both projects—Relative to Mendicity and Parish Constables or Beadles.

Although it is to be supposed that the mass of society will never regard mendicity as a crime, and it is evident there exist many instances in which it is hard to visit it with punishment, still it cannot be denied, that a free permission to beg will be productive of laziness and dissolute habits in most cases; consequently mendicity cannot be allowed, where a well organized and efficacious administration of the poor exists. Hence penal enactments applicable to mendicity are regarded to be essential,

But the commission has been of opinion, at the same time, that humanity and justice should, as relates to the country, claim an exemption from punishment in those cases of necessity where the applicants only ask for food, where otherwise hunger might terminate

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life, before they could apply and receive relief from the poor administration. The possibility of this case cannot be denied in years of scarcity, even with the best wish to do so, the poor administrations are not able to procure the food which is most essential for the poor; of which fact the last year has afforded melancholy experience in many places. As the like occurrences could not easily take place, or at least ought not to occur, in towns where the poor administration is at hand, and where the needful can hardly be wanting for a sparing maintenance of the poor, it has been held that it was unnecessary to say any thing respecting these cases of exemption in the project for them.

Ad. CHAPTER VIII.

In both projects—Relative to the Receipts of the Poor Fund, and keeping the Accounts

It would certainly be the most desirable mode of providing the needful for the administration, as regards society at large, could it be done by the voluntary contributions of those who had heart and means to succour the poor; but the collecting of voluntary contributions in our time, in most places would not be productive of a return equivalent to the trouble attending it, or render a poor rate in towns, and the money exacted or other contributions levied in the country superfluous, and to unite these sources of revenue, would only be a means of easing those who do not subscribe according to their ability, at the expense of the more willing contributors, and give rise to much vexation, not only as respects the collection, but also with regard to the detested investigation as to whether the subscribers had contributed proportionally with their means. The commission has not therefore deemed it proper to retain the existing enactment as to the subscription books being carried round. Nor has it assigned to the poor fund the income which belongs to it in many places, arising from the gifts of communicants, as it is presumed to be no very appropriate time to solicit money from the common man just when he is about to present himself at the altar; as such a donation, although inconsiderable, might easily be the means of deterring some individuals from attending the sacrament, especially as those who would be reached by this mode of proceeding might easily be found, and a contribution be levied on them at another time and place. (cfr. The project for the Country, § 42, b.)

As little has it been deemed proper to tax persons to the poor fund at their marriage, as under such circumstances they have expenses enough besides. In the present times and under the existing state of things, the commission has considered it a questionable policy to ordain the payment of duty to the poor fund upon the sale of real property by auction, on loan, &c., as the sale frequently takes place from necessity, the prices of property are considerably too much depressed already to be subjected to a still further reduction by fresh imposts, and dues upon loans will only tend to oppress the necessitous borrower.

On the other hand the commission has thought it right to propose duties on brandy and wine, as it is presumed not to be detrimental that these articles become a little dearer; and the immoderate use of brandy so frequently renders those paupers with their families, and who would not otherwise become a burthen to the poor fund. It is but just that drunkards, who oblige the community to provide for them, should contribute to the relief of the poor, during their enjoyment of the article which makes them finally paupers themselves.

The only fear has been, lest the duty should be fixed so high, as to give rise to smuggling. To levy the duty upon the sale would most assuredly have the advantage of reaching such a portion which would be smuggled in, but would likewise give rise to a very extensive and difficult control, and occasion a large portion of the commodities to escape the duty, as also that a large quantity might have to pay the duty twice or even oftener. A duty on brandy or wine, payable by the retailers, would yield a too inconsiderable revenue to the poor fund, in case the impost was not unreasonably high; and it would give rise to a considerable quantity of these products being withdrawn from the payment of duty, in consequence of clandestine sales.

For the above reasons it has been thought best that the duty ought, as regards spirits distilled at home, to be levied on the stills and collected at the same time as the duty to the State Treasury; and that the duty on wine and brandy should be collected with the duty to the customs. We have not ventured, for the reasons before stated, to tax home made spirits at more than a moiety of the duty paid to the royal treasury, and foreign wine and brandy at more than 1 skilling per pot; as the duty on these articles must be already regarded as rather high. That to the land districts are assigned, at least one third part of the duty on wine and brandy imported, seems reasonable, as the consumption of these articles in the country ought to be beneficial to them.

In respect of the appropriation of this duty, § 47 contains all that the commission can have to say upon it. With respect to the fixed duty in the country on hunsmænd and servants, it has been thought that this would not be too oppressive to the contributors, unless in the case of a few poor hunsmænd, to whom it may be remitted; and at the same time we have thought it right to spare the poor commission the necessity of rating a large number of persons whose condition, each sex considered for itself, is usually similar.

In respect of inheritances or other casual windfalls which devolve to the poor, the commission has supposed, that these occur so seldom, that the poor fund will be equally well off, if they are left to the poor as at present. The pauper relieved by them will have the better chance of ceasing to be a burthen to the poor administration for the future.

In order to avoid a troublesome operation, and one that usually is disproportionate to the value realized, that of taking an inventory and seeing to the trifles possessed by a deceased pauper, it has been proposed that the right of the poor fund to take the effects left by paupers, should be limited to such of these as do not leave any partner in wedlock or children

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unprovided for; where such relatives exist, the result would otherwise be to take with the one hand and to give with the other.

When the commission has proposed an apportionment of lægd, contributions in kind or in money, in the country, in preference to applying the cadastre as a scale it has not overlooked, that the latter mode is far more simple and easy, and that there are few complaints of unfairness; but it has conceived, in as much as justice certainly dictates that each should contribute the needful towards promoting the welfare of the community to which he belongs, in proportion to his means and income; that this principle cannot be observed if the cadastre be taken as a basis, but will be, when an assessment is made conscientiously; and it would very little accord with the idea one forms of the benefit supposed to be enjoyed under a constitutional government through the means of free election, if the community should have with reason, so little confidence in the integrity of those it chose for directors of so important an affair as the administration of the poor, that it preferred to submit to being taxed on a scale absolutely incorrect, rather than by the men selected by itself. The assessment is particularly requisite with reference to the individuals treated upon in § 44, in the project for the country as well as the towns.

In the project for the country § 47, and in § 48 for the towns, is afforded the needful opportunity to have the assessment tried by a higher court; in which respect, in as far as relates to the towns, we refer to § 33 of the law project relative to foremen in the towns.

Ad. CHAPTER IX.

In both projects—Relating to certain Privileges attaching to the Poor Administration.

However much it may be admitted that objections exist against the principle that the public should prevent an individual from marrying, the commission has still assumed that the community at large ought to prevent male paupers from increasing the burthens of the community by matrimony; every father of a family should be able to oppose the marriage of parties who are unable to provide for a family by other means than by burthening the fathers of families with their support.

This reflection is the source of the enactment in § 49 of the project for the country, and § 52 in that for the towns. It is deemed to be unnecessary to include the female sex in this prohibition, because if it be a pauper with whom a woman who is then receiving relief intends to marry, then the poor commission has the needful opportunity to object to the marriage on the score of the man; and if the marriage is to be with another, it must be regarded an advantage in general, that a woman relinquishes the provision. In case her marriage should give rise to further and increased relief, even then the poor administration would not be commonly worse off than had he whom she married taken another woman to wife, who was not receiving any relief at the time the marriage was contracted.

The Commission instituted to compile the project of a law for the poor administration,

(signed)

*P. M. Ottesen.
M. Sigwardt.
P. Holst.*

Christiania, 2d August 1832.

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications,

URUGUAY.

URUGUAY.

I. VAGRANTS.

QUESTION 1. To what extent and under what form does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?—Answer to Q. 1. Mendicity is scarcely known in the Oriental Republic of the Uruguay.

Q. 2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country, seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded, and under what regulations?—A. None.

II. DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

There can be few, if any, destitute able-bodied men in this country, where labour is in so much demand and so highly paid, consequently all the questions under this head are irrelevant.

The average price of beef is under a penny a pound, and the best wheat bread four-pence per pound.

III. IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

Q. 1. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there almshouses or other institutions for the reception of those who, through age, are incapable of earning their subsistence?—A. The labouring part of the community in this Republic being principally slaves, the master is obliged to provide for them in their old age; persons not slaves are provided by their friends, there being no almshouses or other institution for the reception of persons impotent through age.

Q. 2. To what extent, and under what regulations, is relief in food, fuel, clothing or money afforded them at their homes?—A. There are but few poor of any class in this country, and no regulations exist, to my knowledge, that afford relief to them at their homes.

Q. 3 & 4. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they boarded with individuals or quartered or billeted on the householders?—A. No such custom is known here.

Q. 5. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking part of their families?—A. The aged and poor are universally taken care of by their relations, but there are no laws to compel their assistance.

IV. SICK.

Q. 1. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there district institutions for the reception of the sick?—A. There is a charity hospital which receives the poor of all classes and countries gratis; it is well conducted, of great capacity, and usually contains from 150 to 200 patients, including foreign seamen, and others who pay for cure. This establishment is supported by a per centage on all merchandise imported, by a tax on foreign and national vessels, and by rents of property belonging to the hospital.

Q. 2. To what extent, and under what regulations, are surgical and medical relief afforded to the poor at their own homes?—A. Every medical practitioner is obliged to make a declaration on oath, before his diploma is granted, that he will attend the poor gratis at their own homes whenever sent for; and this practice universally prevails.

Q. 3. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick?—A. Only that expressed in the first of these articles.

Q. 4. To what extent, and under what regulations, is assistance given to lying-in women at their homes, or in public establishments?—A. There is no such thing as any regulation or institution for assisting lying-in women either at their homes or elsewhere.

Q. 5. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick?—A. None.

V. CHILDREN.

Illegitimate.

Q. 1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall; wholly upon the mothers, or wholly upon the fathers; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations?—A. The father, if found, must provide for both the mother and child, if not found, the child must be maintained by the mother. This, however, is a matter seldom brought before the public, because if the mother finds the child inconvenient she can send it to the Foundling Hospital, where, *as a visitor*, she can see it daily.

Q. 2. To what extent, and under what regulations, are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards?—A. The relations are under no obligations.

Q. 3. To what extent, and under what regulations, are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?—A. Only as described in No. 1.

Orphans,

Orphans, Foundlings, or Deserted Children.

	ORPHANS.	FOUNDLINGS.	DESERTED CHILDREN whose Parents are known.
Q. 4. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they taken into establishments for their reception?—	A. There is no provision for orphans, they are usually taken care of by the friends of their parents.	-- A part of the hospital is appropriated for the reception of foundlings, who are received to any extent and without inquiry.	-- If the parents be known, the law compels them to support their children. There are no establishments for their reception.

Q. 5 & 6. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they billeted or quartered on householders, or are they boarded with individuals?—A. No regulations exist to this effect.

Q. 7. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—There are no compulsory laws upon relations to this effect.

VI. CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

There is no provision for persons coming under this description.

VII. IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

Q. 1. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there establishments for their reception?—A. There are no specific establishments for this purpose, but both idiots and lunatics are admitted into the charity hospital, where wards are appropriated to the purpose.

Q. 2 & 3. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they billeted or quartered on householders, or boarded with individuals?—A. No regulations exist.

Q. 4. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—A. The parents only; afterwards they, the idiots and lunatics, become objects of charity, and are provided for in the asylum at the charity hospital.

VIII. EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

There are no poor laws in this country, therefore the several articles under this head are inapplicable.

IX. LABOURERS, &c.

Agriculture, from the nature of the country being appropriated to the rearing of cattle, is yet only very limitedly known, and in no instance pursued as a profession; labour being high and the rent of land low, any given portion of labour can produce more, in the thinly populated state of the country, by rearing cattle for the sale of hides and tallow, than could be produced by agricultural pursuits; and although a certain portion of wheat is grown annually, yet from the crops being liable to a disease much resembling blight, which makes this branch of industry very precarious, and the high price of labour in producing it, the country may be said to depend on the markets of the United States for its supply.

The persons generally employed in taking care of cattle are either slaves or gauchos, hired at about eight dollars a month by the year.

Q. 4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.—A. I have no means of ascertaining the annual expenditure of labourers; but children may be educated at national schools supported by the government, and attended and examined by the clergy of the district.

Q. 5. Is there any, and what employment for women and children?—A. I know of no other work than the needle, which, generally speaking, must be limited.

Q. 6 & 7. What can women, and children under 16, earn per week, in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed? What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8 and 5 years respectively, (the eldest a boy,) expect to earn in a year, obtaining as in the former case, an average amount of employment?—A. Unknown.

Q. 8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children, and if so, on what food?—A. A family may subsist on the labour of the husband without any earnings of the wife and children, and have a meal with meat three times a day.

Q. 9. Could it lay by any thing, and how much?—A. If frugal, they may, for I have known several slaves, who were allowed to work on the condition of paying their master a portion of their wages, save enough to buy their own freedom, and afterwards become so rich as to have slaves themselves.

The remainder of the questions unanswered.

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.

BRITTANY.

FRANCE.—BRITTANY.

I. VAGRANTS.

QUESTION 1. To what extent, and under what form, does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?—Answer to Q. 1. To a very great extent, and under every form. It is impossible to particularize without entering into a long statistical account for every parish, as it varies in each.

Q. 2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded, and under what regulations?—People seeking work and unable to procure it obtain a trifling relief from the mayor (out of the parish funds), generally a 3 lb. loaf, and a "Passeport d'Indigent," to some distant town. This passport entitles the bearer to a relief of 15 centimes ($1\frac{1}{2}$ d. sterling) per league, payable at each commune through which he passes. Mendicants arriving in towns are permitted to beg two or three days, during which they are supposed to collect sufficient to enable them to go elsewhere. They must then leave the town.

II. DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

Q. 1, 2, & 3. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they, or any part of their families, billeted or quartered on householders; or boarded with individuals; or are there district Houses of Industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families, and supplying them with food, clothes, &c., and in which they are set to work?—A. None.

Q. 4. To what extent, and under what regulations, do any religious institutions give assistance to the destitute, by receiving them as inmates, or by giving them alms?—A. The only religious assistance is charity from the clergy, who seldom refuse an applicant.

Q. 5. To what extent, and under what regulations, is work provided at their own dwellings for those who have trades, but do not procure work for themselves?—A. None.

Q. 6. To what extent, and under what regulations, is work provided for such persons in agriculture or on public works?—In Brest, where the population is about 30,000, a few are employed on public works, such as sweeping the streets, repairing public walks, &c. &c. The number varies from 16 to 50, and their pay from 50 cents. to one franc (5 d. to 10 d. sterling) per diem.

Q. 7. To what extent, and under what regulations, are fuel, clothing or money distributed to such persons or their families; at all times of the year, or during any particular seasons?—A. A sum (16,000 francs, or 660 l.) is annually granted by the town for this purpose. It is far from being sufficient. In severe weather public subscriptions are made; but all this does not suffice for the many cases of distress that occur during winter. The distributions are made by paid agents, under the direction of a committee of charitable persons appointed by the mayor.

Q. 8. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they relieved by their children being taken into schools, and fed, clothed and educated or apprenticed?—There are public schools, to which all poor children are admitted for six or eight hours a day; but they do not give either food or raiment: 13,850 francs (554 l. sterling) are annually paid by the town of Brest for public education.

Q. 9. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are the relatives of the destitute compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking charge of part of their families?—The laws define the degrees of relationship obliged to assist each other; parents and children; brothers and sisters; but there are no specific regulations; and the laws are easily evaded.

Q. 10. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they assisted by loans?—None.

III. IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

Q. 1. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there almshouses or other institutions for the reception of those who, through age, are incapable of earning their subsistence?—A. The town hospital is the only establishment for the reception of persons of this description. At 70 years of age those who are destitute are admitted and provided for. Such as have small incomes (not sufficient for their maintenance at large) are received, but must pay to the extent of 60 francs per annum to the hospital. All applications for admission must be approved by the mayor.

Q. 2, 3 & 4. To what extent, and under what regulations, is relief in food, fuel, clothing or money afforded them at their homes? or are they boarded with individuals? or are they quartered or billeted on the householders?—None.

Q. 5. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking part of their families?—Same Answer as to Question 9. (Able-bodied Destitute.)

It frequently occurs that the relations, unwilling to keep them at home, pay for their maintenance at the hospital.

IV. SICK.

Q. 1. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there district institutions for the reception of the sick?—A. Public hospitals, to which all wounded and feverish applicants are immediately

immediately admitted. The average annual expenditure of the Brest hospital amounts to 76,000 francs (3,040*l.* sterling.)

Q. 2. To what extent, and under what regulations, are surgical and medical relief afforded to the poor at their own homes?—A. None.

Q. 3. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick?—A. None.

Q. 4. To what extent, and under what regulations, is assistance given to lying-in women at their homes, or in public establishments?—A. They are received at the hospitals, where there is a separate ward for them, and taken care of until sufficiently recovered to return to their homes.

Q. 5. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick?—None.

V. CHILDREN:

Illegitimate.

Q. 1 & 2. There are no legal means of compelling either fathers or mothers to support their illegitimate children.

Q. 3. To what extent, and under what regulations, are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?—A. In every large town a foundling hospital is constantly open to receive abandoned children, who are maintained until old enough to be placed out as apprentices. The annual expense of the Brest Foundling Hospital is 17,500 francs (700*l.* sterling), 325 to 350 children are annually received.

Orphans, Foundlings, or Deserted Children.

Q. 4. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they taken into establishments for their reception?—A. Same as the illegitimate children.

Q. 5 & 6. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they billeted or quartered on householders? or, boarded with individuals?—A. None.

Q. 7. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—A. When deserted by their relations whom it is difficult to compel to support them, they generally are received by the friends or neighbours; if not, they are placed in the foundling hospital. See Answer to Q. 3, respecting illegitimate children.

VI. CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

Q. 1. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there establishments for their reception?—A. In the five departments of Brittany there are two establishments for the reception of the deaf and dumb. Admission is obtained by a recommendation from the municipal authorities, approved by the Minister of the Interior. As their subsistence must be paid for, there are few applications; the others remain in their families, or become beggars. There are no establishments for the reception of cripples or the blind.

Q. 2 & 3. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they billeted or quartered on householders? or, boarded with individuals?—None.

Q. 4. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?—Same answer as to Q. 9, (Able-bodied, Destitute.) When abandoned by their relatives, they become mendicants, and are treated as such.

VII. IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

	IDIOTS.	LUNATICS.
Q. 1. To what extent, and under what regulations, are there establishments for their reception?	A. None - - -	- - There are two mad-houses in Brittany; each parish pays for the maintenance of the lunatics it sends. Brest pays on an average yearly 1,200 francs (48 <i>l.</i> sterling.)
Q. 2. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they billeted or quartered on householders?	A. None - - -	None.
Q. 3. To what extent, and under what regulations, are they boarded with individuals?	A. None - - -	None.
Q. 4. To what extent, and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship, are their relatives compelled to support them?	A. Same answer as to Q. 9, (Able-bodied, Destitute.) Idiots are respected and well treated by the peasantry, who believe they bring good luck to the house they inhabit.	- - Same answer as to Q. 9, (Able-bodied, Destitute.) The dangerous maniacs only are confined. Harmless lunatics roam about and meet with the same charity as idiots.

Appendix (F.)

Foreign
Communications.

BRITTANY.

VIII. EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

1st. On the industry of the labourers? 2d. On their frugality? 3d. On the age at which they marry? 4th. On the mutual dependence and affection of parent, children and other relatives?—A. None.

5th. What, on the whole, is the condition of the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, as compared with the condition of the person subsisting on alms or public charity. Is the condition of the latter, as to food and freedom from labour more or less eligible? (See p. 261 & 335 of the Poor Law "Extracts.")—A. The able-bodied and self-supporting labourer in town is very little better off than the person subsisting on charity. The difference in food is in favour of the latter. In the country, the relief to beggars being mostly afforded by people living on very low fare, the labourer is better off than the beggar.

IX. LABOURERS, &c.

	ARTISAN.	AGRICULTURIST.
Q. 1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month, or the year, with and without provisions in summer and in winter?	A. 1 franc 50 cents (15 <i>d.</i> sterling) per diem.	-- In summer 1 franc (10 <i>d.</i> sterling) per diem. In winter 70 centimes (7 <i>d.</i>) per diem.
Q. 2. Is piece-work general?	A. Yes, among the skilled.	-- No.
Q. 3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?	A. About 450 francs (18 <i>l.</i> sterling.)	About 275 francs (11 <i>l.</i> sterling.)
Q. 4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.	A. Almost all their earnings. The instruction of their children is gratuitously carried on by religious teachers.	Almost all their earnings. Same as artisans.
Q. 5. Is there any, and what employment for women and children?	A. For women, needle work, washing, knitting, spinning. The children earn little, being apprentices until 15 or 16.	-- The women work in the fields, spin, knit; boys, when old enough, work in the fields.
Q. 6. What can women and children, under 16, earn per week, in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed?	A. Women from 50 to 70 cents (5 <i>d.</i> to 7 <i>d.</i> sterling) per diem. Some children 25 cents (2½ <i>d.</i> sterling) per diem.	-- Women from 30 to 60 cents. (3 <i>d.</i> to 6 <i>d.</i> sterling) per diem. Children, during harvest, about 20 cents (2 <i>d.</i> sterling) per diem; at other times very little.
Q. 7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8 and 5 years respectively, (the eldest a boy,) expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?	A. 250 francs (10 <i>l.</i> sterling.)	200 francs (8 <i>l.</i> sterling.)
Q. 8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children, and if so, on what food?	A. Yes. Bread, a small quantity of meat (perhaps 5 lb. a week) vegetables and fish, which are very cheap.	-- Yes. The principal articles of food are buckwheat made into porridge and cakes; barley bread, potatoes, cabbages, and about 6 lb. of pork weekly. A little grease for the cabbage soup, which is poured on barley bread.
Q. 9. Could it lay by any thing, and how much?	A. Not above 2 <i>l.</i> per annum.	Seldom more than 1 <i>l.</i> 10 <i>s.</i> per annum.
Q. 10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?	A. None.	A small patch of garden, sufficient for cabbages.

	ARTISAN.	AGRICULTURIST.
Q. 11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations?	Retired shopkeepers.	A. Petty land owners.
Q. 12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale?	A. The average price in towns is 2 <i>l.</i> 10 <i>s.</i> for two rooms in a house.	-- In the country about 2 <i>l.</i> for two rooms. Labourers seldom occupy the whole habitation.
Q. 13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and at what rent?	A. None.	-- The industrious labourer sometimes takes 1 or 1½ acres of garden ground, the produce of which is sold by his wife at the market. The rent is generally 2 <i>l.</i> 5 <i>s.</i> per acre.

Q. 14. The proportion of annual deaths to the whole population?—A. Average annual deaths, 1,460.

Q. 15. The proportion of annual births to the whole population?—A. Average annual births, 1,380.

Q. 16. The proportion of annual marriages to the whole population?—A. Could not obtain this information.

Q. 17. The average number of children to a marriage?—Two.

Q. 18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births?—A. Legitimate, 1,235; illegitimate, 145, or 1 in 8 $\frac{5}{10}$.

Q. 19, 20 & 21. The proportion of children that die before the end of their first year? Proportion of children that die before the end of their 10th year? Proportion of children that die before the end of their 18th year?—A. Could not obtain this information.

Q. 22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—Males, 26; Females, 19.

The population of the town of Brest is about 30,000.

The following RETURNS from authentic sources afford the most correct Answers to Questions 14 to 22.

BIRTHS IN 1833.

PLACES.	BOYS.		GIRLS.		TOTAL.
	Legitimate.	Illegitimate.	Legitimate.	Illegitimate.	
LAMBEZELLEC, joining Brest, Population, 8,460 inhabitants	188	5	183	6	382, or 1 in 22 $\frac{14}{100}$.
PLOUSANE, Six miles from Brest inland, Population, 2,452 inhabitants	32	-	38	-	70, or 1 in 35.
CONQUET, 18 miles from Brest, Population, 1,294 inhabitants	22	1	20	-	43, or 1 in 30.

DEATHS IN 1833.

PLACES.	Under 5.	5 to 10.	10 to 20.	20 to 30.	30 to 40.	40 to 50.	50 to 60.	60 to 70.	70 to 80.	80 to 90.	90 to 100.	Total.
LAMBEZELLEC:												
Males - - -	69	10	3	24	18	10	11	11	11	2	-	169
Females - - -	64	9	4	9	5	11	10	8	9	4	-	133
Total, - - -	133	19	7	33	23	21	21	19	20	6	-	302
Or 1 in -	63 $\frac{2}{3}$	445 $\frac{1}{4}$	1,208 $\frac{1}{2}$	256 $\frac{1}{2}$	368	403	403	445 $\frac{1}{4}$	423	1,410	-	28
PLOUSANE:												
Males - - -	14	-	-	-	1	3	3	3	2	1	-	27
Females - - -	10	-	2	-	1	3	2	6	5	1	-	30
Total, - - -	24	-	2	-	2	6	5	9	7	2	-	57
Or 1 in -	102 $\frac{1}{6}$	-	1,226	-	1,226	408 $\frac{2}{3}$	490 $\frac{2}{3}$	272 $\frac{1}{2}$	350 $\frac{2}{3}$	1,226	-	43
CONQUET:												
Males - - -	1	-	1	2	4	1	2	3	1	-	-	15
Females - - -	2	-	-	3	3	1	-	3	2	-	-	14
Total, - - -	3	-	1	5	7	2	2	6	3	-	-	29
Or 1 in -	431 $\frac{1}{3}$	-	1,294	258 $\frac{4}{5}$	184 $\frac{2}{5}$	647	647	215 $\frac{2}{3}$	431 $\frac{1}{3}$	-	-	44 $\frac{5}{10}$

Average number of children to a marriage, 3

Average age of marriage: Males, 22; Females, 23.

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 —
 BRITTANY.

Q. 23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—A. Want of means of support.

Q. 24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried; 2d, the married, save?—The unmarried enough to buy a stock of clothes; the married very little.

Q. 25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—The married, in towns, in savings banks, to a very little extent. In the country they hoard, to have enough to pay the fine on taking a small farm.

It is extremely difficult to obtain any statistical information in Brittany, all inquiries being received with distrust, not only by the authorities, but also by the inhabitants. This has been the principal cause of my delay in replying to the series of Questions herewith. The answers, imperfect as they may appear, are the result of patient and persevering inquiry.

The state of society in Brittany, and its institutions differ so widely from those of any other civilized country, that few of the Questions in this series are applicable. In order, therefore, to convey the information which these Questions are intended to elicit, it is necessary to enter into a description of the population, which I shall endeavour to do as briefly as possible.

The population of Brittany may be classed under the following heads:

Old noblesse possessing a portion of the land.

Proprietors, retired merchants and others, who have vested their money in landed property.

Peasants, owners of the ground they till.

Farmers.

Daily labourers and beggars.

The abolition of the right of primogeniture causes a daily diminution of the two first classes. As property, at the demise of the owner, must be divided equally amongst his children, who can seldom agree about the territorial division, it is put up for sale, purchased by speculators, and resold in small lots to suit the peasantry. Farmers having amassed sufficient to pay a part, generally one half, of the purchase money of a lot, buy it, giving a mortgage at five or six per cent. for the remainder. Thus petty proprietors increase, and large proprietors and farmers decrease.

A man, industrious enough to work all the year, can easily get a farm.

Farms are small. Their average size in Lower Brittany does not exceed fourteen acres. Some are so small as two acres, and there are many of from four to eight. The largest in the neighbourhood of Brest is thirty-six acres. The average rate of rent is 1*l.* 5*s.* per acre for good land, and 8*s.* for poor land (partly under broom and furze).

The farmers are very poor, and live miserably; yet, their wants being few and easily satisfied, they are comparatively happy. Their food consists of barley bread, butter, buck wheat (made into puddings, porridge and cakes). Soup composed of cabbage water, a little grease, or butter and salt poured on bread. Potatoes; meat twice a week (always salt pork.)

A family of twelve, including servants and children, consumes annually about 700 lbs. of pork and 100 lbs. of cow beef; the latter only on festivals.

The class of daily labourers can only be said to exist in towns. In the country they are almost unknown.

The inmates of each farm, consisting of the farmer's family, and one, two or three males, and as many female servants (according to the size of the farm) paid annually, and who live with the family, suffice for the general work. At harvest some additional hands are employed. These are generally people who work two or three months in the year, and beg during the remainder. Daily labourers and beggars may, therefore, in the country, be classed under the same head.

Farmers' servants are orphans or children of unfortunate farmers.

The conditions of the poorer farmers, daily labourers and beggars, are so near akin, that the passage from one state to another is very frequent.

Mendicity is not considered disgraceful in Brittany. Farmers allow their children to beg along the roads. On Saint's days, especially the festivals of celebrated Saints, whose shrines attract numerous votaries (all of whom give something, be it ever so little, to the poor), the aged, infirm and children of poor farmers and labourers, turn out. Some small hamlets are even totally abandoned by their inhabitants for two or three days. All attend the festival to beg.

The Bretons are hospitable. Charity and hospitality are considered religious duties. Food and shelter for a night are never refused.

Several attempts to suppress mendicity have been unsuccessful. District asylums were established. No sooner were they filled than the vacancies in the beggar stands were immediately replenished by fresh subjects from the country; it being a general feeling, that it is much easier and more comfortable to live by alms than by labour.

In towns where the police is well regulated, the only mendicants permitted to sojourn are paupers belonging to the parish. They are known by a tin badge, for which they pay at the police office. All foreign beggars are treated as mentioned in answer to Question 2, (Vagrants.)

No such thing is known as a legal claim for assistance from public or private charities.

In towns, destitute workmen or other persons in distress must be authorized by the municipality previous to soliciting public or private assistance. To effect this, the pauper makes known his case to the commissary of police of the quarter he inhabits, who makes inquiry

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inquiry among the neighbours. Should the destitute case of the applicant be established, the mayor grants him a certificate of indigence, which authorizes him to apply for relief to the public institutions, and to solicit private charity. It also exempts him (or rather causes his exemption) from the payment of taxes.

The principal cause of misery is inebriety; its frequency among the lower orders keeps them in poverty. The "*cabaret*" (wine and brandy shop) absorbs a great portion of their earnings. This vice is not confined to men; the women partake of it. It has decreased within the last five or six years, but is still considerable.

I have been unable to procure dietaries of prisons or other institutions. The following are the only particulars I have been able to obtain.

HOSPITAL OF BREST.

Aged Infirm.

Breakfast, eight in the morning. Bread; sometimes a little fruit and vegetables.

Dinner at twelve. Soup; vegetables; fish once or twice a week.

Supper at six. Same as dinner.

Meat twice a week.

The allowance of bread is one pound per diem.

The price paid by the relatives for the support of aged and infirm is 75 centimes ($7\frac{1}{2}$ d. sterling) per diem.

FOUNDLING HOSPITAL.

The diet is the same as for the aged infirm, with the difference that milk is given to the youngest.

PRISONS.

Prisoners without the means of paying for accommodation are kept in a most deplorable condition.

The accused and convicted are confined together. The women separate from the men.

The bedding is 10 lbs. of straw, renewed weekly. No blanket or covering of any kind. No clothing is given to them.

The ration is one pound and a half of bread, and a quart of soup daily.

A D D E N D U M.

[Received 26th February 1835, after the preceding was printed.]

BAHIA.

VAGRANTS.

1. To what extent and under what form does mendicity prevail in the several districts of the country?—Vagrants are numerous throughout the city and province, and certain orders of friars derive their subsistence from begging. This occupation they pursue deep into the interior, where they levy large contributions in rice, coffee and other produce.

2. Is there any relief to persons passing through the country, seeking work, returning to their native places, or living by begging; and by whom afforded and under what regulations?—None of a compulsory character. Relief in such cases is dependent on private benevolence.

DESTITUTE ABLE-BODIED.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are they, or any part of their families, billeted or quartered on householders?—There are no regulations for billeting or quartering such persons on householders.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they boarded with individuals?—Answered by No. 1.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there district houses of industry for receiving the destitute able-bodied, or any part of their families, and supplying them with food, clothes, &c., and in which they are set to work?—There are no such establishments in this province: no district houses of industry for the purposes enumerated. A correctional prison, on the plan adopted in the United States, is now about to be established.

4. To what extent and under what regulations do any religious institutions give assistance to the destitute, by receiving them as inmates, or by giving them alms?—Some of the monasteries of the city give out daily rations of meat, &c. to the destitute; others distribute a pittance of alms and a ration of bread. The relief is very circumscribed. No inmates are received.

5. To what extent, and under what regulations is work provided at their own dwellings for those who have trades, but do not procure work for themselves? or, 6. Is work provided for such persons in agriculture or on public works?—There are no regulations to effect such purposes.

7. To what extent and under what regulations are fuel, clothing or money distributed to such persons or their families; at all times of the year, or during any particular seasons?—The answer to No. 4 is the only reply applicable to this question.

8. To what extent and under what regulations are they relieved by their children being taken into schools, and fed, clothed and educated or apprenticed?—In every parish (freguezia) of this province there exists an elementary school (aula das primeiras letras), the master being appointed and the small expenses of the seminary defrayed by the provincial government. In these establishments the children of all classes are free to acquire the first rudiments of education without fee or charge of any description. The children are not, however, fed or clothed at the public expense, nor are there any regulations for apprenticing them.

9. To what extent and under what regulations, and to what degree of relationship are the relatives of the destitute compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking charge of part of their families?—No such regulations are here in existence. In the absence of compulsion by law, private good feeling and charity effects much; the relatives of the destitute being frequently admitted, and, as it were, adopted into the families of their less needy relations.

10. To what extent and under what regulations are they assisted by loans?—There are no regulations to this effect.

IMPOTENT THROUGH AGE.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there alms-houses or other institutions for the reception of those who, through age, are incapable of earning their subsistence?—There are no alms-houses or institutions of a similar description for the reception of this class of sufferers.

2. To what extent and under what regulations is relief in food, fuel, clothing or money afforded them at their homes? or, 3. Are they boarded with individuals? or, 4. Are they quartered or billeted on the householders? or, 5. Are their relatives compelled to assist them with money, food or clothing, or by taking part of their families?—There are no regulations to this effect.

SICK.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there district institutions for the reception of the sick?—The city of Bahia possesses a charitable institution, named *Santa P. L. (F.)*

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Caza da Misericordia, which is maintained on a very extensive and efficient footing by dues exacted from shipping frequenting the port, and occasional benefactions, combined with a large rental from the accumulated bequests of the charitable. It is governed by a provedor or chairman, his deputy and administrators, annually chosen.

The town of Cachoeira, and some others in the province, are likewise provided with similar institutions on a smaller scale. In these charities patients of all ages, colours and descriptions are received, including lunatics, idiots, cripples, deaf and dumb, the blind, deserted children and foundlings.—Infirmity and destitution are titles sufficient for admission.—Deserted children and foundlings are received without investigation or question touching parentage or legitimacy. They are fed, clothed and educated at the cost of the institution until the females become marriageable, and the boys are old enough to learn a trade. This liberality leads to abuse. Instances being not infrequent, in which parents sordid, but not really necessitous, have burthened the charity with their legitimate offspring, whilst by subsequent management they have contrived to get them back from the hospital as unknown foundling out-patients with a monthly allowance for maintenance. The actual number of patients supported by the *Caza da Misericordia* of this city, is estimated at about two thousand. The particulars of its revenue and expenditure are given in the statement annexed.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are surgical and medical relief afforded to the poor at their own homes?—This species of succour is altogether dependent on the individual benevolence of the medical faculty.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are there institutions for affording food, fuel, clothing or money to the sick?—There are neither institutions nor regulations for such purposes beyond those described in No. 1.

4. To what extent and under what regulations is assistance given to lying-in women at their homes, or in public establishments?—There are no public establishments for the reception of lying-in women, nor are there any public regulations to ensure their being attended at their private dwellings.

5. To what extent and under what regulations are there any other modes of affording public assistance to the sick?—There are no regulations by law established. The *Santa Caza da Misericordia* described in answer to question No. 1 (*Sick*) is the only public refuge for the indigent sick.

CHILDREN :

Illegitimate.

1. Upon whom does the support of illegitimate children fall; wholly upon the mothers, or wholly upon the fathers; or is the expense distributed between them, and in what proportion, and under what regulations?—The father only may be compelled to pay for the support of his affiliated child to the extent of Rs. 12. 000, or 30 shillings (ex. 30 d.) per month. The paternity being legally proved, the illegitimate infant at once stands on a footing of equal right and title with the lawful offspring of his recognised parent.

2. To what extent and under what regulations are the relatives of the mothers or fathers ever compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards?—There is no regulation by which the relatives of the mothers or fathers may be compelled to assist in the maintenance of bastards.

3. To what extent and under what regulations are illegitimate children supported at the public expense?—Strictly speaking, the *Misericordia Hospital* is the only establishment into which foundlings are admissible. *Vide* answer to question No. 1. (*Sick*.)

Orphans, Foundlings, or Deserted Children.

4. To what extent and under what regulations are they taken into establishments for their reception?—*Orphans*. The city of Bahia possesses a very stately edifice for male orphans. Its revenue is derived from occasional bequests and donations, aided by a moderate annual grant from the Provincial Government. The funds as they are now administered, by a board consisting of 12 governors and a president, suffice only for the maintenance and education of about 50 boys. Admission to this charity is obtained by ballot.—*Foundlings*. *Misericordia Hospital*. See Answer No. 1. (*Sick*).—*Deserted Children, whose parents are known*. No appointed place of refuge for such children. See Answer No. 1. (*Sick*.)

5. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders? 6. Are they boarded with individuals? 7. To what degree of relationship are their relatives compelled to support them?—No regulations thereon.

CRIPPLES, DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception?—No establishment for the relief of this class of sufferers, simply as such. *Misericordia Hospital*, see No. 1. (*Sick*.)

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders? or, 3. Are they boarded with individuals? or, 4. To what degree of relationship are their relatives compelled to support them?—No regulations thereon.

IDIOTS AND LUNATICS.

1. To what extent and under what regulations are there establishments for their reception?—There is no law to provide for the succour of idiots, but they are freely admitted into the *Santa Caza Misericordia*.

A ward for lunatics is kept at the *Misericordia Hospital*; but no curative system for the mental ailment is in practice.

2. To

2. To what extent and under what regulations are they billeted or quartered on householders? or, 3. Are they boarded with individuals? or, 4. To what degree of relationship are their relatives compelled to support them?—No regulations thereon.

EFFECTS OF THE FOREGOING INSTITUTIONS.

You are requested to state whether the receipt, or the expectation of relief, appears to produce any and what effect:

1st, On the industry of the labourers? 2d, On their frugality? 3d, On the age at which they marry? and, 4th, On the mutual dependence and affection of parent, children and other relatives?—As the institutions do not exist in this province, no answers can be supplied to these queries.

5th, What, on the whole, is the condition of the able-bodied and self-supporting labourer of the lowest class, as compared with the condition of the person subsisting on alms or public charity. Is the condition of the latter, as to food and freedom from labour, more or less eligible? (See p. 261 and 335 of the Poor Law "Extracts.")—The condition of the able-bodied self-supporting labourer of the lowest class in this province, is on the whole far superior to that of the persons subsisting on alms or public charity. The industrious artizan or labourer is sure of work, by which his regular wants are as regularly supplied; whilst the dependant on chance charity fluctuates between excess and intemperance one day, and want and inanition the other. The condition of the latter as to food and freedom from labour is therefore less eligible.

LABOURERS, &c.

1. What is the general amount of the wages of an able-bodied male labourer, by the day, the week, the month, or the year, with and without provisions, in summer and in winter?—Skilful free husbandmen seldom engage on wages, field labour being left to the slave population. Free agriculturalists, whether white, mulatto or black, derive an easy subsistence from the cultivation of small patches of land, which are readily obtainable at a trifling rent, if not rent free.

A cottage is erected at a small expense and trouble, and the soil soon supplies food for the cottager and his family.

A steady skilful artizan readily finds employment throughout the year, at an average of Rs. 000 640, or circa 2 s. by the day.

2. Is piece-work general?—It is commonly practiced. The journeyman in some cases agreeing to receive one half of the sum paid by the customer, in others a fixed sum for each job.

3. What, in the whole, might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—The earnings of a year may be described as the aggregate pay for 250 working days, according to the rate described in answer No. 1. The working classes are rigidly observant of Saints' days and holidays, days of complete idleness with them.

4. State, as nearly as you can, the average annual expenditure of labourers of different descriptions, specifying schooling for children, religious teachers, &c.?—The average annual expenditure of an unmarried free agriculturalist may amount to Rs. 80. 000 (12 l.) The addition of a wife and two children may double this amount. The expenditure of artizans resident in towns must be reckoned full 100 per cent. higher. Neither schooling nor religious teachers, however, form an item of charge.

5. Is there any, and what employment, for women and children?—The wives of free agriculturalists rarely seek employment beyond the duties of their cottage; and the male children soon learn to follow the fathers to the field, or to fishing in the vicinity of rivers or the sea.

6. What can women and children, under 16, earn per week, in summer, in winter and harvest, and how employed?—Free women and young children are rarely engaged on hire in field labour.

7. What, in the whole, might a labourer's wife and four children, aged 14, 11, 8 and 5 years respectively, (the eldest a boy,) expect to earn in a year, obtaining, as in the former case, an average amount of employment?—An agricultural labourer's wife and four children of the ages described, not having any regular employment or hire to which to resort, must be chiefly dependant on the husband's exertions.

8. Could such a family subsist on the aggregate earnings of the father, mother and children, and if so, on what food?—Such a family might subsist on the earnings of the father, promoted by the domestic industry of the mother, their subsistence being the flour of the mandioca root, jerked beef, salt fish, yams, herbs, &c.

9. Could it lay by any thing, and how much?—Under such circumstances it would be difficult to "lay by any thing."

10. The average quantity of land annexed to a labourer's habitation?—It is scarcely practicable to frame correct averages, the ground being uninclosed, and the restriction as to quantity very loose.

11. What class of persons are the usual owners of labourers' habitations?—"Senhores de Engenho," owners of the soil.

12. The rent of labourers' habitations, and price on sale?—The cottages are usually constructed of such simple materials as to make them of very trifling pecuniary worth. Very few would reach so high an estimate as Rs. 20. 000, or 3 l. sterling.

13. Whether any lands let to labourers; if so, the quantity to each, and what rent?—

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The quantity designated a "rossados" is dependant on the condition named in answer to No. 10.; and the rent is usually very small, rarely exceeding a few shillings per annum.

14, 15, 16. The proportion of annual deaths, births and marriages to the whole population? 17. The average number of children to a marriage? 18. Proportion of legitimate to illegitimate births? 19, 20, 21. The proportion of children that die before the end of their 1st, 10th and 18th year?—The Government of Bahia has at different times issued urgent injunctions for statistical returns regarding births, marriages, deaths, &c.; but down to this period not one has been transmitted. It is not, therefore, in my power to give replies which I may presume to offer as authentic approximations to truth.

22. Average age of marriage, distinguishing males from females?—In the absence of official returns, I am only able to offer the collected opinion of the best authorities within my sphere, viz. that a very large proportion of males marry between the ages of 18 and 20, and of females, between 12 and 15.

23. Causes by which marriages are delayed?—Independent of the hindrances which are common to all countries, the great laxity of morals in this, and the redundancy of female population, have powerful influence in delaying and preventing marriages.

24. Extent to which, 1st, the unmarried; 2d, the married, save?—There are no data on which to found a satisfactory reply to this question.

25. Mode in which they invest their savings?—No data.

Prison Dietary, &c.

Unless to members of the military profession, no allowance whatever is made by the government. Almshouses and workhouses are unknown. To prisoners entirely destitute the *Caza Santa da Misericordia* provides a scanty ration of boiled beef and rice, *once a day*. Notwithstanding which, deaths from starvation in gaol are by no means infrequent.

Dietary of the Santa Caza da Misericordia.

1st diet. Breakfast, 8 oz. fowl soup; dinner and supper, the same.

2d diet. Breakfast, 8 oz. fowl soup; 2 oz. bread; dinner and supper, the same.

3d diet. Breakfast, 4 oz. bread; 8 oz. hot water; and 1 oz. sugar. Dinner, one ration of fowl;* 2 oz. rice or 4 oz. bread. Supper, same as breakfast.

4th diet. Breakfast, 2 oz. bread, 6 oz. milk, 8 oz. hot water, and 1 oz. refined sugar. Dinner, one ration of fowl, 2 oz. rice or 4 oz. bread. Supper, 4 oz. bread, 8 oz. hot water, and 1 oz. refined sugar.

5th diet. Breakfast, 4 oz. bread, 8 oz. hot water, and 1 oz. refined sugar. Dinner, 5 oz. roast or boiled beef, 2 oz. rice or 4 oz. of bread. Supper, same as breakfast.

Breakfast, at eight o'clock a. m.

Dinner, mid-day.

Supper, six o'clock p. m.

HOSPITAL.

	Rs.	£.	s.	d.
The total receipts of the Santa Caza da Misericordia of Bahia for the year ending 30th June 1834 amounts to - - - - -	96 478 622	12,059	16	7
The outgoings within the like period - - - - -	89 320 965	11,165	2	6
Disposeable surplus - - - - - Rs.	7 157 657	£.894	14	1

Number of persons employed in the Hospital - - - - -	118
Of the inmates, foundlings - 83 remained from former year.	
Ditto ditto - 85 more admitted into the charity during the year ending as before stated.	
168	

They are thus accounted for; viz.

Died - - - - -	44
Returned to their parents - - - - -	4
Now at nurse - - - - -	95
Under cure - - - - -	25
168	

Subsistence supplied to 159 prisoners.

Patients from last year remaining in the Hospital - - - - - 298	Died - - - - - 443
Admitted this year - - - - - 2,053	Cured - - - - - 1,662
2,351	Under cure - - - - - 246
	2,351

Bahia,
31 October 1834.}

John Parkinson, Consul.

* The fowls are divided into 13 rations.

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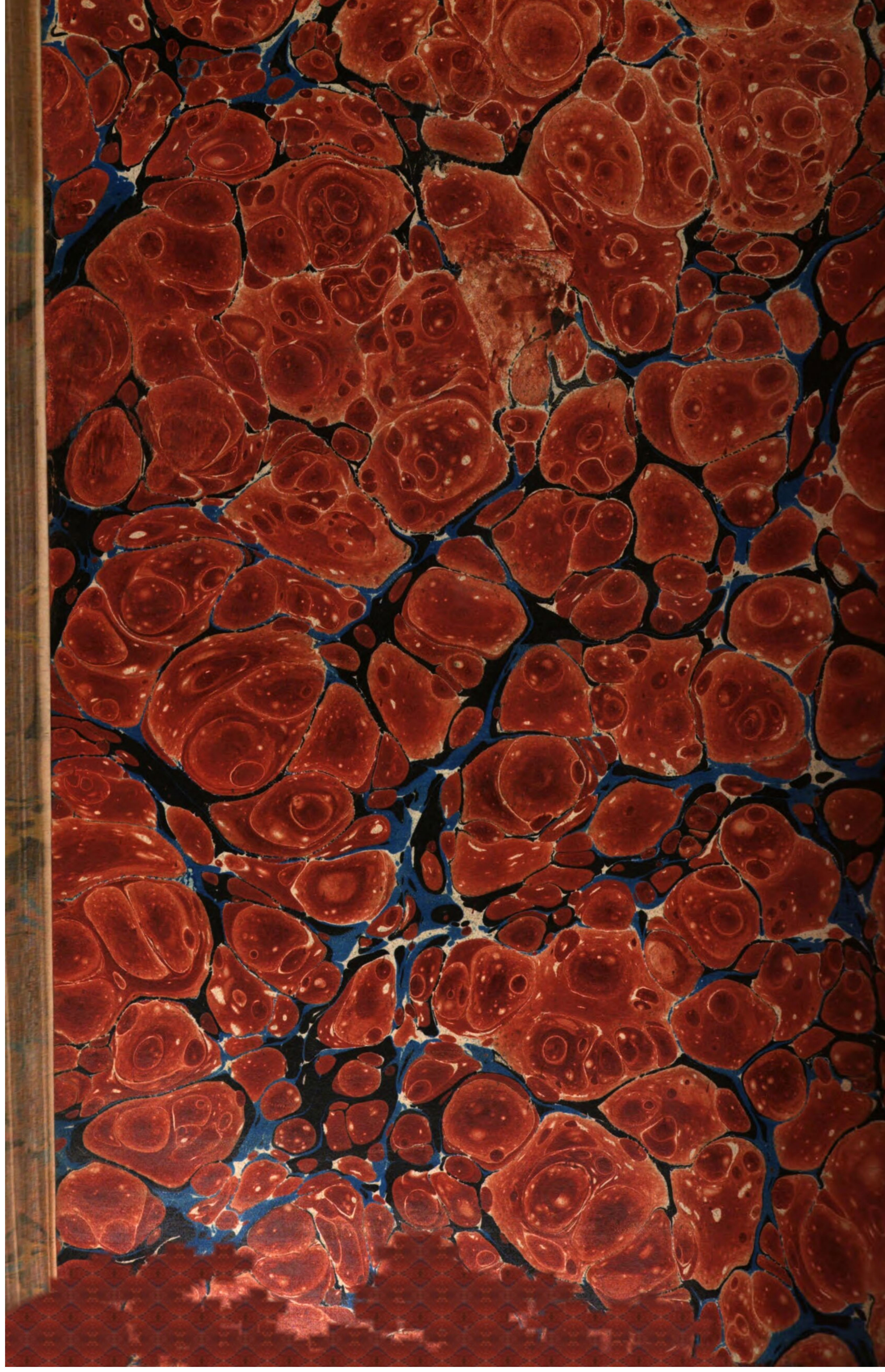
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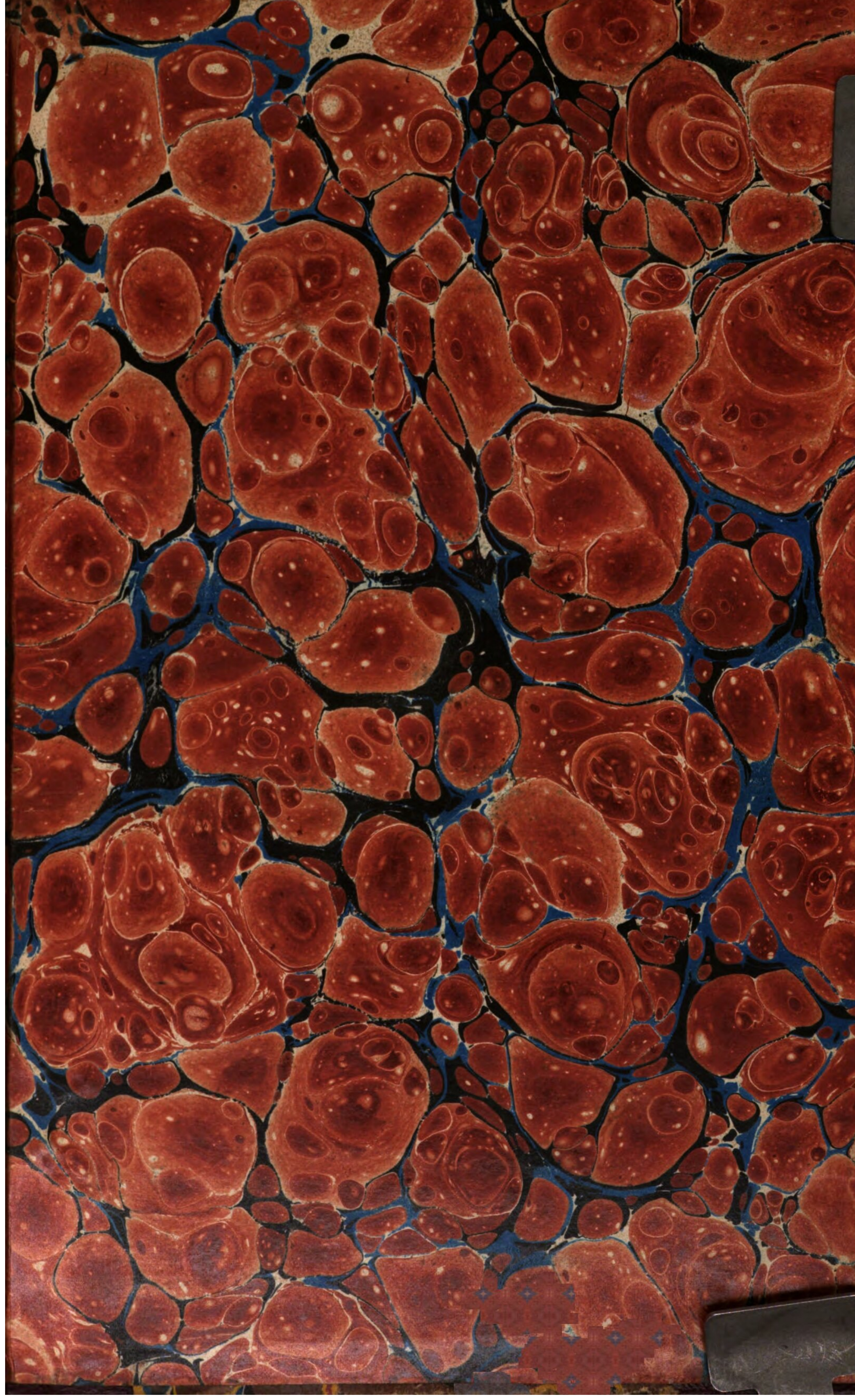
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